INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF LANGUAGE LEARNING AND APPLIED LINGUISTICS WORLD

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

Theory and practice in English

Language teaching & learning

Teaching English as a second/foreign language

Applied linguistics

Discourse studies

Syllabus design

Language learning problems

Computer assisted language learn

English for specific purpose

English for academic purpose

Language teaching & testing

Translation studies

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World

(IJLLALW)

Volume 4 (1), September 2013

IJLLALW

1

IJLLALW

INTERNATIONAL EDITORIAL BOARD

Editor in chief:Dr. Taher Bahrani
(University Malaya, Malayisa)

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.

The international journal of language learning and applied linguistics world is a double-blind peer-reviewed international journal dedicated to promoting scholarly exchange among teachers and researchers in the field of language teaching and applied linguistics. Papers submitted to the journal will immediately be sent to two related reviewers who are responsible to provide feedback on the content and the language use.

The journal is published monthly in online and print versions. The scope of the journal includes, but not limited to, the following fields:
Theory and practice in English
Language teaching & learning
Teaching English as a second or foreign language
Applied linguistics
Discourse studies
Syllabus design
Language learning problems
Computer assisted language learning
English for specific purpose
English for academic purpose
Language teaching & testing
Translation studies

IJLLALW

TABLE OF CONTENTS

4

5

IJLLALW

ON THE FAMILIARITY OF IRANIAN EFL TEACHERS AND LEARNERS WITH POST-METHOD, AND ITS REALIZATION

Seyyed Ayatollah Razmjoo (Associate Professor) (Corresponding author)
Department of Foreign Language & Linguistics, Shiraz University

Hamid Ranjbar (MA candidate)
Department of Foreign Language & Linguistics, Shiraz University

Mohammad Hamed Hoomanfard (PhD candidate)
Payame Noor University

ABSTRACT
One of the most dramatic changes English Language Teaching has witnessed is the demise of the concept of method and its replacement by Kumaravadivelu's post-method based pedagogy free from the constraints of methods. However, the emergence of this principled teaching practice, which is founded upon the parameters of particularity, possibility, and practicality, has not been unanimously certified by all the scholars. That's why this research attempts to verify its actual appearance in Iran as an EFL context by means of a questionnaire and an interview. The reliability of the instrument was calculated using Cronbach alpha reliability estimation calculations. The participants were 254 male and female teachers of English in the English language institutes all over Shiraz, Iran. The findings of the study raised doubts about the feasibility, possibility or practicality of a fully post-method based teaching pedagogy and questioned its emergence into Iranian context. The study proved that there is a long distance to the actual manifestation of post-method principles, especially its possibility and practicality parameters. The findings also showed that Iran's teaching is mainly based on eclectic teaching. The results of the present study can be beneficial to teaching theorizers to re-modify their theories. Besides the policy makers of the Iranian educational system can benefit from this study to adapt their educational needs to the reality of classrooms and hasten the emergence of current paradigms in accordance with the international practices.

KEY WORDS: Post-method condition, method, principled approach, possibility, practicality, particularity, macro-strategies, micro-strategies.

INTRODUCTION
Nowadays it has been admittedly certified both by the educational system of Iran, and the society or population at large that English has gained an integral role among the Iranian nation. The proof to this claim is the escalating demands on behalf of the nation for learning the language which has come to be used as medium of instruction and source of updated knowledge in many schools, institutes and universities, libraries and educational places. Also with the emergence of the issue of globalization, the need to learn English as the international language has been more widely recognized as urgent. English is known as the language of international transaction, trade, negotiation and communication as well. In spite of the awareness of its importance, our educational system has not been totally successful at keeping up with the international competition. A case in point is our students' inability to suit themselves to the international

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013　　　　　　　　　　　**EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　**ISSN: 2289-3245**

competition forced by globalization (Yarmohammadi, 2000; see also Bagheri, 1994; Rahimi, 1996). We might have also been behind schedule regarding the modifications that the second language teaching profession has been undergoing.

The second language teaching field has been always experiencing changes throughout history as the nature of science justifies and, in effect, necessitates such changes. According to Akbari (2008), one dramatic recent shift which has not been unanimously agreed upon among scholars is the emergence of the *"post-method condition"* (Kumaravadivelu, 1994). This condition has pronounced "The Death of the Method" (Allwright, 1991) and emergence beyond the dark ages of methods (Brown, 2002, p. 17), as the search for the best method was in practice futile (Allwright, 1991; Brown, 1994; Kumaravadivelu, 1994; Nunan, 1991; Prabhu, 1990; & Pennycook, 1989), and has defined new roles and relationships for all involved in the process of learning or teaching the language, among them, learners and teachers (Kumaravadivelu, 1994).

Teachers and learners have been assigned some specific and mainly fixed roles and demands in line with the underlying assumptions of the feeder method according to method-based language teaching curricula. These roles have been prone to change with the introduction of new teaching methods, to suit the particular demands of the method in vogue. Accordingly, context-sensitive post-method pedagogy 'demands a re-visioning of their roles as post-method practitioners' (Kumaravadivelu, 2001) in accordance with the parameters of practicality, particularity and possibility. However, the actual and practical existence or emergence of such rectified roles, traits, and behaviors, integral for any pedagogy to be called post-method, is open to debate (see, e.g., Akbari, 2008; Bell, 2003, 2007; Larsen-Freeman, 2005; & Liu, 1995), and central to the purpose of this study.

Statement of the problem
There have been opposing ideas about the actual manifestation of this transition from method to post-method pedagogy and the real practicality of post-method based instruction, and some studies have been carried out to prove or disprove either side's claims (see, for instance, Akbari, 2008; Bell, 2007; Larsen-Freeman, 2005; & Liu, 1995). But have we really stepped into the post-method era? This article aims at exploring into the nature of activities, roles and characteristics of English teachers and learners undertaken in an EFL context to see to what extent the basic features of a post-method pedagogy have been actualized or are on the way to implementation in Iran.

Significance of the study
Due to the importance of English language teaching in the eye of both the educational system and the society in Iran, the findings of the present study can be significant from theoretical and practical perspectives. Theorizers, policy makers, language-planners, curriculum designers, textbook developers, language instructors, teachers, and also learners and their parents can benefit from the information obtained from this study. In other words, the issue addressed in this study might be of use to two groups of people. This study can provide us with informative insight into aims and objectives, content and material, methods and activities, books and textbooks, and tests regarding language teaching and learning in Iran. New measures can also be taken in near future to pave the way so that the transition might be possible or accelerated to enable us make up

for any imperfections compared to the international trend i.e. socio-political awareness raising and learner or teacher empowerment. This study can also sensitize us to the exigencies of adoption of a more context-specific approach toward teaching English and making our academia more and more aware of the most recent fashions in the realm of teaching. On the other hand, it could make scholars in the field halt to rethink, and reconsider or re-substantiate their hunches and claims by providing information about an EFL context.

LITERATURE REVIEW
An overview of language teaching methodologies in Iran
Teaching English in a country like Iran, which belongs to the expanding circle of Kachru's World Englishes Model (1990), is a laborious task. Learning English deems necessary in Iran due to several reasons. To put it in a nutshell, English is the language of international technological and scientific information, commerce, negotiation, communication, and economic or cultural transaction e. g. via the Internet. In Iran English is mainly taught in two different educational contexts: Public schools and language institutes (Razmjoo & Riazi, 2006). A brief look at the latter one, which is the setting of this study, is in order here.

Teaching English in private institutes
Farzin-nia reported, as cited in Razmjoo and Riazi (2006), the first formal English language institute which was founded in 1925 in Iran as Iran-America society. After the revolution, it was known as ILI, the three letters standing for: Iran Language Institute, which is still probably the most rooted and powerful one in the region. The main reason for the prevalence of institutes has been the inefficacy of public schools in meeting the demands of the huge number of English learners. In fact, the educational system of Iran, though being able to recognize the exigency of providing students with English competence, has actually acted inefficiently, and all the ambitions of learners have not been fulfilled at schools. That's why almost in all families, there are pupils who have taken their chances on learning English optimally in language institutes. The teaching materials, mainly including textbooks used worldwide are offered in these institutes in three different levels of age range: Kids, young adults or teenagers, and finally adolescents or adults. The applicants attend classes two to four times a week, each time two hours, based on the nature of a course, whether it is normal or intensive. Newcomers are evaluated by means of placement tests and oral interviews to determine their exact level of proficiency. Course assessment is carried out based on midterm and final exams and also class activity. Here the syllabus is prepared beforehand and the procedures of its implementation are explicated in teacher training courses conducted by the institutes. Of course, the malleability of guidelines and their range of application procedures differ from institute to institute depending on the management board. Some grant teachers more freedom to practice their work but in a constrained way within the bounds of the frameworks ruled out by the institutes. But some other set strict rules and niggle at teachers for unscrupulously practicing the prescribed material.

Method and post-method concepts
In 1963, Edward Anthony-in his hierarchical three-partite model consisting of *approach*, *method*, and *technique*-defined method as an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material. Richards and Rogers (2001, p. 20) modified the definition of method by assigning it an umbrella term which encapsulates the concepts of approach, design, and procedure. The definition adopted by most researchers is what Brown (2002) puts as: "A set of theoretically unified classroom techniques thought to be across a wide variety of contexts and audiences" (p. 9). The criticisms against the concept of method began in the 1960s, by Kelly (1969), and

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

Mackey (1965). These criticisms reached their peak in 1980s, paradoxically when scholars were busy searching for the *best method* or what Richards & Rodgers (2001) call "the language teaching problem" (p. 244), a search which began approximately a century ago. The futility of this search was explicated in detail by Prabhu (1990) in the erudite article: "There Is No Best Method". Labels such as "century old obsession", and *"misguided"* (Stern, 1985, p. 251), and "interested knowledge" (Pennycook, 1989), were used to demonstrate the limits of method. "The Death of the Method" (Allwright, 1991) was an article published on the wake of criticisms which revealed growing dissatisfaction with ephemeral methods.

Acclaiming the demise of the concept of method, Kumaravadivelu (1994) announced the emergence of what he calls *"post-method condition"*. In fact the alternative to method (Kumaravadivelu, 1994) was a method-neutral approach or in Brown's words "a principled approach" (2002). Efforts to devise method-free frameworks has resulted in appearance of Stern's three dimensional framework (1992), Allwright's Exploratory Practice (2000, 2003a, & 2003b), Kumaravadivelu's macro-strategic framework (1992, 1994, 2001, 2003a, 2003b, and 2005), and Brown's principled teaching (2001, 2002, & 2007). The framework adopted by the researchers in the present study is Kumaravadivelu's framework based on three pedagogical principles of *practicality*, *particularity*, and *possibility* (1994, 2001, 2003a, 2003b, 2005). The first parameter (practicality), assumes a dialectical relationship between theorists having their professional theories and practitioners generating their personal theories, and enables teachers to construct their own theory of practice embarking on what Prabhu (1990, p.172) calls teachers' *sense of plausibility* (emphasis original). The second one accentuates the need for a context-sensitive language education which takes into account local linguistic, socio-cultural, and political particularities. The last principle addresses the empowerment of both teachers and students to facilitate the process of identity formation and social transformation.

To implement these pedagogic principles in classroom, Kumaravadivelu has proposed the macro-strategic framework which consists of 10 macro-strategies and numerous micro-strategies. (Kumaravadivelu, 1992, 1994, 2003a, 2003b, 2005). Post-method pedagogy has also tried to modify the roles of both learners and teachers (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, 2003a, 2005). Learners-formerly as passive recipients of knowledge-are becoming active and autonomous players (Kumaravadivelu, 2003a, p. 176), and teachers who were just transmission models or passive technicians are assuming the role of reflective practitioners or even transformative intellectuals (Kumaravadivelu, 2003a, pp.16-17). The issues of social justice and transformation are dealt with by embarking on critical pedagogy through exposing the politically discriminatory foundations of education (Giroux, 1983). However, on its way to implementation, post-method pedagogy will face two sorts of barriers: Pedagogical-concerning the eradication of deeply rooted transmission model of teaching-and ideological- dealing with issues such as marginalization and self-marginalization (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, 2003a).

Empirical studies done
Liu (2004) chose a sample of 448 EFL teachers randomly to explore the degree of their familiarity with methods, degree of their method use, and degree of their preference to a special method. Based on the findings, a multidimensional theoretical framework was proposed to conceptualize language teaching methods in post-method era. In another study, Hazratzad &

Gheitanchian (2009) selected 594 Iranian EFL teachers to explore any probable relationship between teachers' positive or negative attitudes towards post-method and their students' achievement. The results revealed that while it was expected that the positive attitudes of teachers towards post-method pedagogy would cause better achievement among their students, there existed no such correlation.

Contribution of related literature to the present study

Although there seems to exist enough evidence in favor of the existence of post-method condition, some prominent figures have expressed doubt regarding its emergence. Claims have been made so as: Methods are not dead in teachers' opinions (Bell, 2007), rather method and post-method are complementary (Bell, 2003), proposed frameworks are just "addition to method, not an alternative to method" (Liu, 1995), and "these macro-micro strategies constitute a method" (Larsen-Freeman, 2005). Akbari (2008) has also criticized post-method for being far from reality and staying at the level of discourse or theory. He believes that post-method, by being inordinately demanding for teachers, has defeated its own purpose of achieving parameters of practicality and possibility. Based on what was mentioned so far, ambivalence has been observed about the actual representation of post-method in real lives of the academia, and main body of research has so far concentrated on theoretical aspects of post-method. The present study tries to delve into the extent to which post-method has been able to penetrate into pedagogical settings, e.g. an EFL context like Iran. Because little attempt has been devoted to practicing aspects of post-method pedagogy, the present study tries to "become more practical in adopting the language of practice" (Akbari, 2008) by conducting an empirical research on this issue, and moving beyond lip-service to practice.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This study tries to probe into the current situation of Iran's English language learning and teaching context to see to what extent the claimed transition from method-based pedagogy to post-method has been in practice witnessed in this EFL context. This study fulfils its aims in two perspectives. First, it investigates the representation of post-method teaching according to learners' roles and in learners' lives. Second, it attempts to explore the manifestation of post-method characteristics in teachers' lives and also in teachers' opinions.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. To what extent do our teachers in private institutes bear the traits necessary for a teacher to be called a post-method teacher?
2. To what extent are our English learners real post-method learners?
3. To what extent have the principles of post-method based pedagogy including the parameters of practicality, particularity, and possibility emerged in Iran's private language institutes?
4. What is Iranian teachers' perception of their teaching practice? Do they teach based on one specific method, a number of eclectic methods, or general principles?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of the study were 154 English teachers from private institutes in Shiraz (a large city southern Iran) on the basis of their availability. There were 95 female and 59 male teachers.

They range in age from 22 to 35 with a mean age of 28. They had from 1 to 12 years of teaching experience with an average of 5.57. 42 teachers held an M.A. degree and the rest had a B.A. in English Linguistics, Teaching and Literature.

Instruments
Questionnaire
A questionnaire consisting of the main tenets of post-method pedagogy namely the principles of particularity, practicality, possibility, the role of teachers, and the role of learners was constructed by the researchers for the study. It consists of 22 items (11 favorable and 11 unfavorable) which follow the Likert scale.

The maximum score that can be obtained, which implies the highest degree of conformity to tenets of a post-method based pedagogy, equals 110. The minimum score indicating the lowest degree of conformity to post-method principles mounts to 22. Thus the participants' responses falls between the range of 22 to 110 and the neutral score is 66.

Validity of the questionnaire
In order to determine the validity of the instrument, in a pilot study, the researchers randomized all the items of the questionnaire and distributed them among 154 teachers of institutes. After collecting the data, the researchers conducted the data analysis to calculate the validity coefficients in terms of factor analysis (see Table 1).

Table 1: Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Questionnaire

1	The parameter of particularity (4 statements)
2	The parameter of practicality (4 statements)
3	The parameter of possibility (6 statements)
4	The role of teacher in post-method based pedagogy (4 statements)
5	The role and contribution of learners in the learning process (4 statements)

Reliability of the questionnaire
The reliability of the questionnaire was calculated by the researchers using Cronbach alpha (CA). Based on the data which was gathered for the study, the overall internal consistency of the questionnaire turned out to be 0.888. Using SPSS, Cronbach alpha was employed to calculate the reliability index of the present scale in this administration. To compute the reliability index of the present questionnaire, the scale was given to 154 participants of the study.

Interview
The second instrument was an interview comprising of three questions conducted to investigate the exact nature of teaching practice in Iran's language institutes. The researchers interviewed 60 teachers by asking the following questions:
1. Is your teaching practice based on one specific method for instance Audio-Lingual Method or Communicative Language Teaching?
2. Is your teaching practice fed by an eclectic selection of a number of methods?
3. Is your teaching practice grounded on a number of general principles, e.g. your own or some other scholars' theories of practice, free from the constraints of method?

11

IJLLALW

Before conducting the interview the researchers explained the difference between post-method based pedagogy and method based one and explicated the exact meaning of principled teaching and theories of practice to eradicate any doubts or misunderstandings. The results of the interviews were analyzed in the form of qualitative content analysis. The content of the interviews were scrutinized to categorize the factors that were stated by the interviewees.

Data Collection and Analysis
Data collection was arranged at times suggested by the management of the institutes' permission by administering the questionnaire. All participants were encouraged to ask questions so that they did not have any problems with respect to the content and language of the questionnaire. Moreover, the observed principles were discussed with the teachers to eradicate any doubts about the originality of the data. The data collected through language teachers' questionnaire were analyzed through descriptive statistics utilizing minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation. The interview was also analyzed based on the frequency measures of the responses.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
In this section the results of the study are presented and explained. The items of the questionnaire were examined in percentage to demonstrate teachers' belief about the principles representing post-method pedagogy. To have a better picture or idea of the respondents' answers to the items, the first two (strongly agree and agree) and the last two (disagree and strongly disagree) were added up together (see Table 2). Of course items number 1, 3, 4, 7, 8, 10, 12, 17, 19, 20 and 21 are negative and for interpretation their results should be reversed. The mean of the questionnaire items mounted to 70.35 and the standard deviation was 14.51. Because the mean is less than half the standard deviation over the neutral point, one can't conclude that teachers have a positive attitude toward post-method principles.

As to teachers' claim, post-method tenets are not greatly appreciated or implemented in Iran. For instance almost one third of teachers agree with the following items representing principles of post-method (see table 2): "I give learners institutional, political, social and cultural awareness" (Item 2), "I generate my own theory of teaching" (Item 14), "My teaching is in line with the notion that every class context is unique" (Item 5), "I have a fair degree of autonomy in pedagogic decision making" (Item9), "My learners are active and autonomous" (Item 18).

Table 2: Teacher Attitude in Terms of Frequency (F) and Percentage (P)

Items	SA+A		U		D+SD	
	F	**P**	**F**	**P**	**F**	**P**
1. My role is to transmit knowledge without altering the content.	33	21%	34	22%	87	57%
2. I give learners institutional, political, social and cultural awareness.	46	30%	46	30%	62	40%
3. I can't generate my own theories to teach in class.	52	34%	55	36%	47	30%
4. I am not interested in the sociopolitical context and its power dimensions.	53	35%	59	38%	42	27%
5. My teaching is in line with the notion that every class context is unique.	70	45%	53	35%	31	20%
6. My role is to help students gain a sense of ownership of education.	77	50%	45	29%	32	21%
7. My teaching does not vary from context to context.	29	19%	59	38%	66	43%
8. My learners don't have a role in pedagogic decision making.	35	23%	56	36%	63	41%

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

9. I have a fair degree of autonomy in pedagogic decision making.	65	42%	44	29%	45	29%
10. I'm not interested in sociopolitical issues in my classes.	58	38%	48	31%	48	31%
11. I observe, analyze, and evaluate my teaching to generate my own theories.	47	31%	47	30%	60	39%
12. My learners don't search for language beyond the classroom.	39	25%	51	33%	64	42%
13. My teaching is sensitive to a particular group of learners in a particular institutional or socio-cultural context.	74	48%	51	33%	29	19%
14. I generate my own theory of teaching.	51	33%	43	28%	60	39%
15. I try to tap the sociopolitical consciousness of learners as change agents.	51	33%	49	32%	54	35%
16. I try to bring about social, cultural, and political change and transformation.	57	37%	50	32%	47	31%
17. I don't adjust my teaching to the particular conditions of different contexts.	16	11%	48	31%	90	58%
18. My learners are active and autonomous.	60	39%	52	34%	32	27%
19. I'm not interested in making my own theory of practice.	49	32%	47	30%	58	38%
20. I don't encourage learners to investigate how language as ideology serves vested interests.	56	36%	59	38%	39	26%
21. The system doesn't recognize my role to teach autonomously within constraints of institutions, curricula, and textbooks.	47	30%	47	30%	60	40%
22. My learners explore the Internet and bring to class their own topics.	32	21%	58	38%	64	41%

Table 3 demonstrates teachers' attitudes regarding the five principles of post-method based pedagogy. The parameter of particularity, which deals with the importance of context, is recognized by at least half of the Iranian private institute teachers. This also certifies for the roles adopted by post-method teachers. Almost half of Iranian teachers admit that the roles they assume are in line with those of a post-method teacher. There is no unanimous agreement over existence of post-method learners, as the statistical percentages are evenly distributed among the opponents, proponents, and abstainers. Another point worth mentioning is teachers' reluctance to bring about socio-political change or transformation (30% agree with possibility parameter), or to put it more exact, to get involved in issues which might jeopardize their life or status. Here one can infer that the two principles of particularity and possibility contradict but not complement each other. In fact, by claiming to localize or contextualize teaching practice, the parameter of particularity is paradoxically defeating its own purpose, because contextualization of the prescribed parameter of possibility is at times odd and impossible in many contexts, hence it might not be localized at all. The parameter of practicality which stresses the importance of involving teacher generated theories of practice in pedagogy has also received little acceptance, maybe because this is much demanding necessitating that the teachers be proficient, experienced or skillful enough to be able to make up their own theories or due to the constraints imposed upon institutions or textbooks.

Table 3: Teacher Attitude Regarding the Five Principles of Post-method

Principles	SA+A		U		D+SD	
	F	**P**	**F**	**P**	**F**	**P**
1. Particularity (Items 5, 7, 13 & 17)	75	49%	53	34%	26	17%
2. Practicality (Items 3, 11, 14 & 19)	51	33%	48	31%	55	36%
3. Possibility (Items 2, 4, 10, 15, 16 & 20)	47	30%	52	34%	55	36%
4. Teacher role of (Items 1, 6, 9 & 21)	72	47%	43	28%	39	25%
5. Learner role (Items 8, 12, 18 & 22)	55	35%	54	35%	45	30%

An interesting proof to the previous criticisms leveled at post-method due to its heavy reliance on profuse proficiency and experience of teachers is the statistical analysis of correlation between teachers' experience and their agreement with the five principles of post-method. The relationship between the principle of practicality and teacher experience was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. There was a strong positive correlation between the two variables, $r = .74$, $n = 154$, $p < .0005$, with high level of teaching experience leading to an ability or propensity for generating theories of practice.

The results also lend support to Akbari's claim that only teachers who are at the third stage of Fuller's three stages of teacher development will have the capability of but not necessarily the willingness to act in line with post-method pedagogy (2008). In fact it is experience that endows the teachers with the ability to generate their own theories of practice which are ongoingly modified and re-modified based on their teaching analyses and evaluations of classroom teaching acts using their own sense of plausibility.

The findings of the study raise doubts on the emergence of some principles of post-method, and reaffirm the criticisms on post-method regarding its practicality. The advocates of post-method are summoned once again to halt to reconsider some of the main tenets of their theories and think deeper about their theories feasibility according to the constraints and needs of actual language classrooms and the wider institutional, social, cultural, and political context.

Interview
According to the results of the interviews which have been scrutinized and analyzed by the three researchers, all the interviewees unanimously believed that they didn't make use of one specific method in their language teaching practice except for scarce occasions when they had to resort to just one special method due to the specific needs of the particular learner. Rather they drew upon eclectic methods to practice their act of teaching based on particular contextual needs or conditions. Almost 10 teachers claimed that they utilized general principles guiding their teaching action in a rather sporadic manner sidelined by the prioritized principles of eclectic based teaching due to institutional constraints. Teachers attributed their non-adherence to principled teaching to, above all their reluctance or lack of proficiency and confidence needed for making a comprehensive theory of practice, and also to the limitations imposed on them by institutions, classroom conditions, time and budgetary issues, and textbooks. All in all, one can conclude that the impediments on the route to the realization of post-method based pedagogy are much more onerous than one can conceive.

CONCLUSION
This study tried to verify the emergence of post-method pedagogy and its degree of materialization in English institutes of a prominent city of Iran, i.e. Shiraz. The present study

raised uncertainty about the actual emergence or practice of post-method based pedagogy and the immaculate fulfillment of all its principles. In fact existence of post-method based on the principles of particularity, practicality, and possibility (and especially the last two principles) in the EFL country of Iran seems far reaching, impractical if not impossible. A high degree of contextualization or exclusion of some parts is needed perhaps at the expense of distorting the whole principles or tenets. While the current study focused on English teachers in Iran, a sample of the expanding circle of Kachru's World Englishes (1990), the issues touched on can also be witnessed in many other parts of the world. The insights gained from this study are also beneficial to the educational systems, policy makers, language planners, and a host of other academic entities involved in or affecting language teaching practice. Teachers and theorizers can also rely on the findings of this research. The former by becoming informed on new currents in language teaching practice and re-visioning their teaching acts based on new paradigms, and the latter by revisiting the rationales and foundations of their theories to make modifications and adaptations necessary to facilitate and hasten a more sensible transition. Among the limitations we can refer to the reluctance or unwillingness or perhaps fear that most teachers had before volunteering to participate in the study especially when conducting the interview. They just consented to being interviewed as soon as the researchers reassured them that the questions were not politically laden and that they were going to be left unanimous so that their lives were not at all at risk.

REFERENCES
Akbari, R. (2008). Post-method discourse and practice. *TESOL Quarterly, 42,* 641-653.
Allwright, R. L. (1991). *The death of the method (Working Paper #10).* The Exploratory Practice
        Centre. The University of Lancaster, England.
Allwright, R. L. (2003a). Exploratory Practice: Rethinking practitioner research in language
        teaching. *Language Teaching Research, 7*, 113-141.
Allwright, R. L. (2003b). A brief guide to 'Exploratory Practice: Rethinking practitioner research
        in language teaching.' *Language Teaching Research, 7,* 109-110.
Anthony, E. M. (1963). Approach, method and technique. *English Language Teaching 17:* 63-67.
Bagheri, H. (1994). *A profile for teaching and teaching English in pre-university schools of
        Sistan and Baluchestan: Problems and solutions.* (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Shiraz
        University, Shiraz.
Bell, D. (2003). Method and post-method: Are they really so incompatible*? TESOL Quarterly*,
        37, 325-336.
Bell, D. (2007). Do teachers think that methods are dead*? ELT Journal*, *61*.
Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language* pedagog*y* (2nd
        ed.). White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.
Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (5th ed.). White Plains, NY:
        Pearson Education.
Brown, H. D. (2002). English language teaching in the "post-method" era: Toward bette
        diagnosis, treatment, and assessment. In J. C. Richards & W. A. Renandya (Eds.),
        Methodology in language teaching (pp. 9-18). Cambridge, England: Cambridge
        University Press.

Giroux, H. A. (1983). *Theory and resistance in education: A pedagogy for the opposition*. South Hadley, MA: Bergin.

Hazratzad, A., & Gheitanchian, M. (2009). EFL teachers' attitudes towards post-method pedagogy and their students' achievement. *Proceedings of the 10th METU ELT Convention.*

Kachru, B. B. (1990). World Englishes and applied linguistics. *World Englishes, 9*, 3-20.

Kelly, L. G. (1969). *25 centuries of language teaching*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1992). Macrostrategies for the second/foreign language teacher. *Modern Language Journal, 76*(1), 41-49.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994). The post-method condition: (E) merging strategies for second/foreign language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly, 28*(1), 27-48.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001). Toward a post-method pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly*, *35*, 537-560.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003a). Critical language pedagogy: A post-method perspective on English language teaching. *World Englishes*, *22*(4), 539-550.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003b). *Beyond methods: Macrostrategies for language teaching*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Kumaravadivelu B. (2005). *Understanding language teaching: From method to post-method*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2005). A critical analysis of post-method. *ILI Language Teaching Journal, l*(1), 24.

Li, J. (2004). Methods in the post-method era: Report on an international survey on language teaching methods. *International journal of English studies 4*,137-152.

Liu, D. (1995). Comments on B. Kumaravadivelu's "The post-method condition: (E) merging strategies for second/foreign language teaching": "Alternative to" or "addition to" method? *TESOL Quarterly, 29,* 174-177.

Mackey, W. F. (1965). *Language teaching analysis*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.

Nunan, D. (1991). *Language teaching methodology: A textbook for teachers*. New York: Prentice-Hall.

Pennycook, A. (1989). The concept of method, interested knowledge, and the politics of language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, *23*, 589–618.

Prabhu, N. S. (1990). There is no best method—why? *TESOL Quarterly*, *24*, 161–176.

Rahimi, M. (1996). *The study of English language instruction at the secondary schools of the Isfahan province.* (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Shiraz University, Shiraz.

Razmjoo, S. A., & Riazi, A. M. (2006). Do high schools or private institutes practice communicative language teaching? A case study of Shiraz teachers in high schools and institutes. *The Reading Matrix, 6,* 340- 363.

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Stern, H. H. (1985). [Review of J. W. Oller and P. A. Richard-Amato's *Methods that work*]. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 7,* 249-251.

Stern, H. H. (1992). *Issues and options in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Yarmohammadi, L. (2000). Reflections on the treatment and contextualization of pronunciation practices and language functions in the pre-university textbooks in Iran. *Journal of Teaching Languages*, *1*(3), 1-21.

THE COMPARATIVE EFFECT OF PEER METALINGUISTIC CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON ELEMENTARY AND INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' SPEAKING ABILITY

Behdokht Mall-Amiri
Islamic Azad University of Central Tehran Branch
b_m_amiri@yahoo.com

Aghdas Hesami
Islamic Azad University of Central Tehran Branch
aghdas_hesami@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT
The present study was an attempt to compare the effect of peer metalinguistic corrective feedback on elementary and intermediate EFL learners' speaking ability to find out which level benefits more from this type of feedback. To this end, 117 female EFL learners at Grade 3, Al-zahra High School in Kermanshah, Iran were non-randomly chosen. The homogeneity of the participants was attained through a piloted Preliminary English Test (PET). Then, based on their scores, two groups with different levels of language proficiency (35 elementary and 32 intermediate students) were chosen as the target groups of the study. The participants' performance on the speaking part of the PET test was considered as the pre-test scores. The students were given the routine instructions while peer metalinguistic corrective feedback was practiced in the two classes. After the instructional period that lasted for a semester, the researchers used another PET speaking test as the post-test. The scores of both groups were rated based on the speaking rating scale of PET which was used for the pre-test, too. The analyzed results through an ANCOVA test showed that intermediate learners benefited more significantly from the treatment than the elementary group. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

KEYWORDS: Metalinguistic Corrective Feedback, Peer Feedback, Proficiency level, Elementary Learners, Intermediate Learners, Speaking.

INTRODUCTION
With the growing need for international communication in the information age, many language learners seemingly attend language classes to improve their speaking ability. According to Folse (2006), for most people, the ability to speak a language is synonymous with knowing that language since speech is the most basic means of human communication. Even though many students have mastered basic speaking skills, some students seem to be much more effective in their oral communication than others. And those who are more effective communicators experience more success in school and most probably in other areas of their lives. Celce-Murcia (1991) states that, "today, language students are considered successful if they communicate effectively in their second or foreign language" (p. 125).

17

According to Thornbury (2007), spoken interaction involves producing and negotiating language rather differently from the way it is used in writing. Speakers and listeners are simultaneously involved in both producing and processing spoken interactions. They are under time-constraints, meaning that they must process language as they go, with no opportunities to go back and make changes. Speakers must also take account of relationships with others, adjusting their language according to the meanings they wish to get across, and responding to verbal or non-verbal signals from their listeners.

It is believed that during classroom interactions learners receive comprehensible input, opportunities to negotiate for meaning, and opportunities to produce modified output (Oliver, 1995; Swain, 1995). Meanwhile, research reveals that exposure to input alone is not sufficient for learners to acquire the target language items to a high level of proficiency (e.g., Long, 1996; Long & Robinson, 1998; Norris & Ortega, 2000). This especially applies to those features which are semantically redundant, syntactically complex and cognitively demanding. To compensate for learners' failure to notice some aspects of input, researchers have attempted to direct learners' attention to some linguistic features in the input which are problematic for learners. Corrective feedback is among the techniques which are believed to facilitate L2 development by providing learners with both positive and negative evidence (Long, 1996).

The term corrective feedback is defined by (Russell & Spada, 2006) as "any feedback provided to a learner, from any source, that contains evidence of learner error of language form" (p. 134). An influential study on the use of different types of corrective feedback by Lyster and Ranta (1997, pp. 46-48) has shown that teachers generally use six different feedback types when correcting learners' errors: 1) explicit correction: "the explicit provision of the correct form" where the teacher clearly indicates that what the student has said is incorrect (e.g., "Oh you mean", "You should say"); 2) recasts: "the teacher's reformulation of all or part of the student's utterance, minus the error"; 3) clarification requests: "indicate to students either that their utterance has been misunderstood by the teacher or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way; 4) metalinguistic feedback: "comments, information or questions related to the well-formedness of the students' utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form"; 5) elicitation: "teachers elicit completion of their own utterance by strategically pausing to allow students to *fill in the blank*"; 6) repetition: "the teacher's repetition, in isolation, of the student's erroneous utterance" (usually with adjusted intonation).

Although traditionally students received different types of corrective feedback mostly from their teachers, by the advent of new approaches in language teaching teachers try to train students to give feedback to each other to increase opportunities for students' intragroup interactions. Celce-Murcia (1991) lends support to student-to-student interaction by saying, "it is important to strive for a classroom in which students feel comfortable and confident, feel free to take risks, and have sufficient opportunities to speak" (p. 126). Other researchers and teachers suggest some effects on adopting peer feedback in class. They believe that it provides diversity with teaching compared with the traditional way of giving teacher feedback. Also, they mention that in peer

feedback session, students do not just listen to teachers' instructions, but work with their peers to do more practices; therefore, students' anxiety becomes lower and learning motivation can be higher. Moreover, they believe that peer feedback equips students with social affective strategies such as listening carefully, speaking at the right moment, expressing clearly, and appreciating others (Atay & Kurt, 2007).

However, according to Ellis (2009, p. 106), "there is no corrective feedback recipe" for all students and teachers cannot generalize one specific method to all learners. Also, Tedick and de Gortari (1998) suggest that teachers should practice a variety of feedback techniques as different techniques might appeal to different students in terms of their needs, proficiency level, age, and classroom objectives. As learners are progressing in the process of language learning, their proficiency level changes from time to time. These changes range from novice level to intermediate, advanced, higher advanced, and superior level. Considering these changes, it seems useful to use different types of corrective feedback which suit that particular level of proficiency. In fact, it seems to be the case that knowing learners' level and previous knowledge is necessary for teachers to avoid discouragement on the learners' side. Allwright (1975, as cited in Cohen, 1990) maintains that, "level of proficiency takes an important role in error correction because if the explanation of errors is beyond their level of proficiency, it will bring limited or no advantages" (p. 60).

Speaking Skill
Speaking as an active and productive language skill seems to be of most people's interest these days. People who know a language are referred to as speakers of that language, as if speaking included all other types of skills, and many, if not most foreign language learners are primarily interested in learning to speak (Ur, 2006).

Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving and processing information (Brown, 2001; Burns & Joyce, 1997). Its form and meaning are dependent on the context in which it occurs, including the participants themselves, their collective experiences, the physical environment, and the purposes for speaking. Speaking requires that learners not only know how to produce specific points of language such as grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary, i.e. linguistic components, but also understand when, why and in what ways to produce language, i.e. sociolinguistic competence (Cunningham, 1999).

Levelt (1989) identified three autonomous processing stages in speech production: (1) conceptualizing the message, (2) formulating the language representation, and (3) articulating the message.

IJLLALW

Wilson (1997) claims that those who can translate their thoughts and ideas into words are more likely to succeed in school. Students who do not develop good listening and speaking skill will have life-long consequences because of their deficit. He also pointed out that speaking skills do not need to be taught as a separate subject. These skills can easily be integrated into other subject matters. This is because, students learn talking, clarify thoughts by talking, comprehend better with discussion of reading, write better after talking during writing conferences, develop confidence by speaking in front of peers, and provide a window to their own thinking through their talk.

Speaking in L2 has occupied a peculiar position throughout much of the history of language teaching, and only in the last two decades has it begun to emerge as a branch of teaching, learning and testing in its own right, rarely focusing on the production of spoken discourse (Bygate, 2002).

Graham-Marr (2004) mentions many reasons for focusing on listening and speaking when teaching English as a foreign language, not least of which is the fact that we as humans have been learning languages through our ears and mouth for thousands upon thousands of years, far longer we as humans have been able to read. Although not a set curriculum in most schools, speaking skills have been found to be a fundamental skill necessary for a child success in life.

Brown and Yule (1983) draw a useful distinction between two basic language functions. These are the transactional function, which is primarily concerned with the transfer of information, and the interactional function, in which the primary purpose of speech is the maintenance of social relationships.

Nunan (1999) mentions another basic distinction when considering the development of speaking skills: distinguishing between dialogue and monologue. The ability to give an uninterrupted oral presentation is quite distinct from interacting with one or more other speakers for transactional and interactional purposes. While all native speakers can and use language interactionally, not all native speakers have the ability to extemporize on a given subject to a group of listeners. Brown and Yule (1983) suggest that most language teaching is concerned with developing skills in short, interactional exchanges in which the learner is only required to make one or two utterances at a time.

The interactional nature of language was examined by Bygate (1996). He distinguishes between motor-perceptive skills, which are concerned with correctly using the sounds and structures of the language, and interactional skills, which involve using motor-perceptive skills for the purposes of communication. Motor-perceptive skills are developed in the language classroom through activities such as model dialogues, pattern practice, and oral drills and so on. Bygate (1996) suggests that, in particular, learners need to develop skills in the management of interaction as well as in the negotiation of meaning. The management of the interaction involves such things as when and how to take the floor, when to introduce a topic or change the subject, how to invite

someone else to speak, how to keep a conversation going and so on. Negotiation of meaning refers to the skill of making sure the person you are speaking to has correctly understood you and you have correctly understood him.

Nunan (1996) claims that a successful oral communication should involve developing some features which can be summarized as follows:
-The ability to articulate phonological features of the language comprehensibly;
-Mastery of stress, rhythm, intonation patterns; an acceptable degree of fluency;
-Transactional and interpersonal skills;
-Skills in taking short and long speaking turns;
-Skills in the management of the interaction;
-Skills in negotiating meaning;
-Conversational listening skills (successful conversations require good listeners as well as good speakers);
-Skills in knowing about and negotiating purpose for conversations.

Feedback

According to Williams and Burden (2000), behavioral psychologists were the first to recognize the power of feedback as a motivating influence. Any action or lack of action by another significant person may be interpreted as a form of feedback. Thus feedback can be given by means of praise, by any relevant comment or action or even silence. According to Lyster and Ranta (1997) feedback is how a speaker reacts to the errors of a language learner' s utterance. Ur (1996) defines feedback as information that is given to the learner about his or her performance of a learning task, usually with the objective of improving this performance. Chastain (1988) stats that teacher should be aware of giving feedback to the students. Any kinds of feedback can be negative or positive, but it is the teacher's task to choose that type of feedback that leads to positive students' attitudes.

Over the past few decades, language teachers and language learning researchers have been attempting to discover what is needed in order for a language student to be successful in the learning of the target language. According to Krashen (1985), one requirement for success in language learning is input of the target language, or what is called positive evidence, but as Long (1990) argues, exposure to the correct form of language is not enough for language learning, because the learners do not necessarily notice what is correct.

In all our interactions with others or even within ourselves, we receive information about our actions. In educational settings, teachers provide feedback to help students to be prepared for future tasks, improve performance and correct erroneous actions. Furthermore, students may generate their own internal feedback through their learning activities. Feedback is vital to any

effective learning environment if it addresses specific goals or outcomes and affords opportunity for learners to change.

Corrective Feedback

Although the provision of corrective feedback in the foreign language classroom seems natural in the process of learning a language, the role that corrective feedback plays in the classroom and the attitudes language teachers have towards it have not been the same through the years, or even from one teacher to another. On the other hand, in the theoretical ground, corrective feedback has also been an area of research and discussion in language acquisition and learning over the last decades, which has contributed to the debate about this issue.

For the sake of clarity, one of the first definitions of corrective feedback is that of Chaudron (1977) who considers it as "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance" (p. 31). Other synonyms of corrective feedback more commonly used are "error correction", "negative evidence", and "negative feedback". However, Han (2008) suggests that error correction implies an evident and direct correction, whereas corrective feedback is a more general way of providing some clues, or eliciting some correction, besides the direct correction made by the teacher. Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006) describe corrective feedback as follows:

"Corrective feedback takes the form of responses to learner utterances that contain error. The responses can consist of (a) an indication that an error has been committed, (b) provision of the correct target language form, or (c) metalinguistic information about the nature of the error, or any combination of these" (p. 340).

Participants in the Corrective Feedback

Considering the participant(s) in the corrective feedback interaction, according to Lyster and Ranta (1997), there are the following possibilities:

Self-correction is possible when the learner realizes that he has committed a mistake and repairs it by providing a correct form in place of the wrong one. Self correction seems to be preferred to correction provided by others: it is face-saving and allows the learner to play an active role in the corrective event.

Peer-correction occurs when one learner corrects another one. This kind of correction is appreciated for a number of reasons. Its most important advantages are the following: both learners are involved in face-to-face interaction; the teacher obtains information about learners' current abilities; learners co-operate in language learning and become less teacher-dependent; peer correction does not make errors a public affair, which protects the learners' ego and increases their self-confidence.

Teacher-correction occurs when the person who corrects the errors is the teacher. The teacher knows the problem and the solution, and can define and put things simply so that the student can understand the mistake. The student should trust and respect his/her place as a fluent speaker of English.

Metalinguistic Corrective Feedback

According to Ligthbown and Spada (2006), "metalinguistic corrective feedback contains comments, information, or questions related to the correctness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form" (p. 126). Metalinguistic corrective feedback generally indicates that there is an error somewhere. Metalinguistic corrective feedback information generally provides either some grammatical terminology that refers to the nature of the error, for example 'is it masculine?', or a word definition.

Metalinguistic corrective feedback points to the nature of the error but attempts to elicit the information from the student. The following example from Ellis, Loewen, Elder, Erlam, Philip, and Reinders (2009) represents a metalinguistic feedback:
"Learner: He kiss her.
Researcher: Kiss- You need past tense.
Learner: He kissed" (Ellis et al., 2009, p. 319).

In other words, the teacher does talk about the student's utterance, but without explicitly telling the student where the error is, or what the correct form should be. Teacher simply tells the student that the sentence is not quite right, leaving the student to rethink and find the correct answer. Teacher may also give a hint. When it comes to the discussion of learners' uptake, which according to Ligthbown and Spada (2006) is "how students immediately respond to the corrective feedback" (p. 125). Lyster andRanta (1997) found that metalinguistic corrective feedback as a kind of corrective feedback, along with elicitation, not only resulted in more uptake, they were also more likely to lead to a corrected form of the original utterance.

Definition of Language Proficiency

There is not a universally agreed-upon definition of language proficiency, but there are some scholar's idea about it at hand. Gasparro (1984, cited in Chastain, 1988) advocates proficiency as a goal and defines it as "the ability to use the language outside classroom independently of the materials and activities of the course" (p. 108). According to Clark (1972, as cited in Farhady et al., 2001) language proficiency is "the use of language for real life purposes without regard to the manner in which that competence was acquired" (p. 26). Bachman (1995) states that the distinguishing characteristic of language proficiency is its recognition of the importance of context beyond the sentence to the appropriate use of language" (p.

23

82). Cummin (1981, cited in Oller, 1983) believes that a communicative approach toward teaching and testing better reflects the nature of language proficiency than one which emphasizes the acquisition of discrete language skills. Hadley (2003) defines proficiency as "an idealized level of competence and performance attainable by experts through extensive instruction" (p. 2). Lee and Schallert (1997) also believe that theoretically, the construct of language proficiency is not a simple one as it relates to language competence, metalinguistic awareness, and the ability to speak, listen, read, and write the language in contextually appropriate ways.

Levels of Language Proficiency

When one wants to categorize something or put something in different levels, a criterion is needed. Language proficiency is not an exception. A criterion is needed to categorize language proficiency into different levels. Hadley (2003) mentions that as early as 1970, Woodford coined the term 'common yardstick ', which was later on referred to a project to define language proficiency levels for academic contexts. The work begun by the common yardstick project was continued in 1981 by the ACTFL to find a design for measuring and communicating foreign language proficiency. Along with ACTFL rating scales of language proficiency, there was another scale called ILR (Interagency Language Roundtable) , which was formed by cooperation of FSI (Foreign Service Institute), Britain and German organizations, representatives of U.S.A., and academic groups (pp. 9-12).

ACTFL defines and measures language ability in speaking, listening, reading, and writing. The guidelines set by ACTFL provisional proficiency guidelines describe four proficiency levels: Novice, Intermediate, Advanced, and Superior. The ILR scale contains eleven proficiency levels, from zero to five as it was shown in the previous page. When considering these two rating scales, two points should be taken into account. First, it should be remembered that moving from intermediate level to advanced level is much more difficult than moving from novice level to intermediate. The second point can be better described by the findings of Abbasian (1997). According to his findings, language proficiency possesses a 'level dependent' nature; that is, the skills and components of language proficiency are much more discrete at the lower levels than they are at higher levels at which they are integrated.

Omaggio (1986) states that there are three interrelated assessment criteria of language proficiency: global tasks/functions, context/content, and accuracy (as cited in Chastain, 1988). Huges (2003) describes these criteria further. He says that global tasks /functions are considered as different functions that a learner uses the language for. They can range from narrating objects, or basic greeting for novice level to describing a person or place for intermediate level, narrating in different time frame for advanced level or finally having discussion and argument in superior level. Context as the second criterion refers to circumstances or setting in which a person uses the language. Novice level learners are able to use present tense and only in predictable situations and settings. Higher-level learners can be flexible and are able to use the language in unpredictable situations and can even discuss political issues. Learners at superior level can handle unexpected problems in culture as well. Content

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

refers to the topic or themes of conversation. The content for novice level can be giving autobiography information and personal experiences, and for higher levels, the range of content is as wide as those of native speakers.

Accuracy is the next criterion for assessing language proficiency. Accuracy refers to the acceptability, quality, and precision of the message. When assessing accuracy, one should consider the following factors: fluency, grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, pragmatic competence, and sociolinguistic competence. The degree to which the speaker relies on the listener for filling in the gaps in the message due to imperfect control of the language is one way to assess accuracy. Huges (2003) also adds another criterion to the aforementioned ones. He introduces 'text type' as another criterion in assessing language proficiency. He says that this criterion refers to the structure of discourse. Novice level learner can produce isolated words or phrases, while sentence-length discourse can be the product of intermediate level learners, and those in advanced level produce paragraph-length text type.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Given the importance of speaking skill as part of language learning by EFL learners and the role of corrective feedback in language learning, this study intended to answer the following question:

Is there any significant difference between the effect of peer metalinguistic corrective feedback on elementary and intermediate EFL learners' speaking ability?

METHODOLOGY

A thorough description of the participants, procedure, and instrumentation carried out for this study are presented in this section.

Participants

This study was conducted with 117 female EFL learners at Grade 3, Al-zahra High School in Kermanshah, Iran. They were selected non-randomly. They ranged from 16 to 18 years old and were at different levels of language proficiency. Based on the scores obtained from a PET test, 67 learners were chosen to be the main participants of the study and were put into the two experimental groups. Moreover, thirty other students who shared the same characteristics with the intended participants were chosen to participate in the piloting of the proficiency test (PET). It is worth mentioning that there were two raters who were EFL teachers with 7 and 10 years of English teaching experience at language schools and had MA TEFL degree.

Instrumentation

In order to obtain measurable data with which the results of the present study could be statistically analyzed, the following instruments were utilized:

Preliminary English Test (PET): This test which is a language proficiency test designed for people who can use everyday written and spoken English at an intermediate levelwas administered for homogenizing the participants at the beginning of the study.PET is one ofthe standardized tests among the series of Cambridge ESOL. This test is divided into three sections: Reading and Writing, Listening, and Speaking. All sections were administered in this study and each question carried one mark. The allocated time for this test was around two hours: 1 hour and 30 minutes for reading and writing, 30 minutes for listening, and 10-12 minutes for speaking.

Text books: The text books utilized in this study were the New Interchange books (3rd ed.) designed for elementary and intermediate students. Each book consists of 16 units. In this study, students studied the first 5 units. Although the speaking activities were the focus of this study, other skills were covered as well as their routine requirement of their course.

Treatment: Providing peer metalinguistic corrective feedback on learners' spoken utterances, i.e. learners were trained to provide some comments, information, or questions related to the correctness of their classmates' utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form.

Post-test: At the end of the treatment, the researcher used the speaking section of another PET test, with exactly the same characteristics discussed above under PET, as the speaking post-test.

Rating scale: The analytic rating scale of the PET speaking test was used in order to rate the participants' pre-test and post-test performances. The rating scale included five criteria each carrying three marks i.e., from 0 to 3. The criteria included grammar and vocabulary, discourse management, pronunciation, interactive communication, and global achievement.

Procedure

The following procedures were carried out to conduct the research:

First, the PET test was piloted on a sample of 30 students similar in characteristics to the target group of the study. Then, Item Analysis including Item Facility (IF) and Item Discrimination (ID) of all the items in the PET test was done and the reliability of the test was estimated. The analyses showed that there were six malfunctioning items; therefore, to make the test more reliable, those malfunctioning items were removed from the test. The reliability of the test was estimated both before and after removing the six malfunctioning items. Accordingly, the researchers considered the PET test as an appropriate instrument to homogenize the participants.

After that, the piloted PET test was administered to 117 participants of the study. It is worth mentioning that the participants' scores on the speaking section of PET were used for the pre-test. Once the administration of the proficiency test was done, the total scores obtained by the participants were calculated out of 100; so that based on the existing norms of the PET test, the researcher could choose the main participants of the study and put into the two experimental groups, each containing a distinct level of language proficiency: 35 students who obtained the

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

overall score between 45 and 69 were selected as the elementary group, and 32 students whose scores fell between 70 and 89 were considered as the intermediate group to take part in the study. Before the course started, the researchers held a briefing session in which the content as well as the learning activities and tasks and the objectives of the course, along with the nature of Peer Metalinguistic Corrective Feedback (PMCF) were discussed with the students. Then, the two classes underwent the same treatment which was providing PMCF on speaking errors. This was done by providing some comments, information, or questions related to the correctness of their classmates' spoken utterances, without explicitly providing the correct form. For example, when one of the students said, "I visit my friend yesterday", her partner only asked her, "what is the correct from of the verb in past tense?". In other words, she talked about her partner's utterance, without explicitly telling her where the error was, or what the correct form should be. The peer simply told her partner that the sentence was not quite right, leaving her to rethink and find the correct answer. The teacher also gave a hint whenever it was necessary.

The learners attended the classes twice a week for about four months that is to say for one semester. The allocated time for each session was one hour and forty-five minutes. Throughout the semester, besides teaching other skills, speaking activities of the text books were focused and PMCF was applied in both experimental groups.

After applying the PMCF as the treatment for one semester, an oral interview was administered to both groups. This was the speaking section of a PET test with the same characteristics of the one used for the pre-test. The students' interviews in both groups were recorded to be rated by the same raters and the same rating scale used for homogenizing the participants at the onset of the study. Finally, the pre-test and post-test speaking scores of the two groups were compared through an ANCOVA test and analyzed to test the null hypothesis of the study.

RESULTS
This study was aimed to determine whether PMCF affects EFL learners' speaking ability at different levels of language proficiency to the same degree or not. In this study, the researcher deliberately manipulated one variable which is considered to be the independent variable; that is PMCF, to compare its effect on speaking achievement of intermediate and elementary EFL learners. So, the study enjoyed two-experimental-groups posttest only design.

Testing the Null Hypothesis
To test the research hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference between the effect of peer metalinguistic corrective feedback on elementary and intermediate EFL learners' speaking ability, the researcher had to run ANCOVA to control for the initial difference between

the two groups prior to the treatment. Firstly, the assumption of normality of the distribution had to be checked. The following table shows the descriptive statistics of the four sets of scores:

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of the two experimental groups' scores

	N	Minimum	Std. Deviation	Mean	Maximum
intermediate pretest scores	32	6.00	1.55543	10.8750	13.50
elementary pretest	35	4.50	1.04379	6.8857	9.00
elementary posttest	35	4.50	1.11860	7.1857	9.50
intermediate posttest	32	7.50	1.36700	11.2969	13.50
Valid N (listwise)	32				

Quite expectedly, both groups improved their speaking after the treatment which is a logical result of the treatment (intermediate: 10.87 vs. 11.29, elementary: 6.88 vs. 7.18). The following table shows the result of the normality check:

Table 2: Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
intermediate pretest scores	.131	32	.179	.939	32	.072
elementary pretest	.144	35	.065	.968	35	.398
elementary posttest	.137	35	.093	.971	35	.485
intermediate posttest	.103	32	.200[*]	.965	32	.363

As depicted above, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov sig values for the four sets of scores are above .05 level of significance. The same result is observed by Shapiro, Wilk test. Hence, the four sets were reasonably normally distributed.

The second assumption concerns homogeneity of variances, which was checked through Levene's test. The following table shows the result:

Table 3:Levene's Test of equality of error variances[a]

Dependent Variable: posttest scores

F	df1	df2	Sig.
2.152	1	65	.147

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

a. Design: Intercept + pretest + proficiency grouping

As shown in the above table, the variance of the dependent variable was equal across groups (p= .147>.05). Therefore, the assumption was met.

There are two assumptions for ANCOVA that were checked: linearity of the relationship between the dependent variable and the covariate, and homogeneity of regression slopes. The following graph shows the linearity of the relationship.
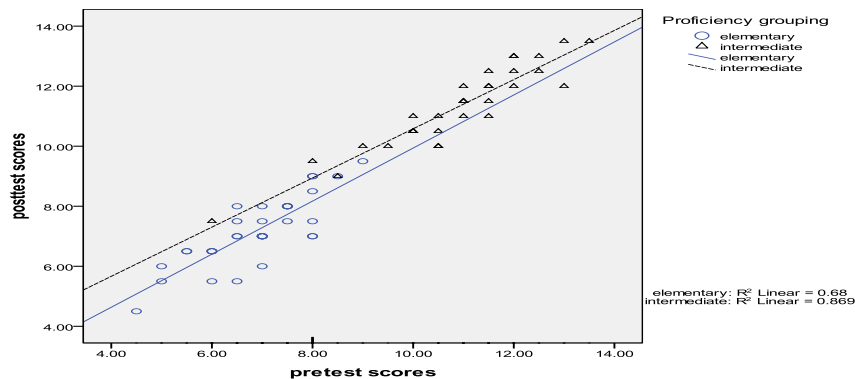
Figure 1: Scatter plot showing the relationship between the pretest and posttest scores of the two groups

As displayed above, the relationship was linear for both groups, with all the cases spread along a straight line. So, the assumption was not violated. The second assumption can be checked both visually and statistically. Shown in the above figure, the two slopes are very similar. If the two lines were noticeably different in their orientation, that might suggest an interaction between the covariate (the pretest scores) and the treatment. Therefore, the assumption is met. Homogeneity of regression slopes was checked statistically as well. The following table shows the result:

Table 4: Tests of between-subjects effects
Dependent Variable:posttest scores

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	361.804[a]	3	120.601	358.341	.000
Intercept	4.171	1	4.171	12.392	.001
Proficiency grouping	.570	1	.570	1.693	.198
Pretest	71.921	1	71.921	213.697	.000
Proficiency grouping * pretest	.104	1	.104	.309	.580
Error	21.203	63	.337		

Total	5991.500	67			
Corrected Total	383.007	66			

As the above table manifests, the interaction between grouping variable and pretest scores turned out to be non-significant (F=.309, p=.58>.05). Therefore, the second assumption is met statistically. The main results of ANCOVA are reported in the following table:

Table 5: Tests of between-subjects effects
Dependent Variable: posttest scores

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	361.701[a]	2	180.850	543.223	.000	.944
Intercept	4.392	1	4.392	13.191	.001	.171
Pretest	79.166	1	79.166	237.791	.000	.788
Proficiency grouping	2.845	1	2.845	8.547	.005	.118
Error	21.307	64	.333			
Total	5991.500	67				
Corrected Total	383.007	66				

a. R Squared = .944 (Adjusted R Squared = .943)

What is intended to be checked is whether the two groups were significantly different in their posttest scores. The sig value corresponding to proficiency grouping variable turned out to be less than .05 (F=8.54, p=.005<.05). Therefore, the difference between the two groups was significant after controlling for the pretest scores of the groups, with effect size as big as .118 implying that 11.8 percent of the variation in the dependent variable is explained by the independent variable, which is a medium size according to the Cohen's (1988) guidelines (.01=small, .06=medium, .14=large). The conclusion, hence, is that the hypothesis is rejected.

In the above table, the influence of the covariate is assessed as well. The corresponding sig value came out to be .000<.05, with the effect size .788 which is a large effect. It means that 78 percent of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by the covariate.
The following table shows the adjusted means on the dependent variable for each of the groups:

Table 6: Estimated marginal means

Dependent Variable: posttest scores

Proficiency grouping	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Elementary	8.787[a]	.142	8.503	9.072
Intermediate	9.545[a]	.153	9.240	9.850

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pretest scores = 8.7910.

As illustrated above, the depicted means are closer after being adjusted. By virtue of the mean scores and the significance of the difference, the conclusion is that the intermediate learners benefited significantly more from the treatment than the elementary level learners.

CONCLUSION

The results of this study revealed that PMCF had a positive effect on EFL learners' speaking performance. Although the results of the present study confirmed the effectiveness of PMCF, as a type of corrective feedback, researchers have conflicting ideas regarding the efficacy of feedback. This means that students can learn from their mistakes, but this depends on adopting an appropriate feedback method. Thus, a substantial amount of research has been done over the last two decades into the value of different kinds of response offered to students' errors, both in L1 and increasingly in L2 (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998; Long, Inagaki & Ortega, 1998; Mackey, 1999; Muranoi, 2000; Havranek & Cesnik, 2003; Ellis et al., 2006; Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

The findings of this study support the claims made by those researchers who supported the idea of providing different students with different kinds of feedback e.g., Tedick and de Gortari (1998) suggest that teachers should practice a variety of feedback techniques as different techniques might appeal to different students in terms of their needs, proficiency level, age, and classroom objectives. In other words, the findings of this study showed that students at different levels of proficiency do incorporate metalinguistic suggestions to improve their speaking skill, but intermediate students benefited more from this strategy than elementary learners. Therefore, although teachers can take advantage of applying metalinguistic feedback in their speaking classes, this procedure would be more helpful for intermediate students. The result of the present study is similar to previous studies conducted by other researchers. In 1993, Carroll and Swain conducted a study with 100 Spanish-speaking learners of English as an L2 at intermediate level. The design had five groups with group (A) receiving direct metalinguistic feedback, performing significantly better than all the other groups. Similarly, Ellis et al. (2006) found that metalinguistic corrective feedback was more effective than other types of feedback on lower-intermediate EFL learners.

According to Elexy and Dennick (2004), feedback is effective if the students can hear it, understand it, and most important, act upon it in order to improve what they do. Therefore, based on the above-mentioned results, it can be concluded that metalinguistic corrective feedback procedure is more understandable and tangible to be acted upon by learners at higher levels of proficiency.

IJLLALW

On the other hand, one point suggested in the literature is that if students are trained and given guidance and support, the interaction in the peer response would be useful and the given comments can be constructive. As Berg (1999) stated, "training is important for successful peer response" (p. 230); otherwise, most of the peers cannot give feedback to their classmates' errors appropriately due to the lack of understanding the subject matter and their proficiency level. Due to this fact, the researcher held a briefing session for the students before the treatment and provided them with necessary guidance throughout the procedure of treatment. Although all the participants could improve their speaking ability, the findings of the present study showed that the students with higher proficiency level demonstrated greater improvement than their class counterparts. Their higher level of English proficiency might have enabled them to better internalize what they had learned in the peer training session as well as in the peer feedback sessions and to use this internalized knowledge in the post-test more successfully than those in lower level of proficiency.

Moreover, one of the main aspects of peer feedback is communication. As Han (2002) mentioned, in communicative language teaching, corrective feedback remains an important vehicle for facilitating L2 knowledge construction and enhancing knowledge use. In fact, this aspect of the research treatment might have been another reason for the students' speaking improvement. Also, it can be concluded that intermediate students benefited more from this procedure because due to their higher language proficiency, they have been more successful communicators of English, hence they benefited more from this procedure. Rabiee (2006) mentioned in her research that the 120 students participating in the study, after receiving peer feedback and teacher feedback, found peer response activities more beneficial and interesting and they believed that peer feedback interactions provided them with an opportunity to work together in small groups.

Consequently, this study can be considered as another experimental evidence for the effectiveness of providing metalinguistic corrective feedback on EFL learners' errors which is in line with some other researchers' findings.

However, what the findings of this study offered to the literature was that peers could provide metalinguistic corrective feedback on their classmates' speaking errors at higher proficiency levels more efficiently than lower levels of language proficiency. The results of this study support the ideas by Rollinson (2005) who found peer feedback a collaborative group response as a potentially rewarding option. In his research, he discovered that peer feedback can be beneficial if there are considerations of age, cultural background, class size, and interlanguage level which may significantly influence overall outcomes.

LIMITATIONS
The limitations imposed to the present study were as follows:

1. The participants of this study were limited to female learners because the researcher is female and is not allowed to teach in male schools. Therefore, the results may not be generalized to male population.

2. Another limitation was that, as there were a limited number of students in the classes assigned to the researcher, random selection of the participants was not possible.

3. In order to homogenize the participants, the researcher administered the Preliminary English Test. Although it was more appropriate to have all the subsections of the test administered in one session to keep factors influencing test performance controlled, due to the time limitation in each session and also the regulations of the school, the researcher was not able to administer the entire PET package in one session and this might have influenced the examinees' performance.

REFERENCES

Abbasian, Gh. R. (1997). *Test method, language proficiency level, and the underlying structure of language ability.* Unpublished M.A. thesis, Tarbiat Modarres University, Tehran, Iran.

Atay, D., & Kurt, G. (2007). "The Effects of Peer Feedback on the Writing Anxiety of Prospective Turkish Teachers of EFL". *Journal of Theory and Practice in Education, 3(1),* 12-23.

Bachman, L. F. (1995). *Fundamental consideration in language testing.*(3rd ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.

Berg, E. C. (1999).The effects of trained peer response on ESL students' revision types and writing quality. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 8(3),* 215-241.

Brown, G., Yule, G. (1983). *Teaching the Spoken Language.* Cambridge University Press.

Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy.* White Plains, NY: Longman.

Burns, A., & Joyce, H. (1997). *Focus on Speaking.* Sydney: National Center for English Language Teaching and Research.

Bygate, M. (1996). Effects of task repetition: appraising the developing language of learners. In J. Williams and D. Willis (Eds.), *Challenge and Change in language teaching* (pp. 134-146). London: Heinemann.

Bygate, M. (2002). Speaking. In C., Roland and D., Nunan (Eds). *Teaching English to speakers of other languages.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Carroll, S., & Swain, M. (1993). Explicit and implicit negative feedback. An empirical study of the learning of linguistic generalization. *Studies in second language acquisition, 15,* 357-386.

Celce-Murcia, M. (Ed.). (1991). *Teaching English as a second or foreign language.* Boston, Massachusetts: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Chastain, K. (1988). *Developing second language skills: Theory and practice.* Florida: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Incorporation.

IJLLALW

Chaudron, C. (1977). A descriptive model of discourse in the corrective treatment of learners' errors.*Language Learning*, *27(1)*, 29-46.

Cohen, A. (1990). *Language learning.* Boston, Massachusetts: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Cunningham, F. M. (1999). *English language learners' speaking skill.* Eric Digest. Retrieved January, 15, 2012, from, http://www. Eric.ed.gov.

Doughty, C., & Varela, E. (1998). Communicative focus on form. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 114-138). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Elexy, K., & Dennick, R. (2004). *Small group teaching: Tutorials, seminars and beyond*. London: Routledge Falmer.

Ellis, R. (2009). A typology of written corrective feedback types. *ELT J*, *63(2)*, 97-107.

Ellis, R., Loewen, S., & Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *28(2)*, 339-368.

Ellis, R., Loewen, S., Elder, C., Erlam, R., Philip, J., & Reinders, H. (2009).*Implicit and explicit knowledge in a second language learning, testing and teaching.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Farhady, H., Jafarpour, A. J., & Birjandi, P. (2001). *Testing language skills: From theory to practice.* (6th Ed.). Tehran: SAMT.

Folse, K. (2006). *The art of teaching speaking*. Michigan: Michigan University Press.

Graham-Marr, A. (2004).*Teaching skills for listening and speaking*. Retrieved, April, 9, 2012, from, http://wwwAbax . Co.jp/downloads/extension/ETJ 2004.

Hadley, A. O. (2003). *Teaching language in context*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.

Han, Z. (2002). Rethinking the role of corrective feedback in communicative language teaching. *RELC Journal*, *32(1)*, 1-25.

Han, Z. H. (2008). *Error correction: Towards a differential approach*. The Fourth QCC Colloquium on Second Language Acquisition. New York: New York.

Havranek, G., & Cesnik, H. (2003). Factors affecting the success of corrective feedback. In S. Foster-Cohen, A. *EUROSLA Yearbook, Volume 1*, Amesterdam: Benjamins.

Huges, A. (2003). *Testing for language teachers.*(2nd Ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Krashen, S. D. (1985). *Input hypothesis: Issues and implications.* New York: Longman.

Lee, J. W., & Schallert, D. L. (1997). The relative contribution of second language proficiency and first language reading ability to second language reading performance: A test of the threshold hypothesis in an EFL context. *TESOL Quarterly, 31 (4),* 713-714.

Levelt, W. J. M. (1989).*Speaking: from intention to articulation*. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press.

Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2006). *How languages are learned*. (3rd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Long, M. H. (1990). The least a second language acquisition theory needs to explain. *TESOL Quarterly*, *24*, 649-666.

Long, M. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 413-468). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Long, M., Inagaki, S., & Ortega, L. (1998). The role of implicit negative feedback in SLA: Models and Recast in Japanese and Spanish. *The Modern Language Journal*, *82(3)*, 357-371.

Long, M. H., & Robinson, P. (1998). Focus on form: Theory, research, and practice. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 15-41). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,20(1),* 37-66.

Mackey, A. (1999). Input, interaction, and second language development: An empirical study of question formation in ESL. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,21,* 557-587.

Muranoi, H. (2000). Focus-on-form through interaction enhancement: Integrating formal instructive task in EFL classrooms. *Language Learning*, *50*, 617-673.

Norris, J. M., & Ortega, L. (2000). Effectiveness of L2 instruction: A research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, *50*, 417-528.

Nunan, D. (1996). *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D. (1999). *Second Language Teaching and Learning*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle publisher.

Oliver, R. (1995). Negative Feedback in Child NS-NNS Conversation. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 17(4)*, 459-481.

Oller, J. W. (1983). *Issues in Language testing research*. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.

Rabiee, M. (2006). *Interactive feedback model: modeling a collaborative learning approach in providing feedback in writing classrooms*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation: Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Campus. Tehran, Iran.

Rollinson, P. (2005). Using Peer feedback in the ESL writing class. *ELT Journal*, *51(1)*, 23-30.

Russell, J., & Spada, N. (2006). The effectiveness of corrective feedback for the acquisition of L2 grammar. A meta-analysis of the research. In J. Norris & L. Ortega (Eds.), *Synthetizing research on language learning and teaching* (pp. 133-164). Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In G. Cook & B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), *Principles and Practice in Applied Linguistics* (pp. 125-144). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Tedick, D., & de Gortari, B. (1998). Research on error correction and implications for classroom teaching. *The ACIE newletter 1(3)*, 1-8.

Thornbury, S. (2007). *How to teach speaking*. Harlow: Longman.

Ur, P. (1996). *A course in language teaching: Practice and theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ur, P. (2006). *A Course in Language Teaching: Practice and theory* (13th Ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Williams, M., & Burden, R. L. (2000). *Psychology for language teaching: A social constructivist approach.* (3rd Ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wilson, J. A. (1997). A program to develop the listening and speaking skills of children in a first grade classroom. In C. Smith, (Ed.).*Skills Students use when speaking and listening.* Retrieved November, 15, 2012, from http://eric.indiana.edu.

The Authors

Behdokht Mall-Amiri is Assistant Professor of TEFL at Islamic Azad University, Central Tehran. She has published several articles in domestic and foreign academic journals. She is specifically interested in research areas related to translation, cognitive and learning styles, motivation, and program evaluation.

Aghdas Hesami holds an MA degree in TEFL from Islamic Azad University, Central Tehran Branch. She has been teaching English in different high schools, ex: Al-Zahra and Khadijeh Kobra in Kermanshah for the last ten years.

COMPREHENSIBLE OR INCOMPREHENSIBLE LANGUAGE INPUT

Taher Bahrani
Department of English, Islamic Azad University, Mahshahr Branch, Mahshahr, Iran
Email: taherbahrani@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT
One of the essential issues in second language acquisition which has been the focus of many studies in the last three decades is language input and its role in SLA. While the importance and the role of language input have been advocated by various theories of language learning, there has been a controversy over the extent of its importance. Krashen (1982) claimed that language acquisition can happen in formal and informal language learning settings only if language learners are directly involved in intensive exposure to a type of input which is comprehensible. In contrast to this claim, other researchers also considered comprehended input (Gass, 1988, 1997) incomprehensible input (White, 1987), and comprehensible output (Swain, 1985) to provide the necessary language input for SLA. In the same line, the present paper aims at providing an overview with regard to the importance of language input from different theories of SLA.

KEY WORDS: Language input, Second language acquisition, Comprehensible input, Incomprehensible input

THE ROLE OF INPUT IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

There are many internal as well as external factors which influence SLA. Among them, the language input that learners receive in SLA is one of the external factors which plays a fundamental role. Corder (1967) is one of the pioneers among SLA researchers who underscored the importance of language input for SLA by drawing a distinction between input and intake. According to Corder, language input refers to what is available to be utilized by language learners for SLA which should be differentiated from intake which is that part of the input which is comprehended by the language learners.

The question of the role of language input in SLA has been of prime importance in much SLA research and theory. In fact, the review of the related literature on language input and SLA reveals that much work in this area of research has been concerned with the importance, the role, and the processing of linguistic input (Doughty & Long, 2003; Grady & Lee, 2011; Long, 1982; Nassaji & Fotos ,2011; Patten & Benati, 2010; among others). From this large pool of research, it

37

IJLLALW

can be deduced that SLA simply cannot take place in a vacuum without considering having exposure to some type of language input (Gass, 1997).

However, while the importance and the role of language input has been advocated by various language learning theories, there has been a controversy in the field of language acquisition between those theories that attribute a small or no role to language input and those attributing it a more important role. According to Ellis (2008), theories of SLA attach different importance to the role of input in language acquisition process but they all acknowledge the need for language input. In many approaches to SLA, input is considered as being a highly essential factor while in other approaches it has been neglected to a secondary role. In fact, what has been changed in relation to the role of input in language learning from the viewpoint of various language learning theories is the conceptualization of how language input is processed by language learners (Doughty & Long, 2003).

In this relation, Ellis (2008) considered the role of language input in SLA based on behaviorist, mentalist, and interactionist theories of language learning. The behaviorists view language learning as environmentally controlled by various stimulus and feedback that language learners are exposed to as language input. Indeed, the behaviorists consider a direct relationship between input and output. They ignore the internal processing of the mind for language acquisition. For the behaviorists, language acquisition is controlled by external factors among which language input which consists of stimuli and feedback is central (Ellis, 2008). Mentalist theories also claim that input is needed for SLA but because the learners' brains are equipped to learn any language with innate knowledge, language input is merely considered as a trigger that activates the internal mechanism (Ellis, 2008). Interactionists theories of SLA highlight the importance of both input and internal language learning processing. They view language acquisition as the result of an interaction at the discourse level between the learners' mental abilities and the linguistic environment and input as the role of affecting or being affected by the nature of internal mechanisms (Ellis, 2008).

Other theories that underscore the important role of language input in SLA are the information processing and skill-acquisition theories (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). According to Nassaji and Fotos (2011), the role of language input in information processing theories is important because it is the information embedded in the input and its frequency that help language learners acquire the target language. Moreover, language input is essential in skill-acquisition theories because it forms learners' initial declarative knowledge which refers to the knowledge about the language. Other researches in spoken languages also indicate that the amount of language in the input and its frequency are indeed highly relevant for the acquisition of language (Hart & Risley, 1995).

Gass (1997) also considered the role of language input in the input-interaction model, the input hypothesis, the universal grammar model, and the information processing model which treat the role of language input in different ways. In the input-interaction model, the language input that language learners receive is strengthened by the manipulation of the input through interaction which forms a basis for SLA. Within Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis, SLA takes place merely by means of comprehensible input which the language learners receive. That is, only the language input that is a little beyond the learners' language competence is useful for SLA. The third model is the universal grammar which asserts that language input is important but there must be something in addition to language input. This is the innate capacity which helps language learners acquire the second language. The last model is the information processing model in which the learner must first notice that there is something to learn. Then, the learner's

attention is drawn to those parts of the input which do not coincide with the internalized competence. In this model, language input is necessary for providing information for language construction (Gass, 1997).

The role of input in SLA has been highlighted as constituting the primary data for SLA (Long, 1982; Pica et al., 1987; VanPatten & Williams, 2007). Patten and Benati (2010) have emphasized that language input is a major source of data for language learners to construct their competence or mental representation of the language based on the examples embedded in the input. Grady et al. (2011) also highlighted the role of input in SLA by noting that in some cases of SLA there are indications that at least some features such as lexical development are directly shaped by the input. In other words, the language acquisition process is dependent upon the availability of appropriate language input.

Besides the role of language input in SLA which has been considered from the perspectives of different language learning theories and models, language input has also been given the initial role to provide the necessary data for SLA in some frameworks. Among the researchers who have studied the role of language input in SLA, Gass and Selinker (1994) proffered a framework which indicates the importance of input in SLA process.

Within the framework introduced by Gass and Selinker (1994), there are five levels for turning input into output: apperceived input, comprehended input, intake, integration, and output which account for SLA process. According to their model (Figure 1), language input refers to various sources of second language data which the learners are exposed to.
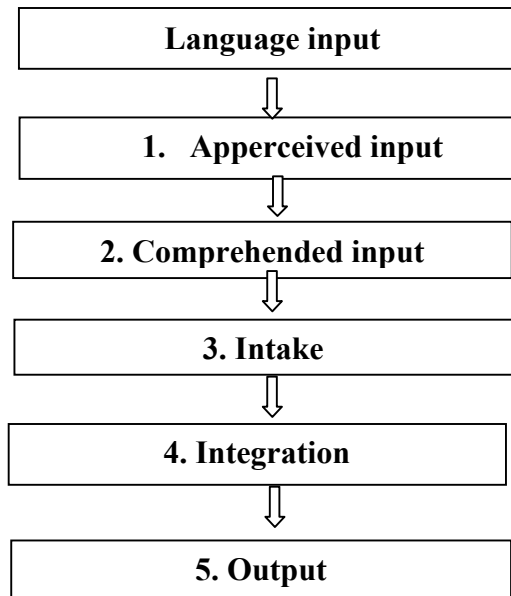

Figure 1: Gass and Selinker's model (1994) for second language acquisition

The first stage of the SLA model which is concerned with input utilization is called apperceived input. In this stage, some of the language input is noticed by the language learner because of some particular features such as frequency, affect, prior knowledge, and attention (Gass &

Selinker, 1994). The second stage is the comprehension of that bit of language input which is apperceived. Then, in the third stage which is a mental activity, the language input is comprehended and internalized by the language learners which refers to intake. The fourth stage is the integration of the intake with the prior knowledge to arrive at the fifth stage which is the output in the form of written or spoken language.

Likewise, Ellis (1997) introduced a basic computational model of SLA with an initial focus on language input. In this model, language learners are first exposed to language input which is then processed in two stages. First, some parts of the input that are comprehended by the language learners turn into intake. Second, some of the intake which finds its way to the long term memory is then turned into knowledge which results in spoken or written output. While Gass and Selinker's (1994) and Ellis's (1997) theoretical frameworks for SLA attach the initial importance to language input, they differ from each other in the number of stages that language input is processed in the minds of language learners.

In a nutshell, comparing the theories and theoretical frameworks for SLA based on the role of language input reveals that the importance of language input is highlighted by various theories and theoretical frameworks for SLA. In the same line, one of the most influential SLA hypothesis concerned with the role and importance of language input in SLA is the input hypothesis (Krashen, 1981, 1982, 1985). As a matter of fact, most of the studies on the type of language input and SLA have been developed to either support or criticize Krashen's input hypothesis which first claimed the important role of comprehensible input for SLA. Indeed, input hypothesis triggered numerous studies in the investigation of issues related to the type of language input for SLA (Ying, 1994).

KRASHEN'S INPUT HYPOTHESIS AND SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION
One of the important psychologically oriented theories of language learning was established by Krashen (1981, 1982, 1985). He proposed a 'monitor model' of second language learning including five hypotheses: the input hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, and the affective filter hypothesis. The hypothesis related to this study is the input hypothesis which is put forth.

As was discussed above, language input is considered as a highly essential factor in the SLA process. In this relation, the input hypothesis continues to make strong claims regarding the role of language input and the necessity of exposure to comprehensible input in SLA. The input hypothesis claims that for SLA to take place, language learners must have exposure to a type of second language data which they can comprehend. Krashen identified comprehensible input as "the only causative variable in SLA" (Krashen, 1981, p. 57). According to Krashen, for SLA to take place, language learners must have exposure to comprehensible input which contains language structures that are beyond their current level (I+1). Based on Krashen's claims regarding language input and SLA, the basic assumptions of the input hypothesis can be summarized as follows: (1) access to comprehensible input as a potential type of language input is the main characteristic of all cases of successful SLA, (2) greater quantities of comprehensible input seem to result in faster or better SLA, and (3) lack of access to comprehensible input results in little or no SLA.

Few researchers (Long, 1982; Ellis & He, 1999; Gass & Varonis, 1994) have advocated the input hypothesis by suggesting modified input, interactionally modified input, and modified output as

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

three potential sources of comprehensible input for SLA. Accordingly, modified input refers to a type of language input which has been modified or simplified in some ways before the language learners are exposed to it, interactionally modified input originates from input modification that occurs when language learners experience difficulty comprehending a message in interaction with interlocutors, and modified output refers to language learners' efforts to modify their output to make it more comprehensible to the interlocutor (Long, 1996).

Another aspect of the input hypothesis in relation to acquiring the language in informal setting (out of the classroom environment) is the importance of direct exposure to a source of language input. According to Krashen (1981), language acquisition can take place in informal environment if language learners are directly involved in intensive exposure to language input. Later, it will be discussed that this aspect of the input hypothesis which emphasizes the necessity of exposure to language input for language learning to occur has also been emphasized by Krashen's critics. Nevertheless, empirical evidence related to the sources of language input, quality, and quantity of the input has not been provided neither by Krashen nor his critics.

CRITIQUES OF THE INPUT HYPOTHESIS

Despite the significant influence that the input hypothesis has had on the researches around the role of language input in SLA, it has received strong criticisms from several researchers.

Serious concerns regarding the input hypothesis were expressed by McLaughlin (1987). McLaughlin claimed that the concept of a learner's level is extremely difficult to define which limits the application of this rule in the classroom since individual differences come into play when determining the learners' current levels. In fact, determining the current level of each language learner and providing i+1 language input for each of them separately in the classroom seems to be very difficult to fulfill. Krashen did not provide solutions regarding this issue. There are also some problems regarding how to provide language learners with language input which matches their i+1 level.

The input hypothesis has also been challenged by many researchers particularly beause it has made a large number of claims about the type and the qualitative aspect of the necessary language input in a wide array of SLA phenomena without providing solid empirical evidence. In other words, because Krashen's input hypothesis limits SLA to merely exposure to comprehensible input, the criticisms directed at the input hypothesis are mainly around the nature and the type of language input that can constitute the primary data for SLA. In fact, although second language researchers and the critics of Krashen's input hypothesis highlight the important role of input in SLA and agree on the fact that language input is a necessary ingredient in SLA (Salaberry, 2003), they claim that SLA is not achieved merely through comprehensible input. Other types of language input such as incomprehensible input, comprehended input, and

comprehensible output are also considered to enhance the process of SLA through providing the necessary input.

White (1987) considered the necessary language input which constitutes the primary data for SLA to be either comprehensible or incomprehensible. In his incomprehensible input hypothesis, White underscored the point that it is the input incomprehensibility or comprehension difficulties which can provide important negative feedback to the learner that is necessary for the constitution of SLA. When language learners encounter language input that is incomprehensible because, for example, their inter-language rules cannot analyze a particular second language structure, they have to modify those inter-language rules to understand the structure (White, 1987). In this way, the incomprehensible input enhances the process of SLA. It can be concluded from what White (1987) has put forth in relation to comprehensible or incomprehensible input that when an aspect of the language input is comprehensible, the acquisition of the missing structures would not occur. In fact, the incomprehensibility of some aspects of the given language input to the language learners draws their attention to specific features to be acquired.

Gass (1988, 1997) also emphasized that crucial importance should be given to the concept of comprehended input rather than comprehensible input. According to Gass, only that part of the language input which is comprehended is involved in the SLA process. In other words, the primary language input which is necessary for SLA may be beyond the boundaries of comprehensible input. In the same line and as was discussed earlier, in Gass and Selinker's (1997) and Ellis's (1994) theoretical models for SLA, language input which is apperceived by the language learners and then is turned into comprehended input and intake is not limited merely to language data (input) which should necessarily be comprehensible. Indeed, language learners are exposed to a body of second language input which may or may not be within the range of I+1. Out of this initial body of language input, some of the input is noticed by the language learners because of frequency, affect, prior knowledge, and attention (Gass & Selinker, 1997). Hence, the qualitative aspect of language input in Gass and Selinker's (1997) and Ellis's (1994) theoretical models for SLA is not limited to language input that is necessarily at the language learners' i+1 current language proficiency level.

In addition to incomprehensible input and comprehended input, Swain (1985) also argued in her comprehensible output hypothesis that in addition to comprehensible input, comprehensible output can also provide the necessary data for SLA. The comprehensible output hypothesis states that language learning takes place when the language learner faces a gap in his/her linguistic knowledge of the second language. By noticing this gap, the language learner tries to modify his/her output. This modification of output may end in learning a new aspect of the language which has not been acquired yet. Although Swain does not claim that comprehensible output is solely responsible for all or even most parts of the language acquisition, she highlights the point that under some conditions, comprehensible output facilitates SLA in ways that it can provide the necessary input. As a matter of fact, although Swain (1985) acknowledged that without comprehensible input language learners are not able to make connections between forms and meanings for SLA development, she provides evidence of the immersion programs in which comprehensible input alone does not lead to SLA. This view contrasts sharply with Krashen's input hypothesis where the role of production, or output, is minimized.

The input hypothesis maintains that increased comprehensible input will result in more language acquisition, and that increased output will not. However, no clear empirical evidence has been provided for this assumption. In this regard, Romeo (2000) showed support to Swain's

comprehensible output hypothesis when he indicated that output of some kind is seen as a necessary phase in language acquisition. On the one hand, teachers need students' output in order to be able to judge their progress and adapt future materials to their needs. On the other hand, learners need the opportunity to use the second language because when faced with communication failure, they are forced to make their output more precise. These arguments suggest that if comprehensible input is necessary, then so is comprehensible output which can be utilized as a source of input in SLA process. This view goes against Krashen's input hypothesis.

To come to the point, what can be concluded and summarized from Krashen's input hypothesis and his critiques' concerns is that the importance of language input for SLA is not questioned and some type of language input is required for SLA. Accordingly, in addition to modified input, interactionally modified input, and modified output which are considered as various types of comprehensible input for SLA, comprehended input, incomprehensible input, and comprehensible output can also provide the necessary language input for SLA. Hence, without debating on the right or wrong of Krashen's theory which is beyond the scope of this study, the premise taken is that some types of language input is necessary for the study without delving into the psychological aspects of the language input.

CONCLUSION

There are many internal as well as external factors which influence SLA. Among them, the language input that learners receive in SLA is one of the external factors which plays a fundamental role. However, according to Ellis (2008), although SLA theories attach different importance to the role of language input in language acquisition, they all acknowledge the need for language input.

In view of the above, the present paper was set to provide an overview regarding the role of language input in SLA. As it is concluded, SLA, cannot simply take place in vacuum without having exposure to some sort of language input. While comprehensible input might be the best type of language input for the low level language learners, language learners with higher language proficiency levels may best benefit form incomprehensible language input.

In a nutshell, the controversial issues in relation to language input are the type and the amount (quantity) of language input necessary for SLA which have also been highlighted by Gass (1997). As a matter of fact, although the importance of input in SLA has been emphasized by the majority of the researchers, little has also been written about the type and amount of language input for SLA. In fact, the studies on the role and importance of language input in SLA fall short of providing evidence of the sources of language input which can provide the necessary language input for SLA.

REFERENCES
Corder, S. P. (1967). The significance of learners' errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics,* 5, 161-170.

IJLLALW

Doughty, C., & Long, M. H. (2003). *The handbook of second language acquisition*. Blackwell publishing.

Ellis, R. (1997). *Second language acquisition.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition (second ed).* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R., & He, X. (1999). The roles of modified input and output in the incidental acquisition of word meanings. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* 21, 285-301.

Gass, S. M. (1988). Integrating research areas: A framework for second language studies. *Applied Linguistics,* 9, 198–217.

Gass, S. M. (1997). *Input, interaction, and the second language learner.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Elrbaum.

Gass, S., & Selinker, L. (1994). Second language acquisition: an introductory course. Hilldale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Gass, S., & Varonis, E. (1994). Input, Interaction, and Second Language Production. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 16, 283–302.

Grady, W., Lee, S, O., & Lee, J. H. (2011). Practical and Theoretical Issues in the Study of Heritage Language Acquisition. *Heritage Language Journal.*

Hart, B., & Risley, T. (1995). *Meaningful differences in the everyday experience of young American children.* Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes Publishing.

Krashen, S. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning.* Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition.* New York: Prentice Hall.

Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis.* Torrance, CA: Laredo Publishing Company.

Long, M. (1982). *Native speaker/non-native speaker conversation in the second language classroom.* In M. Long & C. Richards (Eds.), Methodology in TESOL: A book of readings (pp. 339-354). New York: Newbury House.

Long, M. (1996). *The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition.* In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), Handbook of second language acquisition (pp. 413-468). New York: Academic Press.

McLaughlin, B. (1987). The monitor model: some methodological considerations. *Language learning*, 28, 309-332.

Nassaji, H., & Fotos, S. (2010). *Teaching Grammar in Second Language Classrooms: Integrating form-focused instruction in communicative context.* New York: Routlege, Taylor & Francis Group.

Patten, V. B., & Benati, A. G. (2010). *Key terms in second language acquisition.* Continuum international publishing group. London.

Pica, T., Young, R., & Doughty, C. (1987). The impact of interaction on comprehension. *TESOL Quarterly,* 21, 737-759.

Salaberry, M. R. (2001). The use of technology for second language learning and teaching: A retrospective. *Modern Language Journal,* 85 (1), 39-56.

Swain, M. (1985). *Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development.* Input in Second Language Acquisition., eds S. Gass & C. Madden, Newbury House, Rowley, Mass.

VanPatten, W., & Williams, J. (2007). *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction.* Lawrence Erlbaum Associates: New York.

White, L. (1987). Against comprehensible input: The Input Hypothesis and the development of L2 competence. *Applied linguistics,* 8, 95-110.

Ying, H. (1994). What sort of input is needed for intake? *SLAT student association working papers,* 2 (1), 28-40.

BIODATA:

TAHER BAHRANI is a Ph.D holder in TEFL. He has published 4 ISI-indexed papers and many peer-reviewed ones. His field of interest is mainly related to the use of technology and second language acquisition. He has recently been selected as the international examiner for an M.A thesis from the University of Newcastle, Australia (2013).

IJLLALW

DEVELOPING ESL STUDENTS' ACCENTS: AMERICAN ENGLISH VS. BRITISH ENGLISH

Esmaeil Hassannejad

Department of English Language, Dezful Branch Islamic Azad University, Dezful, Iran
E-mail: myhonor504@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

For many years, English as a Second language (ESL) students have been subject to different puzzling audio books and software with American and British English accents on one hand, and a variety of the teachers' non-native and native-like accents inside the classrooms on the other. The paper aims at investigating the relationship between General American accent defined by Shitara (1993) as the most "neutral" accent of American English which is free of regional characteristics and Received Pronunciation (RP) stated by Wells (2008) as the standard British English accent and pinpointing the extent of ESL students' tendency to one of the two mentioned accents in order to help teachers select the most appropriate methods for teaching listening and speaking in ESL classrooms. To fulfill these purposes, sixty freshmen undertaking a full-course of study in Lang. Lab. 2 in Islamic Azad University of Dezful were selected and through a standard proficiency test derived from NTC's TOEFL Test, it was observed that the students were homogeneous. Then, they were given a common text to recite so that their tendency to one of the two Standard English accents could be realized. Afterward, the specific sounds features of General American and RP were elicited and the students' recordings were rated based on the articulation of those features. Based on the frequency, One sample T-test and the Mean Ranks posed by Hatch and Farhady (1982), it was observed that the students were more capable of articulating American features rather than the British ones. Hence, the null hypothesis which stated "There is no relationship between American and British English accents." was rejected, and the first hypothesis was verified. That is, the ESL students are more talented to utilize American English accent than the British English accent. The pedagogical implications of the present study are 1) recognizing the ESL students' tendency to American English accent inherited from the students' past experience including their former instructors, course books and other materials; 2) providing the students with an academic atmosphere wherein American English system including the related course books, audio and visual materials and efficient instructors is dominant.

KEY WORDS: General American, British English, Received Pronunciation.

INTRODUCTION

The ESL students get, more or less , involved in some puzzling issues rooted in the differences between American and British English accents. This is exacerbated by their exposition to a whole

variety of written literature in the forms of textbooks and software recommended by their teachers. Likewise, the teachers' unreal and non-native accents would not be helpful either. In other words, unwitting tendency of teachers to intermingle the two accents is bound to yield a non-native model as a result. There are various ways via which one can go through with tackling the issue. One is to take an informative approach by enlightening ESL students about the appropriateness of each accent on the basis of his or her academic ability and other intrinsic considerations.

The Importance of Research

Recognition and proper understanding of the tendency of ESL students to one of the two main English accents (American English and British English) is crucial for identifying the most appropriate textbooks and other learning materials to lay the foundation for effective learning. This has to be complemented by provision of service from experienced and knowledgeable teachers having a native-like pronunciation and accent. The effective performance of such teachers is likely to be instrumental in motivating the learners to follow a set pronunciation pattern that is as closed to a native (near-native) accent as the circumstances allow. By the same token, it might help enhance the learning efficiency and learning curve by adjusting the whole activities to suit the ESL students' accent preference. Such an approach is thought to make a crucial psychological impact on the ESL students which is expected to enhance their academic performance and interests.

Objectives

To assess the quality of present teaching method for the ESL students' vis-à-vis the use of American English and British English accents in the classrooms.
To consider the tendencies of the ESL students' in using one or the other accent for the best result.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

According to Lippi-Green (1997, pp.12, 251-285), when a group defines a standard pronunciation, speakers who deviate from it are often said to "speak with an accent". However, everyone speaks with an accent. Accents such as BBC English or General American or Standard American may sometimes be erroneously designated in their countries of origin as "accentless" to indicate that they offer no obvious clue to the speaker's regional or social background. Based on Matsuda (1991, pp.100, 1329-1407), People from the United States would "speak with an accent" from the point of view of an Australian, and vice versa. Furthermore, Morley (1996, pp. 140-160) believes that many teachers of English as a second language neglect to teach speech/pronunciation. Many adult and near-adult learners of second languages have unintelligible speech patterns that may interfere with their education, profession, and social interactions. Inadequate instruction in speech/pronunciation can result in a complete breakdown in communication.

Crawford (2008) states that English has been given official status by 28 of the 50 state governments. The use of English in the United States was a result of English colonization. The first wave of English-speaking settlers arrived in North America in the 17th century. Since then,

American English has been influenced by the languages of the Native American population, the languages of European and non-European colonists, immigrants and neighbors, and the languages of slaves from West Africa. According to Safer (2006), General American is the accent typically taught to people learning English as a second language in the United States, as well as outside the country to anyone who wishes to learn "American English," although in much of Asia and some other places ESL teachers are strongly encouraged to teach American English no matter their own origins or accents.

Based on Tolkien (1955), English is a West Germanic language originated from the Anglo-Frisian dialects brought to Britain by Germanic settlers from various parts of what is now northwest Germany and the northern Netherlands. The resident population at this time was generally speaking Brythonic—the insular variety of continental Celtic which was influenced by occupation by the Romans. This group of languages (Welsh, Cornish, Cumbric) cohabited alongside English into the modern period, but due to their remoteness from the Germanic languages, influence on English was notably limited. Initially, Old English was a diverse group of dialects, reflecting the varied origins of the Anglo-Saxon Kingdoms of England.

Based on Fowler (1996), the form of English most commonly associated with the upper class in the southern counties of England is called Received Pronunciation (RP). It derives from a mixture of the Midland and Southern dialects which were spoken in London in the early modern period and is frequently used as a model for teaching English to foreign learners. It may also be referred to as "the Queen's (or King's) English", "Public School English", or "BBC English" offered by Roach (2006) as this was originally the form of English used on radio and television, although a wider variety of accents can be heard these days.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
In order to fulfill the purpose of this study which is to consider the extent of the ESL students' tendencies to one of the two major English accents (American English and British English), one is expected to focus on the following questions:

Are there any relationships between American English and British English accents?
Is American English accent more widespread than British English accent among ESL students?

HYPOTHESES
Hypothesis 1: ESL students are more talented to utilize American English accent than British English accent.

Null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between American English accent and British English accent.

METHODOLOGY
Participants
The investigation of the ESL students' attraction to American or British English accent was intended for 60 typical intakes in Islamic Azad University, Dezful in Iran, undertaking a full-course of study in Lang. Lab. 2. The criterion for selecting this population sample was a

proficiency test consisting of grammar, reading comprehension and vocabulary in English. Sixty students graduated from high school and entered the university as freshmen were selected for this study. Each student was told separately to recite a short given text based on what they had learnt earlier. The selected sample was drawn from the intakes without a prior knowledge of the investigation. This meant performing lectures and rehearsals with a minimum distraction. The researcher who was simultaneously acting as a teacher recorded the whole process. This meant recording of recitation and the voices to draw as authentic picture of the reality as possible.

Instruments

To use necessary items for proficiency test, 20 vocabulary questions 20 grammatical items and 10 questions on reading comprehension were elicited from NTC'S Practice for the TOEFL provided by Broukal and Nolan-Woods (1997) . It is to be noted that due to the limitations of the study which might have affected the result of the study, the mentioned sample TOEFL test was not verified in terms of reliability. All together, the proficiency test consisting of 50 questions, each of which had a two- point mark with the total of 100 points. Regarding the results of the proficiency test on 60 students, the Mean was 83.45. The Minimum and maximum score ranged between 72 and 97 respectively. Likewise, the Mode was equal to 84, the Standard Deviation 6.82, and the Kurtosis offered by Kurtz (1983), referring to the degree to which scores congregate in the tails of the distribution, was - 0.784. Therefore, homogeneity and normal distribution were apparently observed among the participants' scores and the presented data.

Procedure

Based on Rogers (2000), the term accent is used to refer solely to *phonetic* aspects of a dialect. Likewise, an accent is shaped by the phonetic ability to produce certain sounds and features and the inability to produce certain sounds due to the fact that they are not present in the speakers' native language phonetic inventory (Ben Said, 2006).Hence, having observed the homogeneity existing among the selected subjects' proficiency levels, the researcher provided them with a short text so that he could check the phonetic features articulated by them on the basis of what they had acquired subconsciously from their instructors, course books and related audio and visual materials. It should be stipulated that the way he asked them to rehearse the text was expected to be as implicit and authentic as possible. In other words, students were not allowed to access the hints about how to shift their accents to one of the two mentioned Standard English accents while articulating the given text based on their own accents. The suggested text included the words having distinctive speech sounds regarding American and British English accents. Hence, the articulation of speech sounds could determine the students' tendency to one of the two mentioned accents. According to Shitara (1993), General American is a notional accent of American English perceived by Americans to be the most "neutral" and free of regional characteristics and to lack certain non-standard features. Based on her findings, General American includes nine phonetic features:1) rhotic which maintaining the coda [r] in words like pearl, car, and court;2) flapping which involves a rapid movement of the tongue tip from a retracted vertical position to a horizontal position, during which the tongue tip brushes the alveolar ridge regarding /t/ and /d/ ; 3)reduction of vowel contrasts before historic /r/; 4) yod dropping that is the elision of the sound [j] in most varieties of English like juice, chew, rude,blue;5) Split which has to do with /ɔr/ sound in some words like origin, Florida, horrible, quarrel, warren;6) Daniel Jones's /oʊ/ in some words like go, so, know;7) h-dropping in some

49

words like head or horse; 8) Mary-marry-merry merger;9) father-bother merger. Conversely , Received Pronunciation (RP) which was defined by Wells (2008) as the standard accent of Standard English in England, with a relationship to regional accents similar to the relationship in other European languages between their standard varieties and their regional forms includes twelve phonetic features: 1) lot-cloth split in words like *often* (the Queen's speech to President Sarkozy,2008; 2) horse-hoarse distinction with an extra diphthong /ɔə/ appearing in words like hoarse, force, and pour offered by Wright (1905); 3) "GOAT" vowel with the transcription /əʊ/presented by Wells (1997) instead of Daniel Jones's /oʊ/, reflecting a change in pronunciation since the beginning of the century; 4) foot–strut split in pairs like put/putt presented by Wells (1982);5) non-rhotic presented by Wells (1982); 6) non-h-dropping offered by Wells (1982);7) no weak vowel merger pinpointed by Wells (1982);8) no Mary-marry-merry merger presented by Wells (1982);9) no father-bother merger mentioned by Roca and Johnson (1999);10) non-yod-dropping presented by Wells (1982);11) no flapping offered by Wise (1957);12) /ɒrV/ in some words like origin, Florida, horrible, quarrel, warren, borrow, tomorrow, sorry and sorrow provided by Pointon (2010).In addition to the mentioned differences between the two standard types of English accents, there are still other differences in accordance with the articulation of some vocabulary items in American and British English accents some of which were used in the text given to the students. The pronunciation of some words like *laboratory*, *castle* offered by Wise (1957) and *going to* are considered as such. After finding the mentioned American and British features from the students' recordings, the researcher was reported to determine a scale for scoring those phonetic features and then to insert them in a list. Accordingly, their recordings were rated on the basis of PTE Academic Score Guide (2012, p.21) in such a way that 2 indicated *Satisfactory*, 1 represented *Average*, and 0 meant *Weak*. Since all participants were non-native and their recordings were not like those of the native or near native speakers, no more scores could be allocated to each uttered speech sound feature. Based on the rated *General American* speech sounds features among 60 students, 51 students had satisfactory accents which equaled 85 percent; 4 participants' recordings were average which equaled6.7 percent, and 5 students had weak accents comprising 8.3 per cent. Regarding the General American speech sound features, they were reported to be satisfactory except "laboratory" and "gonna". In other words, the students were capable of articulating most of the General American speech sounds. "Laboratory" was the most frequent variable uttered in the average level, and "gonna" had the maximum frequency for weak level.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Having finished all calculations, the researcher was expected to analyze and interpret the results of each calculation deliberately. It is to be noted that 60 freshmen studying *Lang. Lab 2* were selected so that their existing accents and tendencies could be checked separately. In order to show homogeneity among the participants, the researcher held a proficiency test designating the students' general knowledge. Then, they were given a common text to rehearse as authentically as possible so that their accents could be analyzed. Having recorded their voices separately, the researcher was recommended to utilize an analytic scale comprising three levels each of which was shown through a specific score for scoring General American and Received Pronunciation specific sound features. Accordingly, the satisfactory level was shown by 2, Average level by 1 and Weak level was illustrated by 0. Afterwards, the audios were rated based on the mentioned scale by the researcher. In order to see if the mean of each General American speech sound feature was satisfactory, the researcher was expected to utilize a One-sample T-test posed by Hatch and Farhady (1982). Likewise, *Daniel Jone's /ou/ , father-bother-merger*, *castle* and *can't* had the maximum mean, 1.83, which was so close to satisfactory level among all

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

General American specific features. So it could be realized that the students were more efficient in applying these speech sounds features, but not in uttering "gonna" whose mean was 0.33. Similarly, in order to hold a One-sample T-test, he was supposed to get the means related to the variables. It was observed that all variables were more than average and close to satisfactory level except for "gonna" since t was positive for each variable except "gonna". It is to be noted that a=0.05 and sig. was lower than 0.05 for each variable, so the mean was more than 1 for each variable. In accordance with the rated **RP British** speech sounds among the same students, just 5 students had satisfactory accents including 8.3 per cent, and 55 participants' recorded accents were weak which equaled 91.7 per cent. No one's accent was average. Regarding the above figure, most RP speech sound features were reported to have weak frequency. In other words, the students were not capable of uttering most of the RP speech sounds. With regard to the mentioned data, the means of all features, except "no flapping" were close to 0.5 or lower than 0.5 which represented almost weak level. So it could be deciphered that students were not capable of articulating RP British speech sounds features properly. Moreover, in order to hold a One-sample T-test, the researcher was committed to get the means related to the mentioned variables. It was noticed that all variables were lower than average and close to weak level. It is to be noted that a=0.05 and sig. was lower than 0.05 for each variable, so the mean was lower than 1 for each variable .In addition, since *t* was negative in each variable, it was realized that the variables were weak. In order to prove that there is a meaningful difference between the means of General American and RP English specific speech sounds features ranks, the researcher was suggested to use Friedman test. It should be stipulated that the mean of each speech sound feature rank would determine the priority of the mentioned feature to other speech sound features. That is, the higher the mean of each rank was, the superior it could be considered to other features. Accordingly, among all General American and RP specific phonetic features, the *Mean Rank* of *can't (AmE)* was the highest, 25.97, and it meant that the rater had been more satisfied with the articulation of this specific feature than that of other features. Likewise, the *Mean Rank* of laboratory *(BrE)* was the lowest, 10.67. So it meant that the students were not capable of uttering this feature appropriately, and the rater was dissatisfied with its articulation among all participants rather than the articulation of other speech sounds. In addition, *gonna* had the lowest *Mean Rank* among all General American phonetic features. It meant that the rater was dissatisfied with its articulation, and the participants were not able to utter this feature. Furthermore, the *Mean Rank* of *no flapping* was the highest among all RP specific speech sounds features. Concerning the data resulted from Friedman test, as a=0.05 and Sig. was lower than 0.05 for the comparison of Mean Ranks related to General American English features, RP British English features and also the Mean Ranks of all mentioned American and British features, it was realized that the Mean Ranks were not equal .In other words, there was a meaningful difference among the Mean Ranks of General American features; similarly, there was a meaningful difference among the Mean Ranks of RP features. In addition, there was a meaningful difference between the Mean Ranks of General American and RP phonetic features.

Table 1: General American and RP Features Ranking by Friedman test

	Test Statistics American	Test Statistics British	Test Statistics Total
N	60	60	60
Chi-Square	339.002	190.155	1123

IJLLALW

Df	15	17	33
Asymp. Sig.	0.001	0.001	0.001

To show the meaningful difference between the Mean Ranks of General American and RP specific features, the researcher applied a Mann-Whitney test presented by Fay et al (2010), and then he utilized a T-test by all General American and RP specific features.

Table 2: General American and RP Features Mean Ranks

Ranks				
	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Accent	General AmE	60	85.33	5120.00
	RP	60	35.67	2140.00
	Total	120		

The above table indicates that the Mean Rank of General American accent equals85.33 which is higher than that of RP accent which equals 35.67. Hence, the students' American accent efficiency has been superior to their British accent capability.

Table 3: Illustrating the Meaningful Difference Between the Mean Ranks of General American and RP Using Mann-Whitney Test

Test Statistics	
	Accent
Mann-Whitney U	310.00
Wilcoxon W	2140.00
Z	-8.89
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001

Based on the above table, as a=0.05 and Sig., 0.001, is lower than 0.05, it can be realized that the students' articulation of American and British accents has not been the same, and since the Mean Rank of General American specific phonetic features is higher than that of RP features, it can be stated that their American English accent efficiency seems more satisfactory in comparison with their British English accent.

Table 4: Descriptive Data for T-test

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Accent.sum	American	60	25.3333	7.75617	1.00132
	British	60	4.5500	8.97534	1.15871

Table 5: Consideration of American and British English Accents Mean Ranks Equality Based on a T-test

		T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Accent	Equal variances assumed	13.571	118	0.001	17.75070	23.81596

The above table shows that the variances of American and British English accents are equal, and based on that, the mentioned T-test has been implemented. As a=0.05 and Sig. is lower than 0.05, the means of the two accents cannot be equal, and, of course, there is a meaningful difference between them. Apparently, the mean of American accent is higher than that of British one. So the students' American English accent is reported to be stronger than their British English accent.

To be aware of the certainty of the collected data and the rated recordings, the researcher was expected to let another interrater score the audios on the basis of the presented analytic scale for the recorded voices. In accordance with the rated **General American** speech sounds features among 60 students by the second rater,49 students had satisfactory accents which equaled 81.7 percent; 5 participants' recordings were average which equaled 8.3 percent, and 6 students had weak accents comprising 10.0 per cent. Based on this figure, all General American speech sounds features were satisfactory except "laboratory" and "gonna". As a matter of fact, the students were capable of uttering many General American speech sounds. "laboratory" was the most frequent variable articulated in the average level, and "gonna" had the weakest frequency level. In order to see if the mean of each General American speech sound feature was satisfactory, the researcher was expected to utilize a One-sample T-test. Apparently, *Daniel Jone's /ou/, father-bother-merger*, *castle* and *can't* had the maximum mean, 1.80, which was so close to satisfactory level among all General American specific features. So it was realized that the students were more efficient in applying these speech sounds features, but not in uttering "gonna" whose mean was 0.33. Similarly, in order to hold a One-sample T-test, he was supposed to get the means related to the variables. It could be observed that all variables were more than average and close to satisfactory level except for "gonna" since t was positive for each variable except "gonna". It is to be noted that a=0.05 and sig. was lower than 0.05 for each variable, so the mean was more than 1 for each variable. In accordance with the rated **RP British** speech sounds by the second rater among the same students, just 5 students had satisfactory accents including 8.3 per cent, and 55 participants' recorded accents were weak which equaled 91.7 per cent. No one had an average accent. Most RP speech sound features were reported to have weak frequency. In other words, the students were not capable of uttering most of the RP speech sounds. According to the mentioned data, the means of all features, except "no flapping", "non-rhotic" and "travel" were close to 0.5 or lower than 0.5 which represented almost the weak level. So it was observed that students were not able to articulate RP British speech sounds features properly. In order to hold a One-sample T-test, the second interrater was committed to get the means related to the mentioned variables. Based on the One-sample T-test, all variables were lower than average and close to weak level. It is to be noted that a=0.05 and sig. was lower than 0.05 for each variable, so the mean was lower than 1 for each variable. In addition, since *t* was negative in each variable, it could be realized that the variables were weak.

To elucidate that there is a meaningful difference between the means of General American and RP English specific speech sounds features ranks, the second interrater was recommended to use Friedman test. It is to be noted that the mean of each speech sound feature rank determined the priority of the mentioned feature to other speech sound features. Accordingly, among all General American and RP specific phonetic features, the *Mean Rank* of *Daniel Jone's /ou/* and *father-bother merger* was the highest, 25.98, and it means that the second rater was more satisfied with the utterance of this specific feature than that of other features. In addition, the *Mean Rank* of

53

laboratory *(BrE)* was the lowest, 10.67. So it meant that the students were not capable of uttering this feature appropriately, and the rater was dissatisfied with its articulation among all participants rather than the articulation of other speech sounds. In addition, *gonna* had the lowest *Mean Rank* among all General American phonetic features. It meant that the rater had been dissatisfied with its articulation, and the participants were unable to utter this feature. Furthermore, the *Mean Rank* of *no flapping* was the highest among all RP specific speech sounds features. Concerning the following table resulted from Friedman test, as a=0.05 and Sig. was lower than 0.05 for the comparison of Mean Ranks related to General American English features, RP British English features and also the Mean Ranks of all mentioned American and British features , it could be grasped that the Mean Ranks were not equal .It meant that there was a meaningful difference among the Mean Ranks of General American features; besides, there was a meaningful difference among the Mean Ranks of RP features. In addition, there was a meaningful difference between the Mean Ranks of General American and RP phonetic features.

Table 6: General American and RP Features Ranking by Friedman test

Test Statistics American		Test Statistics British	Test Statistics Total
N	60	60	60
Chi-Square	300.217	213.745	1147
Df	15	17	33
Asymp. Sig.	0.001	0.001	0.001

To reveal the meaningful difference between the Mean Ranks of General American and RP specific features, the second interrater applied a Mann-Whitney test and a T-test including General American and RP specific features.

Table 7: General American and RP Features Mean Rank

Ranks				
	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Accent	General AmE	60	84.79	5087.50
	RP	60	36.21	2172.50
	Total	120		

It was evident that the Mean Rank of General American accent equaled 84.79 which was higher than that of RP accent which equaled 36.21. Hence, the students' American accent efficiency seemed better than their British accent capability.

Table 8: Representing the Meaningful Difference Between the Mean Ranks of General American and RP Using Mann-Whitney Test

Test Statistics	
	Accent
Mann-Whitney U	342.500
Wilcoxon W	2172.500
Z	-8.676
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

Concerning the above table, as a=0.05 and Sig., 0.001, was lower than 0.05, it should be stated that the students' American and British accents were not identical, and since that the Mean Rank of General American specific phonetic features was higher than that of RP features, it could be stated that their American English accent efficiency was more satisfactory rather than their British English accent.

Table 9: Descriptive Data for T-test

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Accent.sum	American	60	24.4000	8.26715	1.06728
	British	60	6.4500	8.77096	1.13233

Table 10: Consideration of American and British English Accents Mean Ranks Equality Based on a T-test

					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Lower	Upper
Accent	Equal variances assumed	11.536	118	0.001	14.868	21.031

The above table shows that the variances of American and British English accents are equal, and based on that, the mentioned T-test was implemented. As a=0.05 and Sig. was lower than 0.05, the means of the two accents could not be equal, and, of course, there was a meaningful difference between them. The mean of American accent was higher than that of British one. So the students' American English was better than their British English accent.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS
Whatever was discussed up to now, was the consideration of the students' tendency to one of the two standard English accents. Needless to say that the students' interest to American or British English accent will be determined by checking General American and RP specific phonetic features in each participant's recording .In accordance with General American, it should be considered as a notional accent of American English perceived by Americans to be the most "neutral" and free of regional characteristics and to lack certain non-standard features. RP, conversely, is the standard accent of Standard English in England, with a relationship to regional accents similar to the relationship in other European languages between their standard varieties and their regional forms. Likewise, according to the null hypothesis, no relationship exists between American English accent and British English accent, and regarding H1, ESL students are more talented to utilize the American English accent than the British English one. In order to start the survey, the researcher was expected to let the participants rehearse a common text with no hint by the teacher. To actualize it, sixty freshmen who were in the same level were selected, and through a common proficiency test, it was proved that the students' proficiency levels were almost the same. Then, they were given a common text to recite so that their tendency to one of the two Standard English accents could be realized. According to General American as one of the two Standard English accents, some of its specific sounds features were elicited and the students' recordings were rated based on the articulation of those features. Similarly, the specific sound features related to RP were scored. Based on the frequency, One sample T-test and the Mean

Ranks, it was observed that the students were more capable of articulating American features rather than the British ones. Regarding the above result, it can be concluded that the ESL students are more talented to utilize American English accent than British English accent.

The researcher could realize the ESL students' tendency to one of the two Standard English accents, American English, which was inherited from the students' past experience including their former instructors, course books and other materials. However, there have been some pitfalls in performing the mentioned accent. In other words, the students couldn't implement well-formed American English accent absolutely due to the fact that remained a few unsolved problems such as the articulation of *gonna or laboratory* that should be taken account. Accordingly, the students are recommended to profit by an educational system on the basis of their tendency and current efficiency of applying American English accent, particularly, while dealing with listening and speaking skills. In other words, they are supposed to be provided with an academic atmosphere wherein American English system is dominant. If so, the course books, audio and visual materials will be selected based on their taste, American English, and they benefit from those instructors who are quite efficient in applying American English system appropriately and have a near American English accents while rehearsing different texts as ideal models. Even those teachers who are not capable of articulating a proper American English accent can be trained specifically to prepare for attending the mentioned synapses. No doubt, being exposed to such an ideal situation, students will never intermingle the accents since there is a united educational system which has been designed on the basis of their interest and real ability. Likewise, they will abide by this system automatically in such a way that they can speak like nativelike American speakers.

REFERENCES
Ben Said, S. (2006). *Attitudes towards Accented Speech: A Comparative Study of Native and Non-native Speakers of American English:* A Thesis in the Field of Applied Linguistics. Graduate School, Southern Illinois University Carbondale.
Broukal, M., & Nolan-Woods, E. (1997). NTC's Practice Tests for the TOEFL, Test of English as a Foreign Language: University of Michigan.
Council of Europe . (2012). PTE Academic Score Guide . Pearson Education Ltd. p.21.
Crawford, J. (2008). Language Legislation in the U.S.A. http://www.languagepolicy.net /archives/langleg.htm.
Fay, M. P., & Proschan, M. A. (2010). Wilcoxon–Mann–Whitney or *t*-test? On assumptions for hypothesis tests and multiple interpretations of decision rules. *Statistics Surveys* 4: 1–39.
Fowler, H.W. (1996). Fowler's Modern English Usage . Oxford University Pres.
Hatch, E., & Farhady, H. (1982). *Research Design and Statistics for Applied Linguistics:* Rahnama Publications.
Kurtz, N.R. (1983). *Introduction to Social Statistics:* McGraw-Hill.
Lippi-Green, R. (1997). *English with an Accent: Language, Ideology, and Discrimination in the United States*. New York: Routledge.pp.12, 251-258.
Matsuda, M. J. (1991). Voices of America: Accent, antidiscrimination law, and jurisprudence for the last reconstruction. *Yale Law Journal, 100,* 1329–1407.
Morley, J. (1996). Acquisition, Instruction, Standards, Variation, and Accent. Georgetown University Press. pp 140–160.
Pointon, G. (2010). Olivia O'Leary. *Linguism: Language in a word*. http://www.linguism.co.uk/language/ olivia-oleary.
Roach, P. (2006). *English Pronouncing Dictionary*. Cambridge University Press.

Roca, I., Johnson, W. (1999). *A Course in Phonology*. Blackwell Publishing. pp. 135, 186.

Rogers, H. (2000). *The sounds of language: An introduction to phonetics*. Harlow, Essex: Pearson.

Safer, M. (2006). The Colbert Report: Morley Safer Profiles Comedy Central's 'Fake' Newsman. http://www.cbsnews.com/stories/2006/04/27/60minutes/main1553506.shtml.

Shitara, Y. (1993). A survey of American pronunciation preferences . *Speech Hearing and Language, 7*,201–32.

The   Queen's   speech   to   President   Sarkozy.(2008). http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0HnePKE9AAE   "often" pronounced at 4:44.

Tolkien, J. R. R. (1955). *English and Welsh*, O'Donnell Lecture, cited in Wayne G. Hammond & Christina Scull: *The J.R.R. Tolkien Companion and Guide: Reader's Guide*, London, HarperCollins 2006, p. 249.

Wells, J. C. (1982), *Accents of English I: An Introduction*, Cambridge, New York: Cambridge University Press. pp.76, 167, 196, 228, 245, 253.

Wells, J.C. (1997). "Whatever happened to Received Pronunciation?". II Jornadas de Estudios Ingleses, Universidad de Jaén , Spain. pp. 19-28.

Wells, J. C. (2008), *Longman Pronunciation Dictionary*, Longman.

Wise, C. M. (1957), *Introduction to phonetics*, Englewood Cliffs.

Wright, J. (1905), *English Dialect Grammar*. pp. 5 &12.

THE INVESTIGATION OF FACTORS AFFECTING THE ADOPTION OF ICTS AMONG ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS IN ESL CONTEXT

Behnam Hashemi
Assistant professor, Islamic Azad University,Roudehen Branch
behnamhashimi@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT
As language and technology are two major focuses of reform in education, teachers of English language have to cope with the challenge of technological and pedagogical shifts occurring in the teaching profession. Extracted from his PhD thesis the purpose of the researcher in the present study is to investigate the factors affecting the adoption of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) among English teachers in English as a Second Language (ESL) context by means of a quantitative study. First, using a validated and reliable questionnaire consolidated and inspired by other researches done in the field, the researcher elicited the point of view of 217 English teachers about the mentioned factors. The data collected from the questionnaire was entered into SPSS software for further analysis. One sample t-test, multiple regression and ANOVA were used for analysis and testing of the hypotheses. The results demonstrated that three factors proposed by the researcher were confirmed as active on the adoption of ICTs among teachers. The priority of the factors based on their views was: perceived usefulness, ICT knowledge to use and support language teaching and learning, respectively. Finally, based on the findings of the study and other reviewed guidelines, the researcher proposed some useful suggestions for English teachers and English Language Teaching (ELT) policy makers in the context to implement ICT tools in English classes.

KEYWORDS: Information and Communication Technology, English Teaching, ICT Adoption

INTRODUCTION
English Language Teaching (ELT) is an area that has changed over the years, moving from a very teacher - centered approaches to learner-centered ones (Richards, 1985). This indicates that the teacher should create a situation in the class where the teacher is like a facilitator, not a director. The teacher should act as a resource person in order to meet the expectations of individual learner styles using a variety of methods which suit different personality types, socio-economic backgrounds, proficiency levels, etc. Kaushik and Bajwa (2009) mention that teachers need to make learners link classroom instruction with their home environment. Somewhere else Sindkhedkar (2012) states that the objective of teaching English in India should not be 'producing bookworms' or 'linguistic robots'. Sarwal (2011) states that in India, the greatest challenge in the field of English teaching remains the teaching of language skills. He adds that after studying English for 12-15 years, the students fail to correctly express themselves in both writing and speech. He identified several major problems facing English classes: large classes, an

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

examination system that promotes product-oriented learning, lack of learner-centered teaching, non-use of **multimedia** in English classes, etc. To begin with, what is important is to motivate the students by creating awareness among them regarding the importance of English and then gradually helping the students to achieve their goals. The basic objective should thus be to make the students independent. It has rightly been said, if you give an individual a fish you feed him for a day, but, if you teach him to fish you feed him for life. It is up to the teacher to make the student realize that by gaining competence in English he will hold the master-key to success in the contemporary world. In other words, learning a second language is not looked at as an urgent requirement unless the learners have strong motivating factors (Tilfarlioglu & Öztürk, 2007). In close relationship with this aspect of learner psychology is the development of revolutionary ideas in the English language teaching profession as it moves from traditional methods towards more humanistic methods like CLT and integrative approach to language teaching and blended teaching; in an attempt to illustrate the movement of English teaching, Warschauer (2002) made a table in which the movement is shown very well as it starts from behaviorist Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and moves towards integrative CALL. As is shown in the behaviorist CALL, the mainframe computers were used for drill making, repetition, etc and this can be named as instructional technologies. In, the next era of communicative CALL, they were used to create some offline software and programmes to present the material for the learners communicatively which can be called information technologies. And the last column in the Table belongs to integrative CALL in which the online programmes and software are at the service of learners for interaction so that all skills are integrated which is related to Information and Communication Technologies (ICT). Drills, practices, repetitions and feedback are all among the benefits for mainframe computers whereas tasks and inferential practices are for micro computers; and, finally, social contexts and real materials which are available on the net and computers. ELT as an area has evolved a great deal over the years, moving from teacher-centered approaches to learner-centered ones (Richards, 1985). ELT projects have been introduced throughout different parts of the world (Markee, 1997). Innovations have brought about changes in materials such as the supplementary materials, the self-study materials, the authentic materials, etc and technology devices such as language laboratories, tape recorders, video recorders, computers, etc. More recently, the use of technology as a tool to develop the different language skills has received great attention (Melor, 2011) so that ELT teachers are frequently exposed to new practices. Apart from curricular changes that come officially- usually from the Ministry of Education in various countries- workshops and short training programmes introduce new techniques and activities and promote new materials.

Apart from those mentioned above, the education authorities in India are aware of the development and are active in promoting educational reforms. The government of India has framed certain policies and proposals and as per them the use of ICTs is to be encouraged in elementary and secondary school education. Within these Acts, there are also programmes like SarvaShikshaAbhiyan (SSA), GyanDarshan, GyanVani, EDUSAT and many others which sponsor the inclusion of ICTs in schools by teachers. In fact, since the 1950s, Indian policy documents have identified the need to use different forms of media to promote learning. At the beginning it was Radio broadcasting, gradually progressing towards more technologically developed ICTs like broadband and computers. Meanwhile, the government of India has initiated various ICT- based programmes for promoting primary and secondary education (Vyasulu,

2010). So, a teacher not trained in technology will feel inadequate in terms of practical teaching. This means the role of an English teacher in the government school has significantly changed in the digital era.

As a teacher of English for several years the researcher has observed teachers resisting technologies as well as teachers accepting technologies. For listening lessons, conversation practice, formal speaking sessions and other laboratory related lessons, some of the teachers welcomed technologies while others avoided them. It is realized at times that despite being aware of the fact that by using technologies they can easily visit websites, download authentic material and use it in the class; some of the teachers resist them while some adopt them as an aid during their teaching. Therefore, discussing ICTs with the practicing teachers in the field is very important. Despite the developments in educational technologies, coming across a standardized English classroom equipped with new technologies is a distant dream. Over the years, some distinction is being established between teachers already comfortable with ICTs and those still cultivating interest in them. Prensky (2001) identifies the difference between a digital-native and a digital-immigrant in the words that for the former technologies are completely natural and easy, but for the latter they are very strange and sometimes intolerable. As an example a digital native teacher can easily bookmark a favorite site and even have a kind of backup for the future follow up in a personal computer; but, an immigrant digital has to print out the pages he is interested in. In the field of ELT it is not enough to have an ICT-integrated classroom with facilities and equipment to ensure that the teachers will be prepared to use them. There are some key factors which English teachers need to accept related to the use of technology, namely the ICTs in their classrooms.

Ability, knowledge and attitudes are among those important factors which are emphasized and discussed for the adoption of ICT. As Baylor and Ritchie (2002) state: "regardless of the amount of technology and its sophistication, technology will not be used unless faculty members have the skills, knowledge and attitudes necessary to infuse it into the curriculum" (p.398). Teachers should become effective agents to be able to utilize ICT tools in the classroom, which is possible via positive teacher attitude thereby **adopters** feel more comfortable with using them and usually integrate them into their teaching (Bullock, 2004). Positive attitudes often stimulate teachers with less technology knowledge to learn the required skills for employing ICT-based tasks in the classroom setting. Otherwise, a lack of technology knowledge and skills may give rise to anxiety and lack of confidence; consequently, teachers may feel uncomfortable with technology (Finley and Hartman 2004, Groves and Zemel 2000). In brief, for teachers to take initiative in curricular change and to effectively apply technology for meaningful instruction, teachers' attitudes are one of the most significant internal **factors** described by researchers (Ertmer 1999).

REVIEW OF LITRATURE
The theoretical framework of the present study to some extent is based on the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM). TAM (see Figure 1) was specifically designed to explain individual technology acceptance and use across a wide range of organizational contexts, computer technologies, and user populations (Davis, 1989). TAM postulates that two particular beliefs, perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use, are of primary relevance for computer acceptance behaviors. Also more recently, Legris, Ingham and Collerette (2003) pointed to the fact that though TAM has been a useful model to examine ICT usage, it needs to include other variables as well.
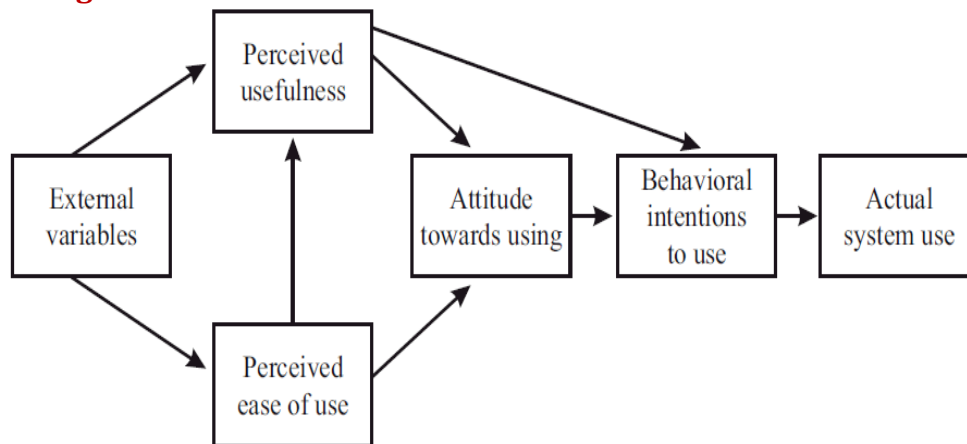
Figure1: Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) by Davis et al. (1989)

Before a new idea or technology can be used, it must first be adopted, but when a new product, technique or technology becomes available in education this does not mean that educators, trainers or students will automatically flock to adopt and use it. Even if its developer can show through a wealth of evidence that this innovation will greatly improve the learning process, there is still no guarantee that it will be used, as many curriculum designers and educational technologists have discovered. To investigate the issues concerned with adoption of new technology or ideas it is useful to think of these as innovations and then to consider them through the lens of innovation theory.

Rogers (1995) believes that people's attitudes toward a new technology are a key element in its diffusion. His *Innovation Decision Process theory* states that an innovation's diffusion is a process that occurs over time through five stages: Knowledge, Persuasion, Decision, Implementation and Confirmation. Accordingly, the innovation-decision process is the process through which an individual (or other decision-making authorities) passes (1) from the knowledge of an innovation, (2) through forming an attitude toward it, (3) through a decision to adopt or reject it, (4) to the implementation of the new idea, and finally (5) to the confirmation of that decision (Rogers, 1995, p. 161). Personal characteristics such as educational level, age, gender, educational experience, experience with the computer for educational purpose and attitude towards computers can influence the adoption of a technology, observes Schiller (2003). To successfully initiate and implement educational technology in a school's programme depends strongly on the teachers' support and attitudes. It is believed that if teachers perceived technology programmes as neither fulfilling their needs nor their students' needs, it is likely that they will not integrate the technology into their teaching and learning. According to Berner (2003), Na (1993) and Summers (1990) as cited in Bordbar (2010), teachers' computer competence is a major predictor of integrating ICT in teaching. Evidence suggests that a majority of teachers who reported negative or neutral attitude towards the integration of ICT into teaching and learning processes lacked knowledge and skills that would allow them to make "informed decision". If there is no technical support for teachers, they become frustrated resulting in their unwillingness to use ICT (Tong & Trinidad, 2005).

61

It is believed that if teachers perceived technology programmes as neither fulfilling their own needs nor their students' needs, it is likely that they will not integrate the technology into teaching and learning. Evidence suggests that teachers' attitudes and beliefs influence successful integration of ICT into teaching (Hew & Brush, 2007; Keengwe & Onchwari, 2008). If teachers' attitudes are positive toward the use of educational technology, then they can easily provide useful insight about the adoption and integration of ICT into teaching and learning processes.

Woodrow (1987) points out that integrating technologies in to the educational curriculum has the potential to change the process of education drastically. He also suggests that any successful change in educational practice necessitates the development of positive user attitudes towards the new technologies: integrator, who manipulates the ILS sequence so that it better matches the classroom instruction. In his model Woodrow sees the actual use of the technology depends on several things: attitude towards use, ease of use and usefulness. Teachers' development of ICT literacy has been first revealed by educators and experts, such as Davis et al, (1989) emphasized by government initiatives involving increasing investments in ICT facilities and professional training projects. ICT literacy is "using digital technology, communication tools, and/or networks to access, manage, integrate, evaluate and create in order to function in a knowledge society'' (ETS, 2002). Most ICT training projects accent teachers' development in technical capabilities in isolation and fail to link teachers' technical capabilities to integrate ICT as a pedagogical tool across curriculum. Fewer training projects aim at developing their cognitive ICT-related capabilities of problem solving and information processing. Constructivism believes that ICT literacy is built and developed when the use of concrete representations of ICT knowledge is made and best performance can be induced in a supportive environment. In order to balance teachers' confidence with ICT as a technological and that with ICT as a pedagogical tool for quality teaching and learning, teachers shall be placed in an ICT-demanding environment. When teachers as competent and confident ICT users and teachers as less competent and confident ICT users work out pedagogical content and method using ICT, they all can construct their individual ICT literacy upon their prior knowledge and knowledge structure and their everyday experience. In integration of ICT and English courses, teachers' professional and personal experience of use of ICT and knowledge of English content are two most important factors toward the construction of their pedagogical beliefs. These beliefs, in turn, will justify their decisions on the role of ICT in English teaching and learning and finally lead to changes of their instructional practices. Teachers as less competent and confident ICT users are expected to improve their professional performance upon ICT-integrated problem-solving tasks and pedagogical reasoning on such tasks. Once their Knowledge of content Topics and ICT-related cognitive and technical capabilities increase, they need to blend their experience with the capabilities and apply appropriate ICT to their pedagogical approaches and hence are more likely to contribute constructively and efficiently to English Teaching.

Dudeney and Hockly (2007) mentioned the term "technophobe" (p.8) referring to teachers who have hesitations towards utilizing new technologies. In their view, "a large part of the negative attitudes teachers have towards technologies is usually the result of a lack of confidence, a lack of facilities or a lack of training, resulting in an inability to see the benefit of using technologies in the classroom" (p.9). As stated by Garett (1991), "conservative teachers fear that the technologies will weaken or interfere with their control of the class are willing to consider only those technologies-based materials which perform electronically the most traditional teaching tasks" (p.92). On the other hand, skillful, knowledgeable, confident and enthusiastic teachers may face some external restrictions concerning technologies integration such as lack of technical support,

curriculum restrictions or lack of the suitable technological means in their schools (Usluel, Mumcu, & Demiraslan, 2007).

A study carried out with 150 English teachers on their attitudes to educational technologies showed that in spite of teachers 'awareness of the importance of using educational technologies, they are not willing to use it in their classes (Gömleksiz, 2004). A recent study in Cyprus with 100 science teachers indicated that only a small number of teachers have integrated educational technologies resources in their lessons (Isman,Yaratan & Caner, 2007).

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Reviewing all these factors and considering the factors which are important for the field of ELT in the world and namely in this city, the researcher chose the aforementioned factors for the investigation of the study. But, in this case he included the items related to the field of English teaching because the ICTs used for ELT are different from those used in other fields like Math and Science. Moreover, the studies conducted up to now are in other fields of education like math and science which are far from the purpose of this study.

Finally, unlike the previous studies which have relied only on the data qualitatively extracted from the participants and have focused only on frequency counts and descriptions, the present study goes for a deeper analysis of the main causes by doing a thorough study through a hypothesis testing research. Based on the above problem to be investigated by the researcher the main objectives for the entire work were determined.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Regarding the above mentioned problems and the main objectives determined by the researcher, the following research questions arise:

1. Is 'perceived usefulness' one of the factors affecting ICT adoption among English language teachers?
2. Is 'supporting the teachers to use ICT' in English classes a factor affecting ICT adoption among English teachers?
3. Is 'ability to use ICT' one of the factors affecting ICT adoption among English language teachers?
4. What are the proportions for each of the factors affecting ICT adoption to determine English teachers attitude towards ICT?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The population of the present study comprises English language teachers in ESL context who are teaching English at the Secondary and Senior Secondary schools in Chandigarh city in 2011 and 2012 academic calendar. In order to choose an appropriate sample from among the population, the researcher used Morgan sampling table and chose 217 English teachers in his study. To

choose an appropriate sample from the population the researcher decided to use cluster sampling. For this, the researcher initially divided Chandigarh city into five different geographical locations: north, south, west, east and central city. Finally, he distributed the questionnaires among the English teachers in these areas.

Instrument

Using previous literature and data,a 35 item, 5-point Likert-scale ranging from completely agree to completely disagree questionnaire was constructed and validated by the researcher. The scale asked the teachers to describe their attitudes towards the factors affecting the adoption and use of ICTs in ELT. During preparation of the Questionnaire, the researcher used Dornyei (2007) as a resourceful guideline.

Procedure of the study

The researcher went through the following steps to determine the results of the study:

Firstly, thanks to the experience the researcher had about the concerns in ELT, he made a non-participant observation of those secondary and senior secondary schools which were the focus of the study in order to eliminate the availability factor from the next part of the study.

Secondly, in order to prepare the second step i.e. the questionnaire, the researcher planned a valid and reliable questionnaire. Using the data elicited from the teachers and the administrative wings, the researcher combined this information with the previously done studies on the factors affecting ICT adoption in ELT and education. Next, the outcome was given to a panel of experts for confirming the validity of the instrument. The questionnaire was given to a small pilot sample in order to remove or modify some weak items to make it reliable. To calculate Cronbach's alpha for the whole questionnaire, the reliability icon in SPSS software was used. All the items in the questionnaire were entered into the software and 0.872 was the output for Cronbach's alpha which shows the questionnaire is highly reliable.

Thirdly, male and female teachers were chosen randomly to respond to the prepared questionnaire. There was no treatment during the research and by conducting a survey the researcher just finds out the relations and differences between the variables; then, describes the findings according to the reality elicited from the respondents.

Fourthly, the researcher entered the obtained data into SPSS software in order to analyze them and come to a logical end. During the manipulation of the data, some special methods and procedures were used.

Finally, based on information drawn from the respondents and other similar studies done, the researcher suggests some solutions and guidelines to overcome the problem.

DATA ANALYSIS

To analyze the first hypothesis one sample t-test was run according to the following table.

Table 1: One-Sample t-test for the first question

	Test Value = 45					
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
preceved.usefulness	38.082	216	.000	15.75115	14.9359	16.5664

As can be noted from table number 1, the level of significance (α =0/000) for the test and for it is less than 0.05 (p<0.05); hence, we can conclude that the test is meaningful.

So, it means that there is a significance difference between the means for perceived usefulness of ICT in English teaching among English teachers of Chandigarh city and the population means (45); hence, it can be concluded that the responses ticked by the teachers for perceived usefulness of ICT in English language teaching are different among them statistically.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for the first question

	N	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Perceivedusefulness	217	60.7512	.41361	6.09286
Valid N (listwise)	217			

As reported in the tablenumber 2 and obtained mean (60.751), and for it is bigger than the population mean (45), it can be stated that from the point of view of English teachers in Chandigarh, Perceived usefulness for the ICT adoption is one of the factors affecting the ICT adoption and use in English language teaching. So, the first hypothesis for the research is confirmed and the null hypothesis is rejected.

Supporting and motivating the teachers to adopt and use ICT in English classes is a factor affecting ICT adoption among English teachers.To test the second hypothesis, one sample t-test was used and brought in the following table.

Table 3: One-Sample t-test for the second question

	Test Value = 45					
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
support	31.376	216	.000	11.225	10.520	11.931

Based on the table number 3 in which the significance level of the test (α =0/000) is less than 0.05, we can conclude that the test is meaningful so that we can conclude that there is a

significant difference between the mean of their attitude towards the effect of supporting English teachers to use ICT in English teaching among them in Chandigarh city and the population mean; hence, it can be stated that the responses toward the effect of supporting English teachers to use ICT in English teaching are statistically different.

Table 4: One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
support	217	35.2258	5.27043	.35778

As shown in table number 4 and the obtained mean (35.225) and for it is bigger than the mean for the population (24), it can be stated that from the point of view of English teachers in Chandigarh city, supporting the teachers to use ICT in their English classes is a factor affecting ICT adoption in English classes. So, the research second hypothesis is confirmed and the null hypothesis is rejected.

Ability to use ICT is one of the affective factors for ICT adoption among English language teachers. To analyze the third hypothesis one sample t-test was run according to the following table.

Table 5: One-Sample Test for Ability

	Test Value = 45					
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
Ability	15.242	216	.000	14.322	13.634	15.010

As the data indicated in table number 5 in which the significance level of the test (α =0.000) is less than 0.05, we can conclude that the test is meaningful so that we can conclude that there is a significant difference between the mean of their attitude towards the effect of English teachers' ability to use ICT in English teaching among them in Chandigarh city and the population mean; hence, it can be stated that the responses toward the effect of English teachers' ability to use ICT in English teaching are statistically different.

Table 6: One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Ability	217	50.3226	5.14396	.34919

Based on the table number 6 and the obtained mean (50.322) and for it is bigger than the mean for the population (36), it can be stated that from the point of view of English teachers in Chandigarh city, English teachers' ability to use ICT in their English classes is a factor affecting ICT adoption in English classes. So, the research third hypothesis is confirmed and the null hypothesis is rejected.

The proportion for each of the considered factors to determine their attitude towards ICT adoption in English teaching is different. To test the above hypothesis, a multiple regression can be use based on the following table.

Table 7: One-way ANOVA

Model	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Regression	8333.912	3	2777.971	73.910	0.000
Residual	8074.650	213	37.909		
Total	16408.562	216			

Based on the data obtained in table number 7 and the level of significance (p<0.000) which is less than 0.05 (p<0.05) it can be concluded that from the point of view of English teachers in Chandigarh city, statistically, there is a significant relationship between the considered factors and their effect to determine their attitude and the proportion for each of the factors can be different; So, running the regression to analyze them is possible.

Table 8: The coefficients related to the fourth derivational hypothesis

	Unstandardized Coefficients		standardized Coefficients	t	Sug
	B	Std,Error	Beta		
(Constant)	0.949	0.452		2.101	0.037
Perceived usefulness	1.036	0.009	0.474	121.384	0.000
Support	0.827	0.010	0.327	82.913	0.000
Ability	0.988	0.010	0.381	95.818	0.000

Based on the data presented in the table number 8 and the degree of beta coefficient entered to the regression, it can be observed that the proportion of each factor to determine the attitude towards the use of ICT in English language teaching is: perceived usefulness of ICT in English language teaching (0.474), supporting and motivating the teachers to use ICT in English classes (0.327) and the ability of the teachers to use ICT in their English classes (0.381).

In other way, for the level of significance in the test is less than 0.05 (p< 0.05), we can say that the above relationships are significant. Because the degree of the relationships is positive, it can be stated as much as the teachers' attitude in perceived usefulness of ICT in English teaching, supporting and motivating the teachers to use ICT, and the ability to use ICT in English teaching increase, their attitude toward using it also increases.

So, the hypothesis of the study was confirmed and the null hypothesis was rejected. Also, for the beta coefficient in perceived usefulness of ICT in English teaching is bigger than other factors, we can state that this factor has the highest proportion to determine the teachers' attitude towards the adoption of ICT in English teaching in Chandigarh city; and, supporting the teachers to use ICT in their classes which has the lowest beta coefficient comparing to other factors has the

IJLLALW

lowest proportion among the factors to determine the English teachers attitude towards using ICT in their classrooms.

CONCLUSION

The rise of technologies has complicated its adoption and integration by teachers in classroom. The effective integration of technology into classroom practices poses a challenge to teachers than connecting computers to a network. For successful integration of ICT into teaching, the review highlights factors that positively or negatively influence teachers' use of ICT. These are personal, institutional and technological factors. Research has revealed that these factors are related to each other. On a personal level, there are numerous factors that influence teachers' use of ICT. Teachers' feelings, knowledge and attitudes influence their use of ICT in teaching. Research has shown that teachers' attitudes towards technology influence their acceptance of the usefulness of technology and its integration into teaching. If teachers' attitudes are positive toward the use of educational technology then they can easily provide useful insight about the adoption and integration of ICT into teaching and learning processes. At the school level, factors such as support, funding, training and facilities influence teachers' adoption and integration of technologies into their classrooms. Teachers' professional development is a key factor to successful integration of computers into classroom teaching. ICT-related training programmes develop teachers' competences in computer use, influencing teachers' attitudes towards computers and assisting teachers to reorganize the task of technology and explaining them how new technology tools are significant in student learning . On the technological level, for successful adoption and integration of ICT into teaching, teachers must perceive technology as better than previous practice; consistent with their existing values, past experiences and needs; ease to use, can be experimented with a limited basis before making a decision to adopt. Finally, the results of the innovation become visible to the others. Many teachers are hesitant to change an existing programme to something they only know through discussion and reading and not through observation. These three characteristics or attributes of teachers' adoption and integration of ICT into teaching provides information of factors supporting their use of technology as well as barriers to ICT integration. The key factor in the studies is teachers' attitudes toward technology or intentions to use technology in their classrooms. If teachers have negative attitudes toward technology, providing them with excellent ICT facilities does not guarantee ICT adoption.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS FOR INDIAN CONTEXT

In the light of its findings, this study has several useful implications and suggestions and future research. However, the remarks thereof are not meant to be viewed as conclusions rather suggestions which are based on the researcher's understanding and the conclusions of the investigation.

Due to the government-driven ICT policy, most Indian secondary and senior secondary schools have computers with Internet access in each classroom, as well as multimedia labs that are equipped with computers, LCD projectors, and other technology for education. Despite this well-developed technology infrastructure, however, teachers are lacking guidelines on how they can make the best use of the present technology for their class use. Through the literature review, I attempted to learn more strategies on how technology can be wisely used to enhance student language learning that is more interactive and at a higher level of thinking based on diverse cases of technology-integrated classrooms.

Examining the uses of technology in the ESL/EFL classroom through a literature review, I had assumed that more research on the effective uses of technology in the classroom could be conducted to guide EL teachers to improve their teaching. Based on what I realized during the literature review, I would like to suggest the following for future practices in the Indian EL classroom.

First, technology integration should always go with a firm theoretical base that carefully considers the effectiveness of language teaching and learning. Reviewing the cases of other countries, I noticed that the technology uses in the EFL classes had gradually changed with the paradigm shift from the behaviourists' to the constructivist's way of looking at pedagogy. That is, technology has been the medium supporting the educational shift; first, an educational paradigm shift, followed by technology application. Therefore, from most of the studies, I saw the theories consistently reflected on the overall application the technology uses. On the contrary, in Indian government initiative, technology advancements have led educational innovation before theoretical discussions become mature. Accordingly, there are some teachers in the field who cannot keep up with the new teaching and learning theories. Projecting the copy of the textbook through the latest project cannot be called an educational innovation. The Indian government should invest as much money they have invested on technology innovation on teacher re-training programmes.

Second, the number of teacher-researchers should be increased to improve teaching and learning in real EL classes. I recommend that more teachers be given opportunities to be trained through systematic programmes cultivating their skills in ICT use. Schools are the very places where educational reform starts, and the teachers should be the first in line of the new movement by researching how students in the real field can best learn with technology. This will facilitate balanced matches between theories and practice to bring realistic innovations into EFL classrooms.

Third, technology use in the classroom should encourage students to develop higher levels of thinking skills. EL classes focusing only on the college entrance examination cannot provide students with enough opportunities to practice authentic language uses. EL classrooms should be the places where students can enjoy thinking and creating their own interactions based on meaningful contexts, not the places where students cram fragmented knowledge through rote memorization.

The teacher has an important role to play in the teaching/learning paradigm shift, with ICT facilitating the development of a higher level of cognitive skills in evaluating arguments, analyzing problems and applying what is learnt.

Although teachers play an important role in the learning environment, they are often not consulted regarding changes to teaching learning procedures (Bangkok, 2004). In fact, the teachers' needs under changing conditions have to be continuously assessed and activities to satisfy these have to be developed. So, professional development is necessary for teachers to enable them to effectively use technology to improve student learning. Staff development should

IJLLALW

be collaboratively created, based on faculty input and school needs. It must prepare teachers to use technology effectively in their teaching.

According to Fullan (1992), teachers who have a strong engagement towards their own professional development are more motivated to undertake activities, which lead to a better understanding of the goals of an innovation. Similarly, Fullan pointed out that teachers who are actively involved in their own professional development are more able to implement changes in their teaching.

Hence, having a recognition system for innovative and effective use of ICT integration in schools will motivate teachers to use ICT in teaching. For example, formal certification of in-service professional development that leads to diplomas or degrees could provide an incentive for teachers to upgrade and update their skills in and knowledge of ICT integration.

Another study done by Ahluwalia and Gupta (2011) shows that English teachers are not ready to adopt ICTs in Panjab, India. English teachers need to not only possess such basic ICT skills as word processor, PowerPoint, video editor and access to the Internet, but also develop pedagogical knowledge to efficiently integrate ICT into English curriculum. The integration of ICT will lead to diversification not only in English content, contexts and pedagogical methods, but also in teaching environment. ICT will extend the boundary of English teaching and characterize it as interactive, flexible and innovative.

School heads and committees should focus on special cooperative sessions for ICT use to be held on a regular basis during English teachers' free time and encourage the teachers to resolve their problems and issues facing in the class regarding ICTs.
At least, one knowledgeable and active ICT expert should be present all the time when teachers are using the technologies in order to assist them. It is much more effective when the expert provides the teachers with some predetermined useful websites for English teaching recommended by any valid source.

Some websites for downloading audio and video files:
• www.youtube.com • http://teachertube.com • www.engvid.com
• www.bbclearningenglish.co • www.britishcouncil.org/kids.htm •
www.britishcouncil.org/central.htm • www.bestofgooglevideos.com

Besides, enough time allotted to use of ICTs in the school calendar for English teachers will motivate them to use ICTs enthusiastically

REFERENCES
Baylor, A. L., & Ritchie, D. (2002). What factors facilitate teacher skill, teacher morale, and perceived student learning in technology-using classrooms? *Computers and Education* 39.4, 395–414.
Bordbar, F. (2010). English teachers' attitudes toward computer-assisted language learning.*International Journal of Language Studies*, 4 (3), 27-54.
Bullock, D. (2004). Moving from theory to practice: An examination of the factors that preservice teachers encounter as they attempt to gain experience teaching with technology during field placement experiences. *Journal of Technology and Teacher.*

Davis, F. D., Bagozzi, R. P., & Warshaw, P. R. (1989). *User Acceptance of ComputerTechnology: a Comparison of Two Theoretical Models.Chicago: Management Science.*

Dornyei, Z. (2007). *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dudeney, G., & Hakley, N. (2007). *How to Teach English with Technologies.* England: Pearson Education Limited. Education, 12**,** 211–237.

Ertmer, P.E.A. (1999). Examining teachers' beliefs about the role of technology in the elementary classroom. *Journal of Research on Computing in Education, 32,* 54–72.

Finley, L., & Hartman, D. (2004). Institutional change and resistance: Teacher preparatory faculty and technology integration. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education, 12 (3),* 319–337.

Fullan, M. (1992).*Successful School Improvement: The Implementation Perspective and Beyond.* Open University Press, Philadelphia, USA.

Garrett, N. (1991). Technologies in the Service of Language Learning: Trends and Issues. *The Modern Language Journal*, *74*-101.

Groves, M., & Zemel, P. (2000). Instructional technology adoption in higher education: An action research case study, *International Journal of Instructional Media, 27(1),* 57–65.

Gupta, D. (2011). Communicative Language Teaching:An Indian Teacher Resolves a Mehodology Dilemma. In M. Vyas, & Y. Patel, *Teaching English as a Second Language* (pp. 57- 68). New Delhi: PHI Learning Private.

Hew, K. F., & Brush, T. (2007). Integrating technology into K-12 teaching and learning: current knowledge gaps and recommendations for future research. *Educational Technology Research & Development, 55,* 223-253.

Isman, A. (2007). How technologies is integrated into science education in a developing country. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technologies*.

Kaushik, S., & Bajwa, B. (2009).*A Handbook of Teaching English. New Delhi.* New Delhi: Orient BlackSwan.

Keengwe, J., & Onchwari, G. (2008). Computer technology integration and student learning: Barriers and promise, *Journal of Science Education and Technology*, *17,* 560–565.

Legris, P., Ingham, I., & Collerette, P. (2003) Why do people use information technology? A critical review of the technology acceptance model, *Information Management, 40 (3),*191-204.

Markee, N. (1997). *Managing curricular innovation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

MelorMdYunus, Salehi, H., & Kashefian-Naeeini, S (2011). The impact of high-stakes tests on the teachers: A case of the Entrance Exam of the Universities (EEU) in Iran. *Proceedings of the International Conference onHumanities, Society and Culture (ICHSC 2011), pp.221-22.*

Naidoo, V. (2003). *ICTs in African Schools.* Paper presented at A Pan-African workshop focussing on using ICT to support the education systems in Africa.

Prensky. (2001). *Digital Natives, Digital Immigrants*. Retrieved from www.marcprensky.com/.../prensky%2%20digital%20natives,.

Richards, J. C. (1985). The context of language teaching (Vol. XI). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Roblyer, M. D., and Edwards, J. (2000). *Integrating educational technology into teaching (2nd ed.).* Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Rogers, E. M. (1995). *Diffusion of innovations* (4th ed.). New York: The Free Press.

Sarwal, A. (2011, April). Teaching Writing Skill through a Learner-Centered Approach at the Tertiary Level. *FELT, Focus on ELT (Journal of English Language Teaching), 29* (2).

Schiler, J. (2003). Working with ICT: Perceptions of Australian principals, Journal of Educational Administration, vol. 41, no. 3, pp. 171-185.

Sindkhedkar, S. D. (2012). Objecives of Teaching and Learning English in India.*Journal of Arts, Science and Commerce*, 191-192.

Tilfarlioglu, F., & Öztürk, A. (2007). An Analysis of ELT Teachers' Perceptions of Some Problems Concerning the implementation of language curricula. *Journal of vLanguage and Linguistic, 3 (1).*

Tong, K.P., and Triniada, S.G. (2005).Conditions and constraints of sustainable innovative pedagogical practices using technology.*Journal of International Electronic for leadership in learning,* vol. 9, no.3, pp. 1-27.

Usluel, Y. K. (2007). ICT in the teaching-learning process: Teachers' views on the integration and obstacles. *HacettepeÜniversitesiEğitimFakültesiDergis, 3*, 164-178.

Vyasulu. (2010). *Retrieved strategies and programs.* Retrieved july 2011, from National policies: www.indg.in/primary-education/.../ICT%20use%20in%20Education.pdf

Warschauer, M., & Whittaker, P. F. (2002). The Internet for English teaching: Guidelines for teachers. In J. C. Richards & W. A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice* (pp. 368-373). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Woodrow, J. E. (1987). Educators' attitudes and predispositions towards computers. *Journal of Computers in Mathematics and Science Teaching*, 27-37.

The Author:

Behnam Hashemi is an Assistant professor in Islamic Azad University and published several papers in international level. Meanwhile, he has taken part and presented in many international conferences and workshops. In case the proof is required all the documents will be sent.

L2 VOCABULARY LEARNING THROUGH COLLABORATIVE TECHNIQUES

Abbas Ali Zarei
Assistant Professor, Imam Khomeini International University, Qazvin, Iran

Maryam Sahami Gilani
M.A., Islamic Azad University, Takestan, Iran

ABSTRACT
The present study examined the effects of selected collaborative techniques on second language (L2) vocabulary comprehension and production. The participants of the study were 86 adult pre-intermediate level English learners in institutes in Qazvin. They were in five groups and each group received instruction through one of the following collaborative techniques for 21 sessions. The collaborative techniques included Jigsaw, Rotating Circles, Snowball, Think-Pair-Square, and Word Webbing. Two separate one-way ANOVA procedures were used to analyze data. The results showed that word webbing was the most effective technique on both vocabulary comprehension and production. The findings of the present study may have theoretical as well as practical implications.

KEY WORDS: collaborative learning, vocabulary learning, jigsaw, rotating circles, snowball, think-pair-square, and word webbing.

INTRODUCTION
Mankind is social and likes to learn in a social context; thus, collaborative learning is a proper response to this tendency in human nature. Dillenbourg (1999) defines collaborative learning as "a situation in which two or more people learn or attempt to learn something together and solve a problem" or "mutual engagement of participants in a coordinated effort to solve a problem together" (p. 6).

Collaborative learning has many advantages. It increases self-esteem and motivation among students, improves complex and cognitive thinking, creates positive feelings among students and about school, and makes responsible students. Most teachers have the same point of view. They believe that students learn better in collaborative groups than in traditional classroom settings (Jacobs, Power, & Loh, 2002).

However, some teachers believe collaborative method is problematic for several reasons. They do not like missing their traditional role in the classroom. Others insist that collaborative learning is not suitable for students. They believe that students learn at different speeds, some of them take

IJLLALW

over the group. This study investigates the role of collaborative leaning techniques on reading comprehension to see which techniques are effective on reading comprehension.

Another side of this study is vocabulary learning through collaborative techniques. Collaborative activities facilitate vocabulary learning. Many language teachers are aware of the significant role of collaborative interaction in vocabulary learning. They present more than one technique and strategy in the classroom. What is less obvious is which of the collaborative techniques is more conducive to vocabulary comprehension and production. The present study addresses this issue.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Vygotsky (1986) places great emphasis on the value of social interaction. Vygotsky (1978) notes that human is social in nature; so his cognitive skills develop in a group setting. He argues that "learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in cooperation with his peers" (p. 90).

Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (1991) add that students work together in small groups to maximize their own and others' learning. Students work in a group where each member has a different level of knowledge and skill. Students would be able to convey their knowledge to the other members of the group if their work was based on a specific learning purpose.

To Barkley, Cross and Major (2005), "collaborative learning has come to mean students working in pairs or small groups to achieve shared learning goals" (p. 4). Three features of collaborative learning are intentional design, co-laboring, and meaningful learning. In intentional design, teachers divide students into different groups and may use pre-structured activities or design a new structure of their own. Co-Laboring is a Latin meaning of collaboration, it means that all students in the group must engage in an activity as a team. The last feature is meaningful learning in which all students work together on a collaborative assignment, so they increase their knowledge and information during collaborative activities. These three features are important and vital to collaborative meaning (Barkley, Cross, & Major, 2005).

Collaborative learning is rooted in Piaget's theory, Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) Theory, Communicative Language Teaching, and Input Hypothesis. Apple (2006) defines ZPD as the limit to which someone can learn something with others' help. Hiep (2007) recommends the use of cooperative learning activities in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). CLT activities are based on pair or group work. He points out that CLT is a learner-centered approach, so it is collaborative learning in nature and wants students to learn together in pairs or in groups.

There are various advantages to collaborative and cooperative learning. They have different effects on the learning process of which most are beneficial. According to ZPD Theory, group work increases social skills. Older children help younger ones and practice how to learn as a team. Vygotsky (1978) believes that children learn together and increase their individual skills in group activities.

Gokhale (1995) adds that interest and critical thinking rise among collaborative groups. Students can become critical thinkers. Students become able to share their knowledge and be responsible for their own learning. Pair and small group activities give more time to students for speaking in the target language. In addition, learners feel more comfortable and less anxious when they interact with peers in the group. Their self-confidence increases through group activities

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

(McDonough, 2004). Wills (2007) refers to some of the psychosocial advantages of cooperative learning. He holds that group working reduces the fear of failure among students. Students can access the stored information much easier and quicker during a cooperative learning situation. DelliCarpini (2009) adds that "cooperative learning creates multiple opportunities for comprehensible input and output" (p. 44).

Despite the advantages of collaborative learning, there are also arguments against collaborative learning. According to Tinzmann, Jones, Fennimore, Bakker, Fine, and Pierce (1990), teachers do not like collaborative learning because they know that a collaborative classroom is nosier than a traditional classroom and they do not want noisy classrooms. Another reason is the preparation time for collaborative learning. Some teachers do not know how to use time appropriately in a collaborative classroom, so they think collaborative learning wastes the time of the class. The third reason is individual differences among students. Some teachers believe students with individual differences cannot be grouped together. They argue that teachers think some students may not accept responsibility in a group.

Tinzmann, et al. (1990) mention several roles for teachers in a collaborative classroom. The first role is as a facilitator. Teachers help students connect new information to their prior knowledge. Teachers can facilitate collaborative learning by designing different tasks. The second role for the teacher is modeling. Modeling may involve thinking aloud and demonstrating. The last role is coaching. Teachers help students to provide a strategy and use it in the learning process. The teacher is a supporter, an observer, a change agent, and an advisor in a cooperative classroom (Wang, 2007). Students also play different roles in collaborative learning such as facilitator, time keeper, checker, encourager, recorder, summarizer, elaborator, and observer in their own groups (Farrell & Jacobs, 2010).

It is believed that there are more than 100 techniques used in collaborative learning. Each of these techniques has different effects and is useful for students and teachers in diverse situations. Using these techniques depends on the task and group size. Teachers should know the goals of the teaching and learning, then select suitable cooperative techniques in their classrooms (Keyser, 2000).

A number of studies have investigated various aspects of collaborative learning and techniques. Pamela (1994) investigated cooperative learning in multicultural university classrooms. The results showed the cooperative learning strategies have positive effects on the learning process, especially in multicultural classrooms. Moreover, the cooperative response technique was more powerful than the other cooperative techniques.

Critical thinking is one of the most important factors in collaborative learning. Gokhale (1995) investigated this factor. He compared individual and collaborative learning, but he also implemented critical thinking in both of these groups. The findings showed that students worked corporately better than individually, and that students in the collaborative group answered critical thinking questions better than the ones in the individual group.

IJLLALW

Researchers have investigated different factors which influence a collaborative interaction, like age, gender, high or low ability, motivation, etc. Webb (1991) studied the role of gender in collaborative interaction. The results showed that boys like to receive request for help, but there were no differences in girls' and boys' abilities.

Adeymi (2008) investigated cooperative learning and problem solving strategies with juniors in secondary school. This study investigated three teaching strategies (cooperative learning, problem solving and conventional). The results showed that students like cooperative learning and problem solving strategies more than the conventional strategies.

Kim and McDonough (2011) implemented collaborative learning to different kinds of tasks. They studied the role of pre-task modeling on collaborative learning interaction. They divided students into two groups. One group received videotaped models of collaborative interaction before carrying out the task. The other group did not use pre-task modeling. The findings showed that the first group was more successful in completing the tasks and demonstrated more collaborative pair dynamics modeling.

Wang (2011) studied collaborative learning as a new method for improving college students' autonomy in China. He had two groups of students. The first group included 64 students who worked corporately, whereas the second group included 62 students who were taught in a traditional way. The findings showed that collaborative learning increased autonomy, and students learned better than the traditional way.

There are also a number of studies on vocabulary learning via collaborative interaction. One of these studies is Huong (2006) in Vietnam. Huong (2006) investigated learning vocabulary in collaborative groups at a university. The results showed that learning vocabulary was affected by group work.

Newton (2001) investigated vocabulary learning through communication tasks. One of the options was cooperative learning in pre-task. Students looked for meaning of the words in dictionary corporately. The finding showed that cooperative learning helped to improve vocabulary learning process in pre-task.

This short historical perspective on collaborative learning shows that there are some gaps in research on collaborative learning techniques. Researchers have studied different collaborative techniques in their research, but they have not focused on which technique is more effective in vocabulary learning or reading comprehension. The present study is an attempt to partially fill this gap.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
The present research intends to answer the following research questions:
1. Are there any significant differences among the selected collaborative learning techniques (Jigsaw, Rotating Circles, Snowball, Think-Pair-Square, and Word Webbing) on L2 vocabulary comprehension?
2. Are there any significant differences among the selected collaborative learning techniques (Jigsaw, Rotating Circles, Snowball, Think-Pair-Square, and Word Webbing) on L2 vocabulary production?

METHODOLOGY

Participants
The participants were 86 male and female EFL learners, at language institutes in Qazvin, ranging in age from 17 to 21 years old. The learners' level of proficiency was pre-intermediate to intermediate. Participants were studying in five classes. Each group was randomly assigned to a different treatment condition. These treatments were different kinds of collaborative techniques for reading comprehension and vocabulary.

Instruments
The following materials and instruments were used in the present study:

The participants were administered a KET (Key English Test) test before the treatment. The test contained 41 multiple-choice items. To minimize the effect of their prior vocabulary knowledge, a vocabulary pretest containing 150 items was administered before the treatment. These lexical items were contextualized in 150 English sentences. Learners were required to write the meaning of the underlined words in Persian. The time allocated to this pretest was 50 minutes. Those words the meaning of which the participants did not know were selected for inclusion in the posttests.

The instructional materials included five units of Top Notch (2 a). The book is used for pre-intermediate learners at language institutes. A total number of 150 vocabulary items and 5 reading texts were presented in 18 sessions, spanning one semester.

At the end of the experimental period, all participants were given two posttests; a 30-item vocabulary test in multiple-choice format was used to measure the participants' receptive lexical knowledge. Another 30-item vocabulary test in fill-in-the-blanks format was utilized to measure the participants' production knowledge.

Procedures
Initially, the participants were selected based on criteria such as proficiency level and the relevance of the treatment to their main instruction as well as the willingness of their instructors to cooperate. Since the participants were learners at institutes and had been given placement tests before hand, and since they had received the same instruction, their homogeneity was almost certain. Still, before they received the treatment, a KET test was administered to homogenize the participants in terms of their vocabulary knowledge. To make sure that the participants had no prior knowledge of the target words, the vocabulary pretest containing 150 items was also administered before the treatment. The instructional materials included 5 units of Top Notch (2 a). The participants were in 5 groups. Each group was randomly assigned to one of the following treatment conditions:

Group A was instructed through the Jigsaw technique. There were 15 learners in this group. They were divided into four groups. This technique was taught in eight steps:
Step 1. A task was divided to different subtasks.
Step 2. The class was divided into groups of 3 or 4 members randomly.
Step 3. Each group worked on one subtask.

Step 4. One student from each Jigsaw group joined the expert group.
Step 5. They discussed the subtasks that they worked on. The subtasks were selected randomly.
Step 6. The students returned to their Jigsaw groups.
Step 7. They presented other subtasks to their groups. They helped other members of the group with the subtasks they had learnt about in the export group.
Step 8. At the end, each group had the whole task; the parts of tasks completed each other like different parts of puzzle by experts.

Group B received instruction through the Rotating Circles technique. Rotating circles technique is based on physical movement. The number of learners was 18 in this group. They were divided into three groups. Each group was subdivided into two groups. There were 3 members in each subdivided group. The participants of this group were taught in five steps:

Step 1. The class was divided into groups of 6 members. Each of these groups of 6 was subdivided into 2 groups randomly.
Step 2. One subgroup was seated in an inner circle, with each student facing outwards. The other subgroup was seated in an outer circle. Around them each member faced inward towards a member of the inner circle.
Step 3. Each member of the inner circle had different subtasks. For about 5 minutes, the inner circle members discussed with the outer circle members opposite them.
Step 4. The outer circle was rotated one seat clockwise, so there was a new pair.
Step 5. The previous two steps were repeated until the outer circle was rotated by one complete turn.

Group C was instructed through the Snowball technique. Snowball technique is useful when the aim is to generate ideas. There were 20 participants in this group. This technique was taught in four steps:
Step 1. Each student received a task. They received the same task. They had to work within a preset period of time (5 minutes, more or less).
Step 2. They worked on the task in pairs, they shared ideas.
Step 3. Pairs then formed groups of 4 to share their ideas and knowledge.
Step 4. Snowball was finished there or was continued to groups of 8, until they solved their problems.
Group D (n = 16) received instruction through the Think-Pair-Square technique. Think-pair-square technique is another collaborative technique for generating ideas. This technique was taught in five steps:
Step 1. A task was given to class.
Step 2. Each student had a period of time to think about it and write her/his words.
Step 3. The student turned to a partner and shared their knowledge and ideas.
Step 4. Pairs joined another pair to compare their conclusions.
Step 5. They continued with another pair or stopped this process.

Group E was instructed through the Word Webbing technique. Word webbing technique is a graphic organizer strategy that provides a visual of how words or phrases connect to a topic. There were 17 learners in this group. Four students were in each group, but one group contained 5 participants. It was taught in six steps:
Step 1. Students were divided into groups of 4 or 5 randomly.
Step 2. Each group received a butcher paper and different color markers.
Step 3. One student drew a circle in the middle of the paper and wrote the main idea in it.

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

Step 4. Each student added a concept to it with different color markers. They wrote subtopics in the corners.

Step 5. Each student selected one corner and wrote her/his words. All students had a chance to add their ideas.

Step 6. Papers displayed around the classroom and each group reported their word-web.

At the end of the experimental period, posttests were administered. The 30-item vocabulary test in multiple-choice format was used to measure the participants' receptive lexical knowledge. And the 30-item vocabulary test in fill-in-the-blanks format was utilized to measure the participants' productive vocabulary knowledge. The time allocated to this posttest was 30 minutes. To answer the research questions, two separate one way ANOVA procedures were used.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Investigation of the first question
The aim of the first question was to investigate the effect of selected collaborative techniques on L2 vocabulary comprehension. To this end, a one-way ANOVA was run. Descriptive statics are given in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics for the ANOVA on Vocabulary Comprehension

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Jigsaw	15	18.46	3.66	16.43	20.49
Rotating circles	18	20.33	3.18	18.75	21.91
Snowball	20	21.95	2.68	20.69	23.20
Think-pair-Square	16	21.81	2.45	20.50	23.12
Word webbing	17	23.11	3.70	21.21	25.02
Total	86	21.20	3.45	20.46	21.94

Based on Table 1, word webbing group has the highest mean, followed by snowball group, think-pair-square group, and rotating circles group. The participants of the jigsaw group have the lowest mean. To see whether or not the observed differences among the groups are statistically significant, a one-way ANOVA procedure was used. The results are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: The results of the ANOVA on Vocabulary Comprehension

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	205.347	4	51.337	5.153	.001
Within Groups	806.886	81	9.962		
Total	1012.233	85			

As it can be seen in Table 2, the F-value and the significance level ($F_{(4,81)}= 5.15$, $p < .05$) suggest significant differences among the collaborative groups. To locate the significant differences between the means, a post hoc Tukey HSD's test procedure was used, the results of which are summarized in Table 3.

IJLLALW

Table 3: Multiple comparisons of means on Vocabulary Comprehension

(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Jigsaw	Rotating circles	-1.86	1.10	.445	-4.94	1.212
	Snowball	-3.48*	1.07	.015	-6.49	-.47
	Think-Pair-Square	-3.34*	1.13	.033	-6.51	-.18
	Word webbing	-4.65*	1.11	.001	-7.77	-1.53
Rotating circles	Snowball	-1.61	1.02	.517	-4.47	1.24
	Think-Pair-Square	-1.47	1.08	.652	-4.50	1.54
	Word webbing	-2.78	1.06	.078	-5.76	.19
Snowball	Think-Pair-Square	.137	1.05	1.00	-2.81	3.09
	Word webbing	-1.16	1.04	.795	-4.07	1.73
Think-Pair-Square	Word webbing	-1.30	1.09	.759	-4.37	1.76

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

A look at Table 3 makes it clear that there are significant differences between jigsaw group and snowball group, between jigsaw group and think-pair-square, and between jigsaw group and word webbing group. It means the jigsaw group is the worst group among these five collaborative techniques in vocabulary comprehension.

Investigation of the second question
The second research question sought to investigate the effect of selected collaborative techniques on L2 vocabulary production. A one-way ANOVA procedure was used. Descriptive statistics are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Descriptive statistics for the ANOVA on Vocabulary production

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Jigsaw	15	9.86	2.44	8.51	11.22
Rotating circles	18	10.77	2.60	9.48	12.07
Snowball	20	13.05	2.68	11.79	14.30
Think-Pair-Square	16	11.12	1.99	10.06	12.18
Word webbing	17	15.70	2.31	14.51	16.89
Total	86	12.18	3.14	11.51	12.86

Based on Table 4, word webbing group has the highest mean, followed by snowball group, think-pair-square, and rotating circles. The Jigsaw group has the lowest mean. To see whether or not the differences among the groups are statistically significant, the one-way ANOVA was used, which yielded the following results (Table 5).

Table 5: The results of the ANOVA on Vocabulary Production

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	359.949	4	89.987	15.151	.000
Within Groups	481.074	81	5.939		
Total	841.023	85			

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

Table 5 shows that there are significant differences among the five groups ($F_{(4,81)}= 15.15$, p < 0.05). To locate the differences among the means, a post hoc Tukey HSD' test procedure was used. The results are summarized in Table 6.

Table 6: Multiple comparison of means for the ANOVA on Vocabulary Production

(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Jigsaw	Rotating circles	-.91	.85	.822	-3.28	1.46
	Snowball	-3.18*	.83	.002	-5.50	-.86
	Think-Pair-Square	-1.25	.87	.606	-3.70	1.18
	Word webbing	-5.83*	.86	.000	-8.24	-3.43
	Snowball	-2.27*	.79	.041	-4.48	-.06
Rotating circles	Think-Pair-Square	-.34	.83	.994	-2.68	1.98
	Word webbing	-4.92*	.82	.000	-7.22	-2.62
	Think-Pair-Square	1.92	.81	.139	-.35	4.20
Snowball	Word webbing	-2.65*	.80	.012	-4.89	-.41
Think-Pair-Square	Word webbing	-4.58*	.84	.000	-6.94	-2.21

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 6 makes it clear that the participants of snowball and word webbing groups have performed significantly better than the participants of both jigsaw and rotating circles groups. In addition, the participants of word webbing group have outperform those of snowball and think-pair-square groups, suggesting that word webbing is the most effective technique in vocabulary production.

Discussion

There are few studies on the comparisons among collaborative techniques. Most researchers have investigated only one collaborative technique or have compared one technique with the traditional method. One of the techniques used in the present study was jigsaw. It is one of the most popular and well-known collaborative techniques (Jacobs & Hannah, 2004; Littlewood, 2009). Walker and Crogan (1998) reported that jigsaw improves academic performance. Their findings somehow contradict the results of the present study because in the present study jigsaw turned out to be the least effective technique on both vocabulary comprehension and production. Hanz and Berger (2007), however, could not show the positive effect of jigsaw on academic performance. To Moskowitz, Malvin, Schaeffer, and Schaps (1985), jigsaw has no positive effects on students. The findings of the present study support their results. It seems that the use of jigsaw could not improve vocabulary comprehension and production in the present study. Jigsaw is like a puzzle; all students are responsible for completing this puzzle. Expert groups encourage individual accountability among students (Jacobs & Hannah, 2004). However, sometimes one of the students in the expert groups cannot convey information well or does not listen to others correctly, and this affects all his/her teammates and the technique fails. This may be one of the reasons why jigsaw had no positive effect in the present study and was not successful.

Rotating circles is a newer collaborative technique and is not as popular as jigsaw. The rotating circles group did not have good results on vocabulary comprehension and production posttests. This might have been because the teacher and students were less familiar with this technique. The teacher could have failed to apply this technique like other collaborative techniques in the present study. This technique is based on physical movement (Littlewood, 2009). The findings of Littlewood's study are different from the results of the present study. He showed that the rotating circles technique could decrease social loafing and improve the learning process. However, Iranian students are not used to physical movement in their classrooms. They learn to sit without many movements and listen to their teachers. This might explain why the rotating circles group failed in the present study. In addition, physical movement may not be suitable for all levels of students. It may be better for kids but not necessarily for older learners.

In addition, snowball turned out to be the second best technique in vocabulary comprehension and production. This finding lends support to Farrell and Jacobs (2010), who believe that students like this technique and take part in this activity eagerly.

Another collaborative technique used in the present study was think-pair-square. It led to good results, but not as good as snowball and word webbing groups. Littlewood (2009) points out that think-pair- square decreases premature closure in group activities. Walsh and Sanchez (2010) compared think-pair-square with other collaborative techniques for child development. The results were the same as the results of the present study.

The last and one of the best techniques in the present study was word webbing. Pierson, Cerutti, and Swab (2006) believe that word webbing is suitable for developing and reviewing vocabulary. The results of the present study support their opinion. Word webbing had the best effect on vocabulary comprehension and production in the present study. This technique is more visual, so it is useful for vocabulary learning. This technique shows how ideas are connected to other ideas and how they are organized. This technique was new for Iranian students. They liked to try it. So, part of the beneficial effects of this technique could be attributed to its novelty.

There are some factors, which may have affected the results of the present study, like quality of interaction among students, level of proficiency, culture, and so on. Tinzmann, et al. (1990) point out that there are three conditions for collaborative classrooms. They believe without these three conditions collaborative learning fails. First, students should accept their responsibility in their group. Second, they should learn to face to face interact and help their teammates. Third, they need to learn group process skills. Not all these conditions were present for all the five groups in the present study. These conditions were not equal in the five collaborative groups. This may partly explain the differential performance of the participants of these groups on the posttests.

Another possible reason could have been teachers' ability to implement each of the five collaborative techniques. Some of these techniques may have been hard for teachers to implement in class. Jigsaw was probably more familiar for teachers, hence more easily applicable. However, rotating circles was hard for teachers. This could be the reason why the rotating circles group did not produce good results.

Another factor may be interaction among students. The nature of collaborative techniques requires that students be active in their classes. However, some students may avoid group work. All these factors create an unfavorable condition in collaborative classrooms. The present study faced with the last problem, especially in the jigsaw group. This could be one of the reasons why the jigsaw group failed.

Still another factor which could have contributed to the obtained results may have been the learners' proficiency level. As an example, in the course of the treatment, it was observed that rotating circles was not suitable for students' level of proficiency and students were not serious about following this and were not comfortable with this technique. They thought the teacher did not support them. DelliCarpini (2009) is of a similar opinion. Along the same line, Letendre (2009) argues that jigsaw is a collaborative technique useful for advanced learners.

CONCLUSION

To conclude, based on the obtained results it appears that collaborative techniques are not equally beneficial. They seem to have differential effects on various language skills and components. It can also be concluded that there are a multitude of factors which can potentially influence or moderate the effect of each of the aforementioned collaborative techniques on language learning.

The findings of the present study can have implications for teachers and learners. The present study can help teachers and learners to understand the importance of collaborative techniques in language learning. Not only do they help learners to be stronger, but also they make vocabulary learning more enjoyable. Snowball and word webbing are powerful techniques for improving vocabulary learning.

The knowledge of how collaborative techniques affect various language skills and components may enable teachers to find new ways of teaching by collaborative techniques and increase students' motivation and attitude for attending classes. These techniques can increase learners' motivation to learn and make the learning process more meaningful.

The findings can have implication for learners, too. Students can be more active in the learning process by collaborative techniques. They learn more by less effort. They become responsible for their teammates. They also learn how to investigate, solve a problem, make a decision, interact, and share their knowledge and responsibility.

All in all, this study may have shed some light on some of the issues surrounding collaborative learning techniques and the effect they exert on language learning. At the same time, it has to be acknowledged that this study might have had several limitations. For one thing, the four vocabulary tests (KET, vocabulary pretest, vocabulary comprehension, and vocabulary production) were not validated. The reason was that the psychometric characteristics of the KET test were taken for granted because it was used as an already established criterion. The validity and reliability of the three other tests were not checked because they were all directly based on the specific treatment, so they were assumed to be content valid. Nonetheless, the psychometric characteristics of the data collection instruments could have affected the outcome of the study. Another point to be acknowledged is that due to time constraints, the participants received treatment for only a semester. It may be cogently argued that some of these techniques may have long-term effect. So, there effect may not be evident immediately after instruction. This acknowledgment, coupled with the controversies already surrounding this issue, may warrant further research in an area waiting to be further explored.

IJLLALW

REFERENCES

Adeymi, B. A. (2008). Effects of Cooperative Learning and Problem-solving Strategies on Junior Secondary School Students' Achievement in Social Studies. *Electronic Journal of Research in Educational Psychology, 6 (3),* 691-708

Apple, M. T. (2006). Language Learning Theories and Cooperative Learning Techniques in the EFL Classroom. *Doshisha Studies in Language and Culture, 9 (2),* 277-301.

Barkley, F. E., Cross, P. K., & Major, C. H. (2oo5). *Collaborative Learning Techniques: A Handbook for Collage Faculty.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

DelliCarpini, M. (2009). Enhancing Cooperative Learning in TESOL Teacher Education. *ELT Journal, 63 (1)*, 42-50.

Dillenbourg, P. (1999). What do you mean by collaborative learning? In P. Dellinbourg (Ed) *Collaborative-learning: Cognitive and Computational Approaches.* Oxford: Elsevier.

Farrell, T. S., & Jacobs, G. M. (2010). *Essential For Successful English Language Teaching.* London: Continum International Publishing Group.

Gokhale, A. A. (1995). Collaborative Learning Enhances Critical Thinking. *Journal of Technology Education, 7 (1),* 22-30.

Hanz , M., & Berger, R. (2007). Cooperative Learning, Motivational Effects, and Students Characteristics: An Experimental Study Comparing Cooperative Learning and Direct Instruction in 12th Grade Physics Classes. *Learning and Instruction, 17(1),* 29-41.

Hiep, P. H. (2007). Communicative Language Teaching: Unity within Diversity. *ELT Journal, 61 (3),* 193-201.

Huong, L. P. (2006). Learning Vocabulary in Group work in Vietnam. *RELC, 37(1)*, 105-121.

Jacobs, G., & Hannah, D. (2004). Combing Cooperative Learning with Reading aloud by Teachers. *IJES, 4(1)*, 97-117.

Jacobs, G., Power, M. A., & Loh, W. I. (2002). *The Teacher's Sourcebook for Cooperative Learning: Practical Techniques, Basic Principles, and Frequency asked Questions.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Crown Press.

Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T., & Smith, K. A. (1991). *Active learning: cooperative in the college classroom.* Edina, MN: Interaction Book Company.

Keyser, W. M. (2000). Active learning and cooperative learning: Understanding the difference and using both styles effectively. *Research Strategies, 17 (1)*, 35-44.

Kim, Y., & McDonough, K. (2011). Using pretask modeling to encourage collaborative learning opportunities. *Language Teaching Research, 15 (2),* 183-199.

Letendre, R. C. (2009). Jigsaw (teaching technique). *Building a Teacher's Toolbox, 1 (8)*, 3-30.

Littlewood, W. (2009). *Chinese Learners and Interactive Learning.* London: Palgrave MacMillan.

McDonough, K. (2004). Learner-Learner Interaction during Pair and Small Group Activities in a Thai EFL Context. *System, 32 (2)*, 207-224.

Moskowitz, J. M., Malvin, J. H., Schaeffer, G. A., & Schaps, E. (1985). Evaluation of jigsaw, a cooperative learning technique. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 10,* 104-112.

Newton, J. (2001). Options for Vocabulary Learning through Communication Tasks. *ELT Journal, 55 (1)*, 30-37.

Pamela, G. G. (1994). The Effectiveness of Cooperative Learning Strategies in

Multicultural University Classrooms. *Journal on Excellence in College Teaching, 5 (1),* 21-30.

Pierson, C., Cerutti, M., & Swab. B. (2006). Tools and Techniques for Effective International in the Adult ESL Classroom. *ITBE Newsletter, 34 (3),* 1-5.

Tinzmann, B. M., Jones, B. F., Fennimore, F. T., Bakker, J., Fine, C., & Pierce. J. (1990). *What is collaborative classroom?* Retrieved April 5, 2006, from: http://www.nerel.org/sdrs/areas/rpl_esys/collab.htm

Vygotsky, L. S. (1986). *Thought and Language*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society. The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Walker, I., & Crogan, M. (1998). Academic Performance, Prejudice, and the Jigsaw Classroom: New Pieces to the Puzzle. *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology, 8 (6)*, 381-393.

Walsh, B.A., & Sanchez, C. (2010). *Examining child development theories through collaborative learning: techniques for the instruction of early childhood pre-service teachers*. New York: Nova Science Publishers, Inc.

Wang, J. (2011). Improve College STUDENTS' Autonomous English Learning Effectiveness with new Learning Model. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 2 (3)*, 580-587.

Wang, T. P. (2007). The comparison of the difficulties between cooperative learning and traditional teaching methods in college English teachers. *The Journal of Human Resource and Adult Learning, 3 (2)*, 23-30.

Webb, N. M. (1991). Task-Related Verbal Interaction and Mathematical Learning in Small Groups. *Mathematics Education, 22 (5)*, 366-389.

Wills, J. (2007). Cooperative learning is a brain turn-on. *Middle School Journal, 38 (4)*, 4-13.

IJLLALW

A CONSTRUCTIVISM APPROACH TO THE COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THREE SMART TEST TEMPLATES: TESTA, HOT POTATOES, WONDERSHARE QUIZ CREATOR

Reza Aghighi
Islamic Azad University, Fars Science & Research Branch, English Department, Fars, Iran
aghighireza@ymail.com

Abbas Motamedi
Islamic Azad University, Kazerun Branch, Post Graduate Department, Kazerun, Iran
abbasmotamedi@shzu.ac.ir

ABSTRACT
Nowadays. E-learning is becoming more and more common among students; therefore, the issue in e-learning environments must be given a full attention. Research approves that constructivism learning theory, whose main focus is on knowledge construction based on learner's previous experience and his/her social interaction is a good fit for e-learning and ensures learning among learners.The relationship between technology and constructivism is the complementary one, the employment of each one promoting the other. Constructivism is an approach maintaining that learning takes place in contexts, while technology refers to the designs and environments that involve learners. In this process it is unavoidable that teachers and administrators need to be actively involved in creating e-learning environments. But implementing the proper template to this end is the issue, which has been neglected i.e. teachers have used templates, which are not in line with the accepted approach to learning in digital environment, i.e. constructivism. The most used and advised templates by the teachers and administrators in Iran, TESTA and Hot Potatoes, were selected To examine the extent to which they satisfy the constructivists' learning stipulation. The third template, Wonder Share Quiz Creator, as an unknown template was also added. To this end, Richards' maxims of teaching for language teachers were set as the bases of describing the templates potentialities.

KEY WORDS: Constructivism, Smart test templates, TESTA, Hot potatoes, Wondershare quiz creator

INTRODUCTION
IT technology is being increasingly used in ESL/EFL teaching, and the expanding growth of ESL/EFL websites is a sign to how important IT technology has become. Yet, realizing the potential of this exciting and constantly expanding medium is not a straightforward undertaking. Traditionally, schools have established situations, where individuals "learn how to learn "major learning processes including formulating questions, accessing potential source of information, evaluating and organizing it, and finally, applying the information to answer some questions.
The "revolution", originated from humanistic approach and tracked by cognitive theory was brought to a point that is nowadays – constructivism. According to constructivists, learners build their own individual understanding of the world.

In recent years ,Constructivist learning has grown as an eminent approach to teaching as the need for 'deep' as contrasting to 'surface' learning has gained eminence as a characteristic of what is known to be professional competence. Constructivist approaches to modeling the learning

process are based on the assumption that people are active learners and actively construct their knowledge for themselves (or with teachers, peers, etc.). In Constructivist approaches, learning is not viewed as a simple acquisition process based on teacher transmission of information but as a process through which meaningful learning is attained as the learner constructs and reconstructs conceptions of a phenomenon based upon his/her personal existing and previous knowledge or experience. Concepts of self-regulated learning and assessment for learning are also interweaved into constructivist theory. Some researchers suggest that the role of the teacher has changed from the transmitter of knowledge to one which supports self-regulated student learning, more attention ought now to be paid to how this role change might be achieved (Van Eekelon et al., 2005:447-448; Nichol & Macfarlane-Dick 2006:199).

In pedagogies grounded on constructivism, the teacher's role is not only to witness and assess but also to participate with learners while they are carrying out activities and posing questions to the students for deeper commitment and the advancement of constructive reasoning. Learners compare their form of the truth with that of the teacher and peer learners so that to get to a new, socially tested version of the truth. Consequently, it is assumed, the quality of active interaction is serving to determine the extent to which 'deep' or 'higher-order learning' is established.

Nowadays, constructivism is the most accepted approach to language learning and its main influence on educational psychology is the learner-centered approach, which highlights the autonomy of learners in the process of their learning. The approach to teaching and education is often developing as researchers learn more about how students learn and which teaching methods appear to be the most effective. Consequently, the traditional curriculum is also gradually changing. Rote memorization, for example, was once a habitual part of the traditional curriculum and is less frequently seen today.

Education, in Iran, has already been administrator –oriented, which means, it is the administrators who decide on the whole materials, activities and whole process of learning and teaching for all classes in all situations. Teachers and learners sole responsibility is performing the instructions received from the administrators whether or not it satisfies their needs or ambitions. The traditional curriculum contains the presentation of information in the form of blocks or units, which are broken into smaller units of information and offered by the teacher to the students. Traditionally, discussion between learners and teachers are less accepted, and the acceleration of class discussion is also not a part of the traditional curriculum. These are considered inadequate by some educators, who think that students should develop critical thinking, and skills to internalize the information use, from the functionalists' perspectives.
The traditional curriculum can also be deeply standards-based, with testing used to assess fulfillment and achievement. Such curriculum has also been criticized by educators, as standards-based curricula, which are the form of "teach to test" in which students are fed with information, which will only assist them pass a test, but not essentially with information, which they can use in their real life.

Learner Autonomy & Self-directed Learning
Self-directed learning is regularly recognized as an important educational aim for quite different reasons, from the enhancement of school learning to the critical assessment of the claims of

IJLLALW

democracy. Most reasons suggest that self-direction is important in learning during life. Consequently, process-oriented teaching, which aims to promote self-directed long-life learning, requires a comprehensive and multidimensional theoretical basis. The significant role of experiences in the social and cultural environment, prior knowledge, and the emotional aspects of education are highlighted, and linked to self-directed learning in life.

Collaboration in the Constructivists'' Context

Bruner (1986) states that "learning in most settings is a shared activity, a sharing of the culture". Therefore, collaboration is an important notion in constructivist learning settings. Collaboration represents and provides the social aspect of learning: Therefore, learners are enabled to "develop their own strategies and understandings through combined exertion and have the chance to derive new understanding through the give-and-take of interaction, argument and discussion" (Vygotsky, 1978; Watson & others, 1999).

Assessment in Constructivism Paradigm

Assessment is a multi-perspective phenomenon, with occasional conflicting theoretical and professional perspectives. In recent years online or e-assessment of language skills has developed with the spread of e-learning and online testing within foreign language teaching and learning settings. Although much of the assessment done in online environments is assessment of learning, assessment for learning can help motivate learners by raising their awareness of their strengths and weaknesses, rather than simply measuring them.

Nowadays, we hear and see a lot about the instructions and justifications both in the ministry of education while higher education emits to extend the use of technology in educational settings in Iran. It is a good sign of administrators' understanding the importance and merits of IT implementations in education. But what is actually done in practice is providing the hardwares with no attention to user's ability/capability in applying the new medium in education. As a result, the instruments remain useless because of staff of knowledge in producing and implementing appropriate softwares. Therefore, at first it seems vital to make the users be familiar with both the theoretical basis of computer assisted learning (CAL) and proper templates satisfying those learning and teaching requirements in general and second language acquisition (SLA) in particular. Consequently, to have a good selection of templates, they should be evaluated by the dominant learning approach of the day, constructivism. Richards (1995) as a prominent constructivist, has summarized the constructivism's concepts in eight maxim:

The Maxim of Involvement: Follow the learners' interests to maintain student Involvement
The Maxim of Planning: Plan your teaching and try to follow your plan.
The Maxim of Order: follow the lesson plan"
The Maxim of Encouragement: Seek ways to encourage student learning
The Maxim of Efficiency: Make the most efficient use of class time.
The Maxim of Conformity: Make sure your teaching follows the prescribed method.
The Maxim of Empowerment: Give the learners control.

Since in the constructivism's environment teaching and assessment are not seen separated but integrated, it is believed that the principles of teaching settings ought to be observed in e-assessment environments, created by e-assessment template creators. The purpose of this research is to have a comparative study of three e-assessment creator templates to find the best one, which meets the postmodernist educational necessities based on Richard's (1995) maxims of teaching. To this end, the present study intends to shed some lights on three Smart test templates: Hot

potatoes, J Quizzes and Testa. They are reported to satisfy these basic requirements: They are user friendly, simply available, having easy access by the testers & testees, and proving effective acceptability for teachers, learners and administrators.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Technology and Constructivism
To comprehend the potential of technology application in improving the teaching-learning process, the effect of constructivism on classroom activities has been studied by many scholars (e.g., Black & McClintock, 1995; Richards, 1998; Brush & Saye, 2000). Other researchers have advocated that constructivist strategies make use of technologies for greatest effect in learning (e.g., Duffy & Cunningham, 1996). Based on Jonassen, Peck and Wilson (1999), technology stands for "the designs and environments that engage learners". Hence, the focus of both constructivism and technology are on the establishment of learning environments.

Current Constructivist-based Trends in Educational Technology
There is a great drive toward more of a Constructivist approach in applying instructional technologies. There are many such devotees, and they provide a persuasion dispute. "One way forward is to switch our attention from the design of software packages (which act solely as storehouses of information) to an interactive problem-based environment in which the learner assumes the key role. With this profile in place, the learning task can be tailored to the student's capabilities rather than the student having to fit in with the software designer's generalized understanding of how learning should take place. The creation of these rich learning environments will also have to ensure that texts, reference sources, multimedia and communication facilities are fully integrated" (Shield, 2000). Learning, which happens in authentic and real-life settings, and based on the learners' need, is a "primary catalyst of knowledge construction" (Camp & Doolittle1999). Technology has impacted the pedagogies of Social Constructivism significantly. According to Desai, Hart, and Richards (2008) instructional design is a critical factor in the creation of effective online instruction. "One of the most important steps in creating a successful e-learning environment includes the development of flexible technology-based course content" (Desai et al., 2008). Instructors need to spend a significant time and effort on creating a successful e-learning environment. "Instructors find that e-learning is much more labor intensive and they have to acquire unusual skills, experience, and dedication to be successful than comparable traditional learning" (Desai et al., 2008).

A high degree of interaction between learner and teacher is critical to the success of instruction (Desai et al., 2008). In a traditional setting, classroom communication would have not required much consideration, but technology requires the teacher to keep on active in communicating to learners in order to sustain attention and drive.

Learner participation in group work is a part of social interaction in an online learning environment. Email, texting and instant messaging are common forms of communication practices within virtual group work, all of which provide a "Social Presence" (Desai et al., 2008). Traditionally, a social presence was communicated by discourse and social clues such as facial expressions, non-verbal clues and inflection (Nevgi et al., 2006). Technology requires "a distinct

interaction with learners and high technology devices" providing "a strong interaction between the learner, learner/instructor, and the content as well as other learners" in the distance education environment (Desai et al., 2008).

Since e-learning is becoming increasingly popular among learners, the issue of learning in e-learning environments must be given a full attention. Research approves that constructivism learning theory, which emphases on knowledge creation based on learner's prior knowledge, is a good fit for e-learning because it confirms learning among learners (Harman & Koohang, 2005; Hung, 2001; Hung & Nichani, 2001; Koohang & Harman, 2005). Koohang (2004) states that appropriate instructional design that includes learning theories and principles is critical to the success of e-leaning. Broderick (2001) states that "Instructional Design is the art and science of creating an instructional environment and materials that will bring the learner from the state of not being able to accomplish certain tasks to the state of being able to accomplish those tasks." Instructional design has always relied on learning approaches and theories, namely behaviorism, cognitivism, humanism, and constructivism. In the last two decades, constructivism has been at the center of attention, because it encourages active learning through knowledge construction (Gagne, Briggs, & Wager, 1992). The issue of including learning theories in e-learning instruction design has always been critical, for this reason, it has consistently been reported in the literature (Egbert & Thomas, 2001; Koohang & Durante, 2003; Pimentel, 1999; Randall, 2001). The literature has also constantly acknowledged that constructivism learning theory is a fitting match for e-learning setting (Harman & Koohang, 2005; Hung, 2001; Hung & Nichani, 2001; Koohang & Harman, 2005).

Assessment-based Instruction
One of the critical components of the education is assessment. People within the educational community, i.e. policymakers, educators, learners, parents and administrators, have different ideas regarding the application of assessment strategies (Dietel, Herman & Knuth, 1991). Some consider traditional assessment methods more effective, while others believe non-traditional assessment tools superior.

Constructivists' Assessment-based Stipulation
Since constructivists claim that each learner construct his/her own learning, they are concerned in assessing learner's learning process instead of overt knowledge or skills we can easily see (Jonassen, 1992). One principle of assessment in a constructivist design is not to separate evaluation as a single process. Learning in constructivists design is as a cyclical process. As the form of a circle has no start and no end, then the spot of where to assess could become indistinct. Assessment is not as an ending activity in constructivists design, but rather an ongoing process that assistances the students continue to teach themselves how to learn (Holt & Willard-Holt, 2000).

Templates' required potentialities in constructivism settings
Aghighi & Motamedi (2013) proposed that, it seems any software, template or application offering learning environment in postmodern digital age should satisfy Richards' maxims in virtual educational environments. They set these maxims as the base, and also took some other supporting theories and approaches into account to define the characteristics or potentialities of a working template in constructivism's educational settings. They are presented in the following table.

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

Table 1: Templates' required potentialities

Template's potentiality	Satisfying the maxims of….	Maxim's weight	Total weight
Providing different forms of feedback	Involvement	2	20
	Encouragement	6	
	Accuracy	6	
	Empowerment	2	
	Relevance	3	
	Efficiency	1	
Inclusion of variety of activities	Relevance	3	7
	Involvement	2	
	Empowerment	2	
Simple manipulation and clear Instruction	Involvement	2	3
	Efficiency	1	
The customized appearance of the template player	Involvement	2	4
	Empowerment	2	
Potentiality to Provide activities and tasks for practicing Language skills and sub skills	Planning	2	2
Potentiality to check learners' understanding in all language skills area	Planning	2	2
Time limiting for each activity	Efficiency	1	3
	Planning	2	
Offering the activities based on the learners abilities	order	6	6
Easy to generate content	Efficiency	1	1
Donating rich results	Efficiency	1	1
Online availability	Efficiency	1	1

RESEARCH QUESTION
The present research study intends to find an answer to the following question:
Which E-assessment template is more in line with the postmodernist educational concepts such as collaboration, learner-centered (personalized) environment and assessment for learning?

METHODOLOGY
Descriptive method is preferable, because it involves gathering data that describe events and then organizes, tabulates, depicts, and describes the data collection (Glass & Hopkins, 1984). Indeed, the descriptive component is critical to educational research, because educational events cannot be reduced to a controlled laboratory environment. The types of questions generated in educational research, particularly with respect to the constructivist paradigm and social implications, require descriptions that help explain the data and direct emergent prescriptions for educational events. (Nelson & McLellan 1996). A structured observation method, using a list of required templates' potentialities defined by Aghighi and Motamedi (2013) was implemented.

IJLLALW

Materials

Three smart test templates including TESTA, Hot potatoes and Wondershare Quiz Creator were implemented for creating e-learning environment. The content was brought from a general English book entitled: ESAP.

- *TESTA*

Testa is an online test management system designed for creating multiple choice exams to make it available via URL and on a webpage. Testa helps administrators and teachers prepare and hold the exam faster and easier. Immediate feedback is available for the students by using Testa. The disadvantage of Testa is not being an interactive application. In addition it can be used for one form of test (multiple choice tests) and other forms of activities are not available.

- *Hotpotatoes*

It is not a freeware, but it is free of charge. It is for non-profit educational users who want to make their pages available on the web. This application has six interfaces, which are JMix, JMatch, JCloze, JCross, JQuiz and The Masher. This application will assist you to create interactive multiple-choice, short-answer, jumbled-sentence, crossword, matching or ordering and gap-fill exercises and make them available on a web page. HOT POTATOES uses advanced JavaScript but it does not expect the users to know anything about JavaScript or HTML or any other programming language to get things done.

In brief, HOT POTATOES is a tool that assists the teacher to embrace the technology in classrooms. It will give new opportunities to empower students to reach new heights. It is also believed when the teachers keep students away from technology, they take away the opportunities that are readily available overseas.

- *Wondershare Quiz Creator*

Wondershare Quiz Creator is a multipurpose software tool designed to help teachers and trainers to produce Flash-based, high-quality exams and surveys. The program supports various types of questions, such as multiple choice, multiple response, fill in the blank, sequence, short essay, etc. Questions are created independently and stored in the program's database, allowing teachers to use and reuse them in different quizzes as many times as needed.

Procedure

Describing the templates needed carefully working them out. To this end, the Help sections of each template were first carefully explored and studied both to have a list of the templates potentialities and get familiar to work them out. The researcher tied to create different qualified activities using the templates potentialities. While creating e-content via selected templates, the researcher described their potentialities for satisfying the related maxims. In the cases templates believed to possess a potentiality, but the researcher seemed to be unable to work them out efficiently, he tried to get help by searching the web. In addition, contacting support center of the templates was also a good idea which only Wondershare Quiz Creator provides such support with nearly immediate response. Then, the described templates were quantitatively evaluated in comparison with each other.

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

RESULTS

Table 2: Quantitative description of templates potentialities

Template's potentiality	Total score of the potentiality	TESTA	Hot Potatoes	Wonder Share
Providing different forms of feedback	20	10	15	20
Inclusion of variety of activities	7	1	5	7
Simple manipulation and clear Instruction	3	2	2	3
The customized appearance of the template player	4	1	2/5	4
Potentiality to Provide activities and tasks for practicing Language skills and sub skills	2	1	2	1/5
Potentiality to check learners' understanding in all language skills area	2	1	1/5	1/5
Time limiting for each activity	3	1	2	3
Offering the activities based on the learners abilities	6	0	0	6
Easy to generate content	1	1	1	1
Donating rich results	1	1	0	1
Online availability	1	./5	./5	1
Total score	50	19/5	31/5	49

As the table clears, TESTA is far from the constructivism idealization of educational settings; therefore, it couldn't be accounted as a template belonging to postmodern era. Hot Potatoes show minimum potentialities to satisfy the digital age stipulation of educational environment. In comparison with the two other templates, Wonder Share indicates more potentialities to be convenient with the idealization of postmodern approaches to learning.

IJLLALW

DISCUSSION

Template's potentiality	Satisfying the maxims of….	Maxim's weight	Total weigh
Providing different forms of feedback	Involvement	2	20
	Encouragement	6	
	Accuracy	6	
	Empowerment	2	
	Relevance	3	
	Efficiency	1	

	Templates description	
TEST A	Proper pictures, sounds and links to web pages can be added to the stem of the questions and choices. Providing these forms of feedback by TESTA is not as straightforward as other templates. Since, TESTA uses a web based editor which users who are not familiar with such editors may fail to add desired feedback to the questions. There are two basic ways to add sound and video to the activities: Inserting an object, and adding a link. Adding a link is the simplest approach meaning that the file is separated from the software, so it may results in some problems in playing if the file is missed. Inserting the file means that the file becomes embedded in the software and will be corrupted if the software be corrupted. Links to other Web pages in the exercise provide rich and interesting input that provides an opportunity to comprehend and/or produce meaning. TESTA lets users add link to web pages only to questions and web pages can't be linked to the choices to provide more information. Of course we should be aware that TESTA is a test manager software not learning and teaching template, therefor linking to web pages even from the test stem will violate its purpose.	10
Hot Potatoes	Proper pictures, sound, multimedia and link to web pages are added (not inserted, as illustrated above) to all parts of the activities, including the text, questions, choices and the feedback. A positive point is that a link can be added to the pictures of the activities to web pages or even local files.	15
Wonder Share	Proper pictures sound multimedia and links to web pages are inserted to all parts of the activities, including the questions and choices. It is possible to use pictures for feedback. A positive point is that, wondershare provides the possibility of capturing screen image, so users can easily insert the picture of the screen to their questions. Wondershare lets the users to insert (not add) the sound to questions and feedback sessions. By using wondershare, users are free to insert the pre-prepared sound files or directly record a sound to the software. Videos can be inserted to only the questions part of the activity. They can't be used as an answer or as a feedback. Wondershare also lets the users add link to web pages in all parts of the activities including text, questions, and answers and feedbacks, but adding links to pictures is not allowed.	20

Inclusion of variety of activities	Relevance	3	7

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

		Involvement	2	
		Empowerment	2	
TESTA	TESTA is limited to provide only one activity, i.e. multiple choice items test format.			1
Hot Potatoes	Hot Potatoes offers a good variety of activities consisting five different exercises useful for practicing some language activities. This application will assist the teachers to create interactive multiple-choice, short-answer, jumbled-sentence, crossword, matching or ordering and gap-fill exercises			5
Wonder Share	Wondershare offers a good variety of activities consisting nine different exercises useful for practicing some language activities. The program supports various types of questions, such as multiple choice, multiple response, fill in the blank, sequence, short essay, etc.			7
Simple manipulation and clear Instruction		Involvement	2	3
		Efficiency	1	
TESTA	TESTA is set up and handled easily. It has a clear and direct control panel which allows the administrator to create and publish his/her test easily. However applying some template facilities such as adding pictures and publishing in the web needs some web knowledge.			2
Hot Potatoes	HotPotatoes is set up and handled easily. It has a clear and direct control panel which allows the users to create and publish their tasks in different types. However, knowing a little programing is needed if one tries to publish his/her activities containing multimedia and sound on the web.			2
Wonder Share	Wondershare is set up and handled easily. It has a clear and direct control panel which allows the users to create and publish their tasks in different types and publish them in different formats involving Publish flash quizzes to Quiz Creator Online; Upload the published Flash quiz to the web; Generate a SCORM quiz package for LMS; Produce stand-alone EXE file for CD and Export to Word or Excel files for paper-based testing. Inserting pictures. Sounds and multimedia needs no programming knowledge, so that everyone can benefit all wondershare facilities.			3
The customized appearance of the template player		Involvement	2	4
		Empowerment	2	
TESTA	The appearance of TESTA is not customizable, i.e. that users can't alter the appearance of the software by changing the size, color, icons and… of the player.			1
Hot Potatoes	HotPotatoes lets the users to personalize the appearance of the software through making changes in color, output font, and size and background picture of the template.			2.5

Wonder Share	Wondershare is a flash format based template; It means that its appearance is attractive and eye-catching. The Wondershare player is highly customizable to meet the styles of the users. It lets the users to customize the size and color of the player with variety of options as well as the size and color of the output font. Users can edit the toolbars and background picture as well as choices and pictures position.		4
Potentiality to Provide activities and tasks for practicing Language skills and sub skills		Planning 2	2
TESTA	This software lacks a special module for reading comprehension activities. However reading comprehension activity can only be presented in the form of multiple choices. Finding correct spelled word, correct order of the Jumbled words and correct order of Mixed-up sentences are the available exercises in TESTA for writing activities. Designing listening activities are thinkable by means of TESTA, but it should be noticed that a link is added to the sound files, so you may miss the task if the file which is located in other place is lost or corrupted. No module of TESTA can be used to design exercises for neither speaking activities in general nor pronunciation in particular. Only multiple choice exercises is available in TESTA for working out vocabulary and grammar.		1
Hot Potatoes	This software possesses a special module for reading comprehension activities which other templates lack such facility. Exercises like completing words with missed letter, in spelling level and sequencing the scrambled words to make a sentence are available but ordering sentences to make a paragraph and free essay writing are not possible by means of Hotpotatoes modules. Designing listening activities are thinkable by means of hot potatoes modules. But it should be noticed that a link is added (not inserted as illustrated above) to the sound files. No module of HotPotatoes can be used to design exercises for neither speaking activities in general nor pronunciation in particular. All five module of this template except J Cross, which is adjusted only for practicing vocabulary activities, are ready to provide variety of activities for practicing and assessing vocabulary and grammar activities.		2
Wonder Share	This software lacks a special module for reading comprehension activities. However other modules can be used for this purpose. Exercises like completing words with missed letter, in spelling level and sequencing the scrambled words to make sentences or ordering sentences to make a paragraph are possible by means of Wondershare modules. Besides free essay witting is the feature is found in wondershare, so users can think of presenting such an interesting activity using this platform. Designing listening activities are possible by means of Wondershare modules. Since, sounds and videos are inserted in the software, the concern of missing the files is reduced. On the other hand inserting the files is very easy and straightforward and doesn't need users to know any programing. Besides, it will be published easily wherever you wish, on the web, on LMS or stand-alone EXE file for CD. The only weak point of this template about presenting listening activities is that the sounds or videos can be presented only in the stem of the question. It would be better if the sound was also presented in choices unit. No module of Wondershare supports designing exercises for neither speaking activities in general nor pronunciation in particular. All module of this template except Short Essay are ready to provide variety of activities for practicing and assessing vocabulary and grammar.		1.5
Potentiality to check learners 'understanding in all language skills area		Planning 2	2
TESTA	Reading and Listening comprehension is checked through selecting correct answers. Checking free writing essays is not possible. Speaking neither can be practiced nor checked by means of this software. Learner's vocabulary and grammar knowledge are also checked through selecting correct answers.		1

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

Hot Potatoes	Reading and listening comprehension is checked through selecting correct answer, selecting true or false choice and matching and filling in the blanks. Writing, at the level of spelling, can be checked through selecting true choice and filling in the blanks. At the level of sentence writing, correct order of the sentences is checked by means of JMix module. But checking paragraph and free essay writing are not available in this template. Speaking is the skill, which neither can be practiced nor checked by means of this software. Student's vocabulary and grammar knowledge is evaluated through selecting correct answer, selecting true or false choice, matching and filling in the blanks tasks.			1.5
Wonder Share	Reading and listening comprehension is checked through selecting correct answer, selecting true or false choice, matching and filling in the blanks activities. At the level of spelling, it can be checked through selecting and filling in the blanks exercises. In spite of offering writing activities, checking free essay writing is not available in this template. Speaking neither can be practiced nor checked by means of this template. Student's vocabulary and grammar knowledge is evaluated through selecting correct answer, selecting true or false choice, matching, sequencing and filling in the blanks.			1.5
Time limiting for each activity		Efficiency	1	3
		Planning	2	
TESTA	TESTA can set time only once for all questions.			1
Hot Potatoes	Assigning time as much as needed to activities is an essential part of planning. It can set time once for all questions.			2
Wonder Share	This application lets the users have two choices for assigning a time limit. First they can assign a time to all activities, second they can do this for each activity alone based on the activity level of difficulty and learners' abilities.			3
Offering the activities based on the learners abilities		order	6	6
TESTA	To have a successful learning, activities should be presented based on learners' ability. This software lacks such capability. One test is offered for all.			0
Hot Potatoes	This template lacks such a capability.			0
Wonder Share	Offering the activities based on the learners current abilities is the feature hardly found in other template. This is the feature, which more promotes the personalization aspect of learning. This application poses such a helpful potentiality.			6
Easy to be used by the learners		Efficiency	1	1

IJLLALW

TESTA	It is easy to be worked out by the learners after a brief explanation.			1
Hot Potatoes	Learners have no problems engaging in the exercises provided by this template.			1
Wonder Share	It is highly easy and interesting for the learners to working on the activities provided by this application in flash format.			1
Donating rich results		Efficiency	1	1
TESTA	TESTA presents almost a complete details about the learner performance on the test for the both test taker and the teacher. The details include the information about number of questions, number of correct answers, number of incorrect answers, number of unanswered questions, total grade, answered and unanswered questions. It also provides information due to the learners' position between the other test takers. But the results were better to be forwarded to parents.			1
Hot Potatoes	Hotpotatoes provides no detailed result of the work done at the end. It just provides ongoing feedback on the task is being done, since Hotpotatoes is not intended to be as a testing template.			0
Wonder Share	Wondershare presents details about the performed test for the both test taker and the teacher. The details include the information about total questions, full score, passing rate, passing score, learner score, correct answer, answered questions and elapsed time. However, can be regulated in such a way that to ignore such statistics and play the role of learning template what is desired in constructivism. It also has the potentiality to send an e-mail containing the results to both teacher and learner / parents.			1
Online availability		Efficiency	1	1
TESTA	It can be easily available online, but containing sound and video may cause some problems.			./5
Hot Potatoes	It can be easily uploaded on personal blogs or websites to be available online, but added sound and video may cause some problems (as illustrated above).			./5
Wonder Share	It can be easily published online on personal blogs and web sites or on LMS services. It can also be published as an auto-play exe file for CD delivery.			1

CONCLUSION

It goes without saying that each template has its own advantages and disadvantages, and they all have been developed with a rational behind, for instance templates like TESTA have been

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

developed when cognitivism has been the accepted learning approach and transmition of knowledge has been main process of teaching, but nowadays constructivism is the prominent approach to learning and knowledge is constructed through social interaction, TESTA and similar applications are less qualified for the purpose, simply because they are not capable enough to satisfy the educational requirement of the day such as collaboration. Hence, it is suggested to teachers and everyone who is interested in producing e-content for e-learning environment be familiar, in advance, with rules of the game.

Collaboration, assessment for learning, learner-oriented (personalized learning) and teacher facilitator are main concepts of constructivism, which can be promoted via providing variety of proper feedback: hence, templates' capability to provide variety of feedback in different forms is a critical property of any template. However, the quality of feedback and their effectiveness are the issues depended on teachers and content creators.

The weak point of all templates is that they all are not mature enough to support exercises promoting speaking in an interactive manner, hopping developer find a solution to this insufficiency. But, one word is certain: Wondershare Quiz Creator seems to be more in line with level of idealization in the post-modernists' era.

LIMITATION OF THE STUDY
One of the limitation of the study is that deciding on the criteria of simple manipulation of the templates and easiness of working out by learners, the researcher has evaluated the templates based on his personal understanding of the literature, which are certainly different from those of the others.

While there are a considerable number of templates other than those evaluated, which may possess more noticeable features in line with the dominant approach, this study has focused on restricted number of templates because of certain limitations.

REFERENCES
Aghighi R., Motamedi, A. (2013). *A comparative study of three test templates*. M.A thesis. Islamic Azad University, Fars Science & Research Branch, English Department, Shiraz, Iran.

Black, J. B., & McClintock, R. O. (1995). *An interpretation construction approach to constructivist design*. Available online: http://www.ilt.columbia.edu/publications/papers/ICON_print.html

Broderick, C. (2001). *What is instructional design?* Available Online: http://www.geocities.com/ok_bcurt/whatisID.htm

Bruner, J. (1986). *Actual Minds, Possible Worlds*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Brush, T., & Saye, J. (2000). *Implementation and Evaluation of a Student-Centered Learning Unit: A Case Study*. Educational Technology Research and Development, 48(3), 79-100. Available online: http://www.editlib.org/p/90690.

Camp, W. G., & Doolittle, P. E. (1999). Constructivism: The career and technical education perspective. *Journal of Vocational and Technical Education, 16 (1)*.

IJLLALW

Desai, M., Hart, J., & Richards, T. (2008). E-learning: paradigm shift in education. *Education, 129* (2), 327-334.

Dietel, R. J., Herman, J. L., & Knuth, R. A. (1991). *What does research say about assessment?* NCREL, Oak Brook. Available online: http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/stw_esys/4assess.htm

Egbert, J., & Thomas, M. (2001). The new frontier: A case study in applying instructional design for distance teacher education. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education, 9(3),* 391-405.

Gagné, R., Briggs, L., & Wager, W. (1992). *Principles of instructional design (4th ed.).* Fort Worth: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich College Publishers.

Glass, G.V., & Hopkins, K.D. (1984). *Statistical methods in education and psychology.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Holt, D. G. & Willard-Holt, C. (2000). Let's get real − students solving authentic corporate problems. *Phi Delta Kappan, 82 (3).*

Harman, K., & Koohang, A. (2005). *Discussion board: A learning object.* Interdisciplinary Journal of Knowledge & Learning Objects, 1, 67-77. Available Online: http://ijello.org/Volume1/v1p067- 077Harman.pdf

Hung, D. (2001). Design principles for web-based learning; implications for Vygotskian thought. *Educa- tional Technology, 41(3),* 33-41.

Hung, D., & Nichani, M. (2001). Constructivism and e-learning: balancing between the individual and so- cial levels of cognition. *Educational Technology, 41(2),* 40-44.

Jonassen, D. H. (1992). *Evaluating constructivistic learning.* In T. M. Duffy & D. H. Jonassen (Eds.) Constructivism and the technology of instruction: A conversation (pp. 137-148). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Jonassen, D. H., Peck, K. L., & Wilson, B. G. (1999). *Learning with technology: A constructivist perspective.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/Prentice Hall.

Koohang, A. (2004). A study of users' perceptions toward e-learning courseware usability. *International Journal on E-Learning, 3(2),* 10-17.

Koohang, A., & Durante, A. (2003). *Learners' perceptions toward the Web-based distance learning activities/assignments portion of an undergraduate hybrid instructional model.* Journal Information Technology Education, 2, 106-113. Available Online: http://www.jite.org/documents/Vol2/v2p105-113-78.pdf

Koohang, A., & Harman, K. (2005). Open source: A metaphor for e-learning. Informing Science. *The International Journal of an Emerging Transdiscipline, 8,* 75-86.

Nelson K. N. & McLellan H. (1996). *Descriptive Research.* In Jonassen D. H. Methodologies Handbook of Research for Educational Communications and Technology. Available online: http://learngen.org/~aust/EdTecheBooks/AECT_HANDBOOK96/41/index.html

Nevgi, A., Niemi, H., & Virtanen, P. (2006). Supporting students to develop collaborative learning skills in technology-based environments. *British Journal of Educational Technology, 37 (6),* 937-947.

Nicol, D. & Macfarlane-Dick, D. (2006). Formative assessment and self-regulated learning: A model and seven principles of good feedback practice. *Studies in Higher Education, 31(2),* 199-218.

Pimentel, J. R. (1999). Design of Net-Learning Systems based on Experiential Learning. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks (JALN), 3(2).*

Randall, B. (2001). Effective Web design and core communication issues: the missing components in Web-based distance education. *Journal of Educational Multimedia and Hypermedia, 10 (4),* 357-67

Richards, J.C. (1995). *The Maxims of Second Language Teaching.* (Shulman, 1987), 1-21

Richards, R. T. (1998). Infusing technology and literacy into the undergraduate teacher education curriculum through the use of electronic portfolios. *T.H.E. Journal, 25(9),* 46-50.

Shield, G. (2000). A critical appraisal of learning technology using information and communication technologies. *Journal of Technology Studies.*

Van Eekelon, I. M., Boshuizen, H. P. A., & Vermunt J. D. (2005). Self-Regulation in Higher Education Teacher Learning. *Higher Education, 50 (3),* 447-471.

Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes.* Harvard University Press: Harvard.

Watson, M., et. al. (1999). *CDP cooperative learning: Working together to construct social, ethical and intellectual understanding.* In Sharan, S. (ed). Cooperative Learning Methods. (pp. 137-156). Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers.

IJLLALW

THE EFFECT OF CULTURE TEACHING ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' READING ABILITY

Gholam Reza Zarei
Phd, Isfahan University of Technology, IUT

Zahra Sadat Roozafzai
Phd Candidate, Academic Center for Education, Culture and Research, IUT Branch
(Corresponding Author: Zahra80R@gmail.com)

ABSTRACT

Regarding the huge corpora of studies and theories about the interrelationship between language and culture, choosing more effective texts for teaching culture to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students to improve their reading skill is the main concern of this paper. In other words, the current study is an attempt to find out whether teaching culture through culture-teaching informative texts as direct channel of teaching culture or short stories as indirect channel of teaching culture in EFL environments can improve ELLs reading skill more effectively. So in a quasi-experimental design consisting of two groups of Iranian EFL students in which direct and indirect cultural texts were used separately, the performance of participants in a multiple choice test of reading general passages was statistically analyzed. The results indicated that teaching culture through direct cultural texts has more positive effect on Iranian ELLs reading skill than teaching it through short stories.

KEY WORDS: Culture, direct cultural texts, short stories, reading skill, English Language Learner (ELL), English as a foreign Language (EFL)

INTRODUCTION

There are many definitions of culture in different disciplines. CARLA (Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition) for the purposes of the Intercultural Studies defines culture as "the shared patterns of behaviors and interactions, cognitive constructs, and affective understanding that are learned through a process of *socialization*. These shared patterns identify the members of a culture group while also distinguishing those of another group."

Damen, L. (1987) has cited "Culture: learned and shared human patterns or models for living; *day- to-day living patterns*. These patterns and models pervade all aspects of human social interaction. Culture is mankind's primary adaptive mechanism" (p. 367). Culture in sociological fields can be defined as *the ways of thinking, the ways of acting,* and the material objects that together shape a people's way of life. For Georg Simmel (1858–1918), a major German sociologist, philosopher, and critic culture referred to "the cultivation of individuals through the agency of external forms which have been objectified in the course of history".
According to anthrobase there are two extremes of the definition of culture in anthropology:
A) within ecological anthropology culture is described as a "tool" used by society to keep its "adaptation to nature". *This "tool"* consists of*"concrete, physical tools, but also knowledge, skills and forms of organization*." B) A number of anthropologists have a purely *cognitive* definition of

culture. The idea is that "culture may be limited to *the communicative and meaningful aspects of social life: from language to the meaning carried by symbols, persons, actions and events.*"

Oxford Dictionary defines culture as "The arts and other manifestations of human intellectual achievement regarded collectively; that which is excellent in the arts, manners, etc." It is defined in wiktionary .org as "The arts, customs, and habits that characterize a particular society or nation; The beliefs, values, behavior and material objects that constitute a people's way of life;…" So, in accordance with the above definitions there are various views toward culture like the way for socialization, adaptive mechanisms and tools, the agency of external forms, communicative and meaningful symbols, persons, actions and events.

So, when culture is:

A) our shared human models for living and interactions, day- to-day living patterns, the ways of acting learnt through socialization;

B) our cognitive constructs, the ways of thinking, affective understanding, arts, etc.

and when, according to many studies (e.g. Swender&Duncan (1998), Muyale-Manenji. F. (1998)) language and culture are interrelated, it can be hypothesized that if there is a positive effect of culture teaching on EFL learners' reading skill, there will be two ways, among others, through which ELLs reading skill can be improved. According to two categorized definitions of culture in this paper, one might be teaching culture directly through every-day life, informative-comparative texts and the other through literary texts as art.

Regarding culture as the fifth skill beside listening, speaking, reading and writing, Dr. Thomas Garza (2008) in "Foreign Language Teaching Methods"has stated that "It may generally be accepted in the language-teaching community that culture is an integral part of language instruction, but there is little consensus on *what,* much less *how*, we should teach it." Now this study is an attempt to see the effect of culturally informative texts versus short stories on students reading skill.

LITERATURE REVIEW

When language is understood as a social practice rather than mere codes one way in which culture has often been understood is as knowledge that people have about a particular society, about cultural artifacts or works of art, about places and institutions, about events and symbols and in short about ways of living. In other words, it is a framework in which people live their lives and communicate their meanings and feelings. As a sociocultural approach places a large value on learners' experiences, social participation, use of mediating devices (tools and technologies), and position within various activity systems and communities of practice (Gee, 2008), Lantolf (2000) explains,

"Sociocultural theory holds that specifically human forms of mental activity arise in the interactions we enter into with other members of our culture and with the specific experiences we have with the artifacts produced by our ancestors and by ourcontemporaries. Rather than dichotomizing the mental and the social, the theory insists on a seamless and dialectic relationship between these two domains. In other

IJLLALW

words, not only does our mental activity determine the nature of our social world, but this world of human relationships and artifacts also determines to a large extent how we regulate our mental processes."

There are different models and approaches which investigate the effects of culture and interaction in target language contexts and environments like "Intercultural Interaction Model" (Culhane, S.F. 2004) ,"social interaction model of Vygotsky (socio-cultural theory) and 'interaction approach in second language acquisition' (Mackey, 2012 in Williams (Ed.)), 'optimal distance model' of second language acquisition (Brown, 1980) and 'input-interaction-output model' (Block, 2003). In general, through intercultural language learning, students engage with and learn to understand and interpret human communication and interaction in increasingly sophisticated ways. Intercultural language learning is best understood not as something to be added to teaching and learning but rather something that is integral to the interactions that already and inevitably takes place in (ESL)classrooms and beyond. But in EFL contexts and environment with students of different language and culture background the story is somewhat different, as the distinction between 'General SLA' and 'Instructed SLA', 'Naturalistic SLA' and 'Instructed SLA', 'Acquisition' and 'Learning'. So, sociocultural theories must be an amendment for the conventional viewpoint that considers learning as largely uninfluenced by context. It must be a companion for SLA. While in sociocultural theories (SCT) and approaches language learning and teaching are mostly placed in target context and culture, in teaching culture in EFLformal classrooms, it is target culture that must be brought into language learning and teaching context. However, "the fundamental psycholinguistic process of second language acquisition is the same whether learners enter classrooms or acquire language outside of them." (Gass, 1989, cited in Lantolf,2012). There are many leading researchers like Van Lier(1994), Erlam (2008), Nieto (2009) and many others who try to bridge theory, research and practice gap, though some are "cautious about such direct connection" (Ellis, 2008 cited in Lantolf, 2012), and in almost all books and research papers the final section is devoted to classroom praxis, but in fact teaching culture is a very critical job, firstly for the concept of culture and the practice of teaching and acquisition.

Lantolf (2012) compares SLA with SCT (Social Cognitive theory) and summarizes that "SLA focuses on and privileges learning over teaching. All developmental mechanisms are inside the learner [the container], while SCT focuses on dialectical unity of teaching/learning. Obuchenie is a central mechanism in development". Obuchenie is Russian and is the noun associated with obuchit' (to teach or instruct) and with obuchit'cya (to learn). Take away the prefix "ob" and you're left with uchit' (which can be translated both as to teach [the first meaning] and to learn or memorize) and uchit'cya (to learn or to study). Besides, Ellis (2008) sates that "Sociocultural SLA proposes that L2 learning occurs intermentally as well as interamentally…. It emphasizes the social and cultural nature of learning while also recognizing that language is a mental phenomenon." Widdowson (2000) distinguishes two functions of language: as a "subject"; i.e. the language teachers teach, "a pedagogic construct", "an externalized language the linguist describes", and an "object"; i.e. what language "users do" with language, "an experienced language that is a reality for the user".

Culture has also been learned and studied in other disciplines as well. According to Dennis O'Neil (2012), anthropologists can learn about the culture of another society through a combination of five things:
"1.   Proper mental preparation (including adopting the cultural relativity perspective)
2.   Participant-observation

3.   Competence in using the host culture's language
4.   Long-term residence
5.   Luck in being at the right place at the right time."

He further asserts that although there some ways to study another society and its culture like fieldwork and first hand observation, called ethnography, systematic comparisons of similar cultures, called ethnology, the best way to really get to know another culture is participant observation; that is to live in target society as an active participant rather than simply an observer, to physically and emotionally participate in the social interaction of the host society. So, it must be best learned directly. But when it comes to language and culture teaching and learning in EFL classrooms the significance of 'direct' and 'indirect' might be redefined.

It has been said that culture is like an iceberg, that only ten percent of it is visible and the other ninety percent is hidden below the surface. For this reason, ESL teachers must make intentional efforts to teach cultural understanding. Borrowing from Bachmann (1990) there can be two "channels" to teach culture in EFL classrooms; i.e. visual and aural, in two "modes"; i.e. receptive and productive. Different combination of these channels and modes leads to different methods. For instance, EFL teachers can give students some cultural topics and bring a discussion of culture into the classroom and talk about target culture or provide them with videos and cultural internet texts and images or ask students to have a native target English speaker pen pal to write and chat and get to know the target culture in many other ways. But the method used in a formal EFL classroom in this study is to provide students with texts and ask them to read and answer the questions. But what kind of texts?

Culture, as the matter of fact, penetrates every aspect of our beings. Nieto (2009) states that "culture is complex and intricate. It cannot be reduced to holidays, foods or dances, although these are of course elements of culture….. culture is not simply rituals, foods and holidays of specific groups of people, but also the social markers that differentiate that group from others…. This view of culture implies that differences in ethnicity, language, social class and gender need not in and of themselves be barriers to learning. Instead, how these differences are viewed in society that can make the difference in whether and to what extent young people learn."   "… [Teachers] they need to first acknowledge student's differences and then act as a bridge between their students differences and the culture of the dominant society…. A bridge provides access to a different shore without closing the possibility of returning home.

Furthermore, teaching culture directly (explicitly) or indirectly (implicitly) has different psycholinguistic mechanism on memory storage. Semantic memory which is kind of explicit memory, is the system for storing knowledge of the world and much of which can be accessed "quickly and effortlessly. It includes our memory of the meanings of words–the kind of memory that lets us recall not only the names of the world's great capitals, but also social customs, the functions of things, and their color and odor. It also includes our memory of the rules and concepts that let us construct a mental representation of the world.

On the other hand, implicit memory which is both unconscious and unintentional, cannot be exploited for "actions and reasoning". It is a memory "to perform events and tasks, or to produce a specific type of response. This type of memory is shown through activation of the sensory and

motor systems needed to perform a certain task. Procedural memory is a kind of implicit memory.

Moreover, Gay (2000) defines culturally responsive teaching as taking advantage of the cultural knowledge, prior experiences, and performance styles of students to make learning more appropriate and effective for them; it teaches to and through the strengths of language learners. So, one of the best ways for teaching culture directly to students can be providing students with informative texts in an EFL classroom and then comparing different aspects of western culture with their native culture. This style of comparison-and-contrast through informative texts can also raise their consciousness, cognitive attention (Tomlina & Villa, 1994) and awareness to cultural differences and culture learning effectively enough. On the other hand, as one aspect of culture refers to art and literature, we can select short stories to teach culture. But since stories essentially have their own literary mission and application and their basic function depending on the genre basically is to narrate a plot or teach a theme, they can be indirectly used for the purpose of culture teaching to EFL students.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
The current study has aimed to compare the effect of culture teaching via direct versus indirect cultural texts on EFL learners' reading ability. In other words it tries to see if the Iranian ELLs who are taught target culture by culturally informative- comparative texts outperform or underperform in a general reading test than the ones who are taught culture by short stories.

METHODOLOGY
Method and Design
The selected research design in this study was quasi-experimental in which two experimental groups, randomly-selected, participated. One group was taught culture through culturally informative-comparative texts and the other group was taught culture through short stories.

Participants and Materials.
From a population of Persian monocultural, Iranian female language learners, aged 20-35, university students, the university graduated or holders of high school diploma, 4 classes of low-intermediate language proficiency level according to International House language level, equal to B1 according to CEF (Common European Framework), in one of the language institutes in an urban area in Isfahan city of Iran were chosen. To determine their level of English language proficiency, students passed a placement test consisting of two parts: a short written test, with a handy answer sheet for quick marking, followed by a more detailed oral test, similar toCEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) placement test - Cornelsen. Its interview comprises some questions to test their pronunciation, language use and usage, fluency, ability to communicate, vocabulary and grammar. All four classes followed the regular program (with CLT method) of the institute, teaching same units (first three units) of one of EFL series of books (Total English, by Richard Acklam and Araminta Crace) at pre-intermediate level in 20 sessions. Since each group consists of 35 EFL learners and the number of students in each class was less than 35, two classes were selected for each treatment.

The participants in group 1 (two classes out of four) were taught English in the same program as group 2 but were taught cultural points through 10 texts which gave direct cultural information

about shopping, foods, holidays, driving, schooling and education, greeting, entertainment, party holding, exhibitions, child breeding, pet keeping, marriage and some other social family matters of the U.K., and some American culture information texts, from some credible Internet sources like www.learnenglish.de/britishculture or in comparative style, comparing British culture with some other cultures like oriental and Arabic culture; for example a passage in book 'Paragraph Development' by Martin L. Arnaudet and Mary Ellen Barrett, p. 20. While group 2 were taught cultural points through 10 short stories by some writers like Langston Hughes or Pearl S. Buck from the book 'Oral Reproduction of stories' by Dr. Abbas Ali Rezai and some contemporary shorter stories from websites like www.eslfast.comor www.rong-chang.com/eslreadand http://www.readtheory.org.

Procedure
There are some techniques for teaching culture developed by researchers like Taylor & Sorenson, 1961 (Culture Capsules, based on eight cultural categories, proposed by Taylor and Sorensen, namely Subcultural, Technology, Economic Organization, Social Organization, Political Organization, World View, Esthetics), Meade and Morain, 1973 (Culture Clusters) , Fiedler et al., 1971(Culture Assimilators), Gorden's prototype 1970 (Mini-Dramas, offered as the prototype audio-visual unit of the Cross-Cultural Communication Packet (CCCP)), Helen Wilkes,1983 (Cultural Consciousness-Raising) and many others such as Kinesics and Body Language, Cultoons,Audio–motor Units,Critical Incidents/Problem SolvingMedia/Visuals,Celebrating Festivals etc. According to Christine Elmore (1997) in order to put teaching culture into classroom practice, we need to follow specific strategies including:
- "The lecture
- Native informants
- Audio-taped interviews
- Video-taped interviews/Observational dialogs
- Using authentic readings and realia for cross-cultural understanding (a four-stage approach to a cultural reading of authentic materials is very effective to lead students through the process of guided exploration and discovery : 1- Thinking, 2- Looking, 3- Learning, 4- Integrating)"

So, in the present paper the researcher used authentic reading texts and realia, and raised EFL students' cultural consciousness with combination of culture capsule and Cultural Consciousness-Raising. Thus, in addition to the syllabus of the term, on the basis of CLT (communicative language teaching) direct and indirect cultural texts were taught similarly. The teachers first engaged students by asking some related questions to activate their schema and prepare the learners. Then she pre-taught new key words of the text, after that, she asked them to skim if it was direct, if short story, read extensively, in limited time, subsequently she asked some general comprehension questions or called them to tell the plot summary of the story and asked students to look through the text for more details and do the exercises or she asked some more detailed and in-depth questions. Finally, she managed a class discussion about the cultural point of the story with students and highlighted them and asked ELLs to examine and compare with their own national or local culture. And then a 16-item multiple-choice reading comprehension tests of two general passages with culture hue at the level of low-intermediate was given to two groups.

IJLLALW

SCORING AND DATA ANALYSIS

In this study, the input of statistical analysis consisted of scores of students' answers to 16-item multiple-choice reading comprehension questions of two general passages selected from EFL graded tests by ETS on websites like http://englishteststore.net. Students received one mark for each correct answer and lose 1/3 mark for incorrect answer. Table 1 below shows the obtained scores of the subjects in reading comprehension of both groups. The frequency of scores is also enclosed in the table.

Table 1: Students' reading comprehension scores

Score	Frequency in Direct Group (G1)	Frequency in Indirect Group (G2)
14.66	3	2
14.33	2	1
14	1	2
13.33	3	2
13	4	2
12.66	3	3
12.33	3	
11.66	1	1
11.33	3	2
11	4	2
10.66	2	2
9	1	2
8.66	2	2
8.33	2	
8		3
7.66	1	3
7		2
6.66		
6.33		3
6		1

Information about the mean, standard deviation and standard error mean of the two groups are shown in Table 2. below

Table2: Group Statistics

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	SEM
SCORES	1.00	35	11.86	1.97	0.33
	2.00	35	10.44	2.75	0.47

The higher mean of group 1, with mean difference of 1.41 implies that they have outperformed on reading test over group 2. The mean difference is confident enough, because in the 95%-confidence interval for mean difference is from 0.26 to 2.56. Besides, Direct group's lower standard deviation score shows that their scores are less dispersed from the mean value than that of Indirect group. Then, a t-test was used for assessing the difference between the means of scores obtained by the two groups. The type of utilized t-test is independent or uncorrelated because the two sets of scores come from two different samples. So, it is used to calculate whether the means of two sets of scores taken from Direct and Indirect groups are significantly different from each other. Table 3.illustrates the results obtained from the t-test application.

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

Table 3: Independent Sample Test

	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
SCORE Equal variances assumed	2.4591	0.016	1.4155	0.576

The t value for equal variance is 2.4591 and has the two-tailed significance level of 0.0165 which is less than two-tailed probability vale; i.e. the two-tailed P value is less than 0.05, by conventional criteria, this difference of two groups' performance is considered to be statistically significant. The mean of reading scores of students taught through direct cultural materials (M=11.8631, SD=1.9742) is significantly higher (t=2.4591, two-tailed p=0.05) than that of students taught through indirect cultural materials (M=10.4476, SD=2.7544) and this fact is demonstrated in graph 1 below.
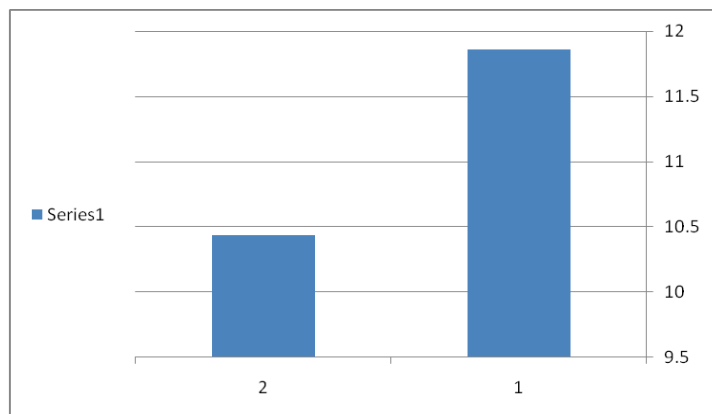
Graph 1: Mean difference between Direct and Indirect group (G1 and G2)

DISCUSSION
There would be innumerable factors involved in students´ skill to read in EFL. Among these numerous factors, ELLs´ culture knowledge of target language has been picked out in the present study to see how we can better improve it in order to take advantage of it for accelerating EFL reading ability of Iranian ELLs. Direct culture teaching may have such effects on the function of ELLs᾽ cognition that leads to more efficient ability to read in EFL.

'Implicit Learning' and 'Explicit Learning' are two terms that are largely investigated and accepted in cognitive psychology (for example, Eysenck, 2001). Implicit learning is learning unintentionally without learner's awareness. For instance, learners are exposed to input data for processing meaning but being investigated for learning any L2 linguistic properties. However, it cannot promise that learning is absolutely without awareness. Since researchers believe that any learning is impossible without some degree of awareness (Ellis, 2008).

Explicit learning, on the other hand, is an intentional conscious process. For instance, learners are given an explicit rule and asked to use it or they are asked to discover an explicit rule from data provided. These two types of learning, as a result, lead to implicit and explicit knowledge. (Ellis,

2008).Learning involves both implicit and explicit knowledge, which interact at the level of performance. Although Ellis (1990), believes that implicit and explicit L2 knowledge are different in kind and are held separately in brain he, Ellis et al. (2009),postulated three different interfacekinds between implicit and explicit L2 knowledge:

"1. According to strong interface position, explicit knowledge can be converted into implicit knowledge when learners practice explicit and declarative rules.
2. According to non-interface position, implicit and explicit knowledge are held separate in brain and each involves rigidly distinct mechanisms and thus cannot be converted to each other.
3. According to the weak interface position, explicit knowledge can assist the acquisition of implicit knowledge by making some aspects of input salient and noticeable to learners." (Rassaei et al. (2012))

Moreover, according to Richards & Schmidt 2009, the interface hypothesis is a concept in second language acquisition that describes the various possible theoretical relationships between implicit and explicit knowledge in the mind of a second language learner. There are three basic positions in the interface hypothesis: the no-interface position, the strong-interface position, and various weak-interface positions. The no-interface position states that there is no relationship between these two types of knowledge; in other words, knowledge that has been learned explicitly can never become fast, automatic language knowledge. This position has been largely discredited, and the debate has now focused on the strong- and weak-interface positions. The strong-interface position states that explicit language knowledge can always become implicit language knowledge, and that such knowledge becomes implicit through repeated practice. This position is most often associated with skill-building theories of second language acquisition. The weak-interface positions state that explicit language knowledge can become implicit to some extent, but that these are limited by various developmental factors.

According to Ellis et al. (2009), there are four instruments used to assess implicit and explicit *knowledge*. "Measuring Implicit and Explicit Knowledge of a Second Language" Ellis discusses five knowledge tests, namely the Elicited Oral Imitation Test, the Oral Narrative Test, the Timed Grammaticality Judgment Test (TGJT), the Untimed Grammaticality Test (UGJT), and the Metalinguistic Knowledge Test. Ellis explains the test features that distinguish between implicit and explicit knowledge. The experimental results indicate that these tests can be used for measuring either implicit or explicit knowledge. He used EI - and TGJT for measuring implicit, and UGJT and MKT for explicit knowledge of grammar in a study.

Dupuy and Krashen(1993) investigated implicit learning of vocabulary by asking learners to read a book and then test them to see if they learned any new vocabulary in the process. In this study, as well, students were given culturally comparative-informative texts and short stories, used as reading texts for the purpose of teaching target culture. As a consequence, students were investigated for any development of their reading ability in EFL in Iran which is monocultural. As to the interrelationship of language and culture, the outperformance of group 1, treated by direct cultural texts, could result in improving students' cultural knowledge more effectively than group 2, treated by short stories as indirect cultural texts. Moreover, G 1 students' better scores on general reading test at the end of the treatment could be due to their more efficient implicit learning than G 2 students'as well. Besides, we can say students' explicit learning and knowledge of (learning)culture has stronger interface with their implicit knowledge of (learning) reading in Direct group. That is using direct cultural texts for the purpose of teaching culture to students through reading, can increase EFL learners' both explicit knowledge; i.e. cultural knowledge, and

implicit knowledge; i.e. knowledge of reading, more successfully than using short stories as indirect cultural texts for the same purpose.

The most well-known of Skill-based theories of second language acquisition is based on John Anderson's adaptive control of thought model (VanPatten & Benati, 2010). In this model, skill acquisition is seen as a progression from declarative to procedural knowledge (Richards & Schmidt 2009). Second language acquisition is seen as a progression through three stages, declarative, procedural, and autonomous (VanPatten & Benati, 2010).So higher development of EFLs' reading skill in G1 can be interpreted as higher progression in these three stages by direct cultural texts than short stories as indirect ones.

CONCLUSION AND FURTHER RESEARCH

In the light of the above findings, the research question posed in the current study can be answered that teaching culture through comparative-informative texts has more positive effect on Iranians EFL learners' reading skill than through short stories. In other words, the findings indicated that teaching culture through direct cultural texts had a distinct advantage over indirect cultural texts in improving EFL reading skill.

The present study can also lead to some more research shedding more light on the underlying cognitive mechanisms by which the students treated by direct cultural texts outperform in reading test in comparison to short stories. Follow-up research can pursue the relationship between teaching cultures through other media like videos or internet chats on other skills like writing. Moreover, due to the limitations of this study like gender, nationality, context and setting, further researches can investigate the same issue on both genders, different levels of language proficiency or on immigrants or recently-immigrated students into an English speaking country with other instructional and instrumental tools. As a matter of fact, SLA studies always merit attention of researchers to develop the art of teaching English to students the best feasible effective way.

REFERENCE
Bachmann,L. F. (1990). *Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing*. Oxford
        University press.
Block, D. (2003).*The Social Turn in Second Language Acquisition*. Edinburg
        University: Edinburgh.
Brown, H.D. (1980). The optimal Distance of Second Language Acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly,*
        14 (2).
Culhane, S. F. (2004). An Intercultural Interaction Model: Acculturation Attitudes in
        Second Language Acquisition. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching,*1 (1),
        50-61.
Damen, L. (1987). Culture Learning: The Fifth Dimension on the Language   Classroom.
        Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

IJLLALW

Dupuy, B., & Krashen, S. (1993). Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition in French as Foreign Language. *Applied Language Learning,* 4, 55-63.

Ellis, R. Loewen, S. Elder, C. Erlam, R. Philp, J., & Reinders, H. (2009). *Implicit and Explicit Knowledge in Second Language Learning, Testing and Teaching. Multilingual Matters*.Bristol, UK.

Ellis, R. (2008). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*.Oxford University Press. ISBN 978-0-19-442257-4.

Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford University Press: Oxford.ISBN 0-19-437189-1

Ellis, R. (1990). *Instructed Second Language Acquisition* - Applied Language Studies. Blackwell Publishers.

Elmore, Ch. (1997). *Strategies for Teaching the Value of Diversity*. New Haven Teachers Institute. Yal

Erlam, R. (2008). What do you researchers know about language teaching?   Bridging the gap between SLA research and language   pedagogy.Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching.

Eysenck, M. (2001).*Principles of CognitivePsychology* (Second Edition). Psychology   Press: Hove.

Fiedler, F. E., Mitchell, T. R., & Triandis, H.C. (1971). The culture assimilator: An approach to cross-cultural training. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *55*, 95-102.

Garza, T. (2008). "Culture in Foreign Language Teaching: The Fifth Skill," teacher training module for on-line methods course, funded through the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board, 2008-2010.

Gay, G. (2000). *Culturally Responsive Teaching: Theory, Research, & Practice*. Teachers College Press. New York

Gee, J. P. (2008) Learning and Games. The Ecology of Games: Connecting Youth, Games, and Learning. Edited by Katie Salen.*The John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation Series on Digital Media and Learning*.:*The MIT Press*. Cambridge, MA. 21–40.

Gorden, R. L. (1970). Cross-Cultural Encounter In A Latin American Bank. *ERIC* Document Re-production Service: ED 040 120

Lantolf, J. P. (2012). Sociocultural Approaches to Teaching to the Advanced Level: The Pedagogical Imperative. *UCLA Heritage Language Institute.* Penn State University

Lantolf, J. P. (2000). *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning*. Oxford University Press

Mackey, A. (2012). Interaction approach in second language acquisition. In J. Williams (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics: Cognitive second language acquisition*.Wiley-Blackwell. Malden, MA.

Meade, B., & Genelle,M. (1973**)**. The Culture Cluster. *Foreign Language Annals,* 6(3), 331-8.

Muyale-Manenji, F. (1998).The effects of globalization on culture in Africa in the eyes of an African woman.

Nieto, S. (2009). *Language, Culture, and Teaching: Critical Perspectives* (Second Ed.).

O'Neil, D. (2012). An Introduction to the Characteristics of Culture and the Methods used by Anthropologists to Study it.Behavioral Sciences Department, Palomar College, San Marcos, California.

Rassaei, E., Moinzadeh, A., & Youhanaee, M. (2012).The Effect of Corrective Feedback on the Acquisition of Implicit and Explicit L2 Knowledge.*The Journal of Language Teaching and Learning,* 2012, 2(1), 59-75.

Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R, eds. (2009). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*.Longman: New York. ISBN 978-1-4082-0460-3.

Swender, E., & Duncan, G.(1998). ACTFL performance guidelines for K12 learners. *Foreign Language Annals, 31*.

Taylor, H. D & Sorensen, J. L. (1961), Culture Capsules, *The Modern language Journal*, 45 (8), 350-354.

Tomlina, R. S., & Villa, V. (1994) .Attention in Cognitive Science and Second Language Acquisition.*Studies in Second Language Acquisition*.Vol. 16. Issue02. pp 183 – 203.

Van Lier, L. (1994). Forks and hope: Pursuing understanding in different ways. *Applied Linguistics* 15 (3): 328–347.

VanPatten, B., & Benati, A. G. (2010). *Key Terms in Second Language Acquisition*.London: Continuum. ISBN 978-0-8264-9914-1.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1997). *Educational Psychology*.St. Lucie Press. ISBN-13: 9781878205155

Widdowson, H. G. (2002). Object Language and the Language Subject: On the Mediating Role of Applied Linguistics. *Applied Linguistics,* 20, 21-33

Wilkes, H. (1983). Title Pages: A Simple Device for Cultural Consciousness-Raising in the Teenaged Student of French, *Foreign Language Annals*, Volume 16. New York, ACTFL.

IJLLALW

COMMUNICATION OF MULTIPLE IDENTITIES THROUGH AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL WRITING

Richard T. Torto

Department of Communication Studies, University of Cape Coast, Ghana

ABSTRACT

Identities are always in process, constructed across contexts and over time. Who we are is shaped both by various contexts and our perceptions of "self" within those contexts and by how we are perceived or positioned by others (McCarthey & Moje, 2002). "Autobiographical self" is the identity which people bring with them to any act of writing, shaped as it is by their prior social and discoursal history. In the current paper, the researcher analysed the autobiographical section of the introduction to a book in order to unveil the writer's identities. The study was conducted within the social constructionist theory and a combination of literary, linguistic and interpretive approaches were used in analyzing the data. The writer of the autobiography communicated series of identities by varying her linguistic choices. As a result, multiple identities were discovered from the analysis of the data ranging from individual, academic to social roles. The findings of the study were the identities that the writer constructed in her writing. From the analysis, the writer of the autobiographical extract can be identified mainly as: a narrator, an academic, a researcher, a writer, a wife and a mother.

KEY WORDS: Identity, Identity construction, Communication, Autobiographical writing, Autobiographical self, Social constructionist theory.

INTRODUCTION

Generally, writing is not only about presenting content, it also entails representation of self. According to Ivanic (1998), the totality of our writing is influenced by our life-histories. She added that each lexical item we employ in writing reflects our encounters or multiple past experiences. Writing is not some neutral activity which we just learn like a physical skill, but it implicates every fibre of the writer's multi-faceted being (ibid). As individuals, we write our stories as a way of constructing lives and claiming identities. Thus, identity and language are linked through personal narratives and life stories. Narrative inquiry focuses on lives and lived experiences. It takes as its object of investigation the story itself (Riessman, 1993) and allows for systematic study of personal experience and meaning. Personal stories, though are not merely a way of telling someone about one's life, but rather they are the means by which identities may be fashioned (Rosenwald & Ochberg, 1992). In the process of talking about ourselves as writers we are influenced by societal values, and attitudes about what writing is, and who writers are (Brandt, 2001; Clark & Ivanic, 1997). Drawing on their conception of the autobiographical self as one aspect of writer identity, Clark and Ivanic suggest that writing is affected by writers' life histories and a sense of their roots even as they write. Life histories shape the sense of self-esteem and status with which they approach all aspects of social life, including writing.

The act of telling an autobiographical narrative is a performance that can position the narrator and the audience in various ways. The narrator assumes a particular version of the social world in which he or she exists and positions himself or herself and the audience with respect to each other. Langellier (2001) and MacLean (1988) theorize narrative as performance in a similar way. In the telling of a personal narrative, the teller creates a two-way narrative contact between teller

and audience. The narrator takes the experience of the narrated event and makes it the experience of those listening to the story. There is a constitutive aspect of narrative, referred to by Butler (1990) as a "performativity". With this concept, the "self" emerges as a person and repeatedly adopts characteristic positions with respect to others and within recognizable cultural patterns in everyday social actions. As the positions that partly constitute the self depend on social contexts that shift over time, and on the unpredictable counter positioning of others, the self is an ongoing, open-ended, and often heterogeneous construction (Wortham, 2001).

The fact is that who we are affects how we write and whatever we are writing, whether it is a letter to a friend, a dissertation or an autobiography. This means the subject positions and social relations which are set up for us as a consequence of our social class, ethnicity, gender, physical build, abilities and disabilities, and the way these are constructed in the socio-cultural context in which we live. These socially-constructed possibilities for self-hood, according to Ivanic (1998), in turn shape our life-history of experiences, events, encounters and opportunities; hopes, fears and disappointments; values, beliefs and allegiances; self-confidence, anxieties and desires, and the tensions and contradictions in our lives (all these have bearing on our writing).

The main claim of this paper is that writing is an act of identity in which people align themselves with socio-culturally shaped subject positions and thereby play their part in reproducing or challenging dominant practices and discourses, and the values, beliefs and interests which they embody.

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES OF THE STUDY
The present study is situated within the social constructionist theory. The choice of this theory is appropriate as it incorporates communication, identity construction and autobiographical writing which are pivotal to the study. As social constructionist theorists have convincingly argued, possibilities for self-hood and the patterns of privileging among them shape and constrain actual people writing actual texts. These possibilities for self-hood do not exist in a vacuum but are themselves shaped by individual acts of writing in which people take on particular discoursal identities.

Bakhtin (1981) theorized that individuals engage in internal dialogue that may aid in the process of constructing and reconstructing ourselves as we struggle to make meaning of experiences and actions. Giddens (1991) points out that the diversity of socially available options for the self is a characteristic of what he calls "the late modern age". What Giddens means is that the self, like the broader institutional contexts in which it exists, has to be reflexively made. Yet this task has to be accomplished amid a puzzling diversity of options and possibilities and against the backdrop of new forms of mediated experience, self-identity becomes a reflexively organised endeavour. The reflexive projection of the self, which consists in the sustaining of coherent, yet continuously revised, biographical narratives, takes place in the context of multiple choices. Giddens' (1991) claim is a powerful way of conceptualizing continuity and change in a person's identity over time. It locates identity in events and experience, rather than perceiving it as a quality or attribute. According to Giddens, the self consists not of a person's life-history, but of

the interpretation they are currently making of their life history. Giddens added that the self is in this way doubly socially constructed: both by the socially constrained nature of the life experience itself, and by the social shaping of the interpretation. Ivanic (1998) suggests that writing makes a particularly tangible contribution to the reflexive projection of the self, with a three-way interplay between the writer's life-experience, their sense of self, and the reality they are constructing through their writing.

People who take a social constructionist view of identity reject the idea that any type of identity – political, sexual, emotional – is solely the product of individuals' minds and intentions, and believe that it is the result of affiliation to particular beliefs and possibilities which are available to them in their social context (Gergen & Davis, 1985). But identity is not socially determined but socially constructed (Ivanic, 1998). This means that the possibilities for the self are not fixed, but open to contestation and change.

A critical view of the social construction of identity not only recognizes the powerful influence of dominant ideologies in controlling and constraining people's sense of themselves, but also recognizes the possibility of struggle for alternative approaches. For individuals alone, contestation of damaging constructions of their identities may well be doomed to failure; however, without this possibility of contesting dominant constructions of reality, our social identities, the prospect for humanity would be extremely bleak. These issues of power and power struggle are relevant to all aspects of the social construction of identity, among which language, literacy and writing exist alongside other forms of social action.

Identities are also linked to language and associated with particular discourses (Gee, 1990). Sarup (1996) suggests that identity is constructed in and through language. Gee (1990) has theorized that this linkage may constitute an identity kit that signals we are members of particular groups. For Gee , discourses are ways of being in the world, or forms of life which integrate words, acts, beliefs, attitudes, social identities, as well as gestures, glances, body positions and clothes. Depending on the setting, we can take on different identities, yet the relational nature of identity suggests that there are relationships between our various selves and with groups. Drawing largely on work around writers and academic writing, Clark and Ivanic (1997) suggest that writers bring with them cultural and linguistic elements related to opportunities and life chances that may provide affordability or lead to failures which in turn impact writer identity. Insistence on standardization by society and schools condemns those who have difficulty with mechanical aspects of written language, and it places teachers in the impossible position of having to perpetuate the hold these beliefs have over society (ibid). Thus, viewing oneself as a writer is related to the sense of power and status writers bring with them as part of their life-history. Writers differ in how much they feel themselves to be not just writers but also authors with the authority to say something.

LITERATURE REVIEW
In this section, the writer places the current study in the context of work done by other researchers with the view of showing how the present study is both similar and different from previous ones. Many studies across a wide spectrum of academic disciplines have focused on identity construction. The present paper looks at the issue of identity construction in autobiographical writing. Kehily (1995) is similar to the present work, in that, it looks at the way people use narratives to construct individual identities through the personal narratives of story-telling and autobiography. However, Kehily goes beyond the current study since it draws upon

the work of the gender and sexuality group that met at the Department of Cultural Studies of the University of Birmingham. The group aimed to explore issues of gender and sexuality in relation to identity construction. Group members identified broad themes collectively then wrote stories individually. They also drew upon and used photographs to reconstruct memories of the past in the context of the present. While the present paper focuses on autobiographical writing, Kehily (1995) relies on the use of stories and self-narration in the process of identity construction.

Ros (2004) also uses narrative accounts to explore intercultural experiences and the perception of the self by second language (L2) users. Extracts from the autobiographies of three Chicano writers from the 1980s: Richard Rodriguez's *Hunger of Memory*, Ilan Stavan's *On Borrowed Words* and Gloria Anzaldua's *Borderlands: La Frontera* were used to illustrate the socialization processes that take place when acquiring a second or third language and the creation of bilingual identities. The current paper is similar to Ros (2004) as the former also uses a narrative extract from a writer's work. However, the latter has a different feature as its data analysis follows post-structuralist and post-modern theories of cultural and language identity. The narrative analysis of Ros (2004) was on the one hand based on the theory of language which highlights the unequal relationships of power between different speakers, and on the other, on the premise that identities are multiple and subject to change over time.

Brockmeier and Carbaugh (2001) look at the issue of narrative identity from the perspective of scholars from psychology, philosophy, social sciences, literary theory, classics, psychiatry, communication and film theory. Brockmeier and Carbaugh's work was based on views on the importance of narrative as an expressive embodiment of our experience, as a mode of communication and as a form for understanding the world and ultimately ourselves. Brockmeier and Carbaugh (2001) share some similarity with Kehily (1995) and Ros (2004) in the sense that they all focus on the process of autobiographical identity construction. What all the writers highlight is that the construction of self draws on a particular genre of language usage: narration.

Afful and Mwinlaaru (2010) explored the connection between identity construction and the linguistic features of a Master's Dissertation acknowledgement, written by a student of Literary Studies. The element of similarity between Afful and Mwinlaaru (2010) and the present study is that both writers of the Dissertation Acknowledgement and the autobiographical extract, vary linguistic choices at the lexical, grammatical and discoursal levels, in order to construct numerous and different identities. However, the area of distinction between the current study and Afful and Mwinlaaru (2010) is that while the latter applied identity theory from social psychology and social language from Applied Linguistics in analyzing the data, the former was conducted within the social constructionist theory.

Mpungose (2010) investigated the construction of professional identities of Principals in the education service through life stories. According to him, such identities are constructed and developed over an extended period of time, ranging from the time of the principals' entry into the teaching profession to their appointment as school managers and leaders. While the current study did both literary and linguistic analysis of an autobiographical piece of writing, Mpungose (2010) used a life history approach to collect data from six selected school principals in KwaZulu–Natal in South Africa. Mpungose (2010) discovered that the principals constructed their professional

IJLLALW

identities from their personal and professional knowledge. The study also revealed that professional identity involves professional socialization and development which according to Brott & Kays (2001) is a social learning process that includes the acquisition of specific knowledge and skills that are required in a professional role and the development of new values, attitudes and self-identity components.

Mpungose (2010) is similar to Eliot and Turns (2011) in the area of professional identity construction. However, while the former was based on employees in the education service, the later investigated engineering students. Eliot and Turns (2011) explored the process students employed during portfolio construction to identify themselves as engineers and as future professionals. Analysis of the survey responses revealed that participants had two primary frames of reference for the construction of professional identity during portfolio creation. The external frame of reference which focused on students' understanding of the expectations of potential employers and recruiters and the internal frame of reference which focused on students' emerging realizations of their own values and interests as professional engineers.

While Afful and Mwinlaaru (2010) and the current study analyzed written texts, Mieroop (2008) investigated the way speakers constructed their identities as representatives of their companies (institutional identity construction) in relation to the way they projected an identity onto their audiences. The speaker then presented his company in the complementary role of seller of a product and as such a link is established between the identities of the speaker's company and the audience. This discursive co-construction of identities is crucial for the way both identities received meaning. The two cases, on one hand, show similarities in the general pattern of the two identity constructions and the way they are interwoven with one another, but on the other hand also demonstrate that there are many unique and diverging ways of constructing and linking identities.

DATA SOURCE AND SAMPLE

The data used in the present study is an autobiographical extract from the introduction to the book entitled *Writing and Identity: The discoursal construction of identity in academic writing* (Ivanic, 1998). The writer devoted the initial part of the detailed and impressive introduction to her book to communicating her identities before she touched on issues pertaining to the content of her book. The autobiographical segment of the introduction is an exposition of who the writer really is. The autobiographical extract can be seen below:

[1]*Who am I as I write this book?* [2]*I am not a neutral, objective scribe conveying the objective results of my research impersonally in my writing.* [3]*I am bringing to it a variety of commitments based on my interests, values and beliefs which are built up from my own history as a white English woman aged 51 from a middle class family, as an adult educator in multi-ethnic, central London in the 1970s and 80s, as a wife and mother, as someone who only seriously engaged with the academic community in my late thirties, now a lecturer in a department of linguistics, teaching and researching in the field of language, literacy and education.* [4]*I am a writer with a multiple social identity, tracing a path between competing ideologies and their associated discourses.* [5]*I have an idea of the sort of person I want to appear in the pages of this book: responsible, imaginative, insightful, rigorous, committed to making my research relevant to adults who return to study.* [6]*At any rate, that is the sort of person I think I want to be as a member of the academic discourse community.* [7]*I would want to appear responsible, imaginative, insightful, rigorous and committed in most of my social roles, but not all.* [8]*For*

example, I'm not sure how important it is to me in my role as a mother to be rigorous. [9]*There are also parts of my identity as a mother which I do not think I portray in my academic writing, such as being loving.* [10]*As the coordinator of the Language Support Unit at Kingsway College in London for 11 years, as instructor in developmental education at San Joaquin Delta College, Stockton, California for a year, and as someone involved in the various developments in the UK National Adult Literacy Campaign since 1974, I see the purpose of my professional life–my vocation-as contributing to work which helps adults develop the Literacy Research Group at Lancaster University.* [11]*My reason for focusing on writing rather than any other aspect of their studying process is that students themselves perceive writing as their main stumbling block.*

The extract above illustrates the writer's autobiographical self which according to Ivanic (1998) is associated with a writer's sense of his roots, of where he is coming from, and that this identity he brings with him to writing is itself socially constructed and constantly changing as a consequence of his developing life–history.

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION
Qualitative researchers use the life history approach to gather events and happenings in people's lives as their data and then use its analytical procedures to produce explanatory stories (Polkinghorne, 1995). The present study uses literary and linguistic analysis and interpretive approaches to unearth the identities of the writer of the autobiographical extract under discussion. Generally, writers see themselves to a greater or lesser extent as authors. This aspect of writer identity is associated with the writer's "voice" in the sense of the writer's position, opinions and beliefs. In the written mode of communication, the self as author is particularly significant since writers differ considerably in how far they claim authority as the source of the content of the text, and in how far they establish an authorial presence in their writing.

The extract in focus is a narrative account written by a scholar, depicting her life and character (Murfin & Ray, 1998). The extract is introduced by the rhetorical question, *"who am I as I write this book?"* The obvious answers to this fundamental identity question can be found within the context of the extract and they define the writer's identities (Stryker & Serpe, 1982). In the extract, the writer communicates her identities through the first person pronoun *"I".* The writer is the narrative voice (the persona) telling a story about herself. The extract is therefore written in the first person narrative point of view (Torto, 2005). This is a narrative technique in which the narrator appears as the pronoun *"I",* recollecting his or her experiences. One advantage of the first person narrative style is that the reader is likely to accept what the narrator presents in the text.

The second sentence of the extract *"I am not a neutral objective scribe conveying the objective results of my research impersonally in my writing"* sets the stage for a subjective presentation of the writer's identities. The extract is about the writer's life; it is therefore presented from a personal or individual point of view. The writer draws heavily on her own experiences, feeling and thinking in the construction of her identities. The word *"scribe"* in the second sentence is an archaic form. It is no longer in current use in the English language. By the use of archaism in the extract, the writer has evoked an image or attitude associated with the past.

IJLLALW

The third sentence of the extract is long and complex. The first structure *"I am brining to it a variety of commitments based on my interests, values and beliefs"* is an independent clause which is introducing the sudden outburst of identities. In the clause, the phrase *"my interest, values and beliefs"* is indicative of the writer's subjective stance. What follows the independent clause is a relative clause *"which are built up from my own history"* which is post-modifying *"my interests, values and beliefs"*. Again, the writer sounds subjective with reference to *"my own history"*. There is a spontaneous expression of multiple identities presented in parallel structures: *"as a white English woman aged 51 from a middle class family, as an adult educator in multi-ethnic, central London in the 1970s and 80s, as a wife and mother, as someone who only seriously engaged with the academic community in my late thirties, now a lecturer in a department of linguistics, teaching and researching in the field of language, literacy and education"*. The writer has employed parallelism, a rhetorical device, by presenting her ideas in grammatically similar constructions. Parallel constructions create a sense of balance that can be meaningful and revealing. By using parallelism, writers implicitly invite their readers to pay attention to the parallel elements or ideas (Murfin & Ray, 1998). The writer of the current extract has presented a litany of identities based on her life-history. This multiplicity of identities is in consonance with identity theorists who argue that the self consists of a collection of identities, each of which is based on occupying a particular role (Stryker, 1968; Stryker & Burke, 2000). These role identities are said to influence behavior in that each role has a set of associated meanings and expectations for the self (Burke & Reitzes, 1981).

The fourth sentence *"I am a writer with a multiple social identity, tracing a path between competing ideologies and their associated discourses"* introduces another dimension to identity construction in the extract: social identity. While identity theory focuses on the self as comprised of the various roles an individual occupies, social identity theory, on the other hand, postulates that the groups to which people belong can provide their members a definition of who they are (Hogg, Terry, & White, 1995).

In the fifth sentence, the writer also enacts multiple identities. She uses series of adjectives to depict a list of attributes: *"I have an idea of the sort of person I want to appear in the pages of this book: responsible, imaginative, insightful, rigorous, committed to making my research relevant to adults who return to study."* Sentence six emphasizes the writer's conviction to enact the qualities she has mentioned in the fifth sentence: *"At any rate, that is the sort of person I think I want to be as a member of the academic discourse community"*. The seventh sentence reiterates the attributes *"I would want to appear responsible, imaginative, insightful, rigorous and committed in most of my social roles but not all."* In literary analysis, repetition is for emphasis. The writer is therefore stressing these identities and by this style he is placing them at the forecourt of the readers' attention.

The eighth sentence *"For example, I'm not sure how important it is to me in my role as a mother to be rigorous"* is complementing the contrastive structure *"but not all"* that ends the seventh sentence. The writer thinks she should make some exceptions in relation to the multiple attributes she has already mentioned. She thinks she can be a rigorous academic; however, in the ninth sentence she modifies the generalization of her rigorous identity; she adds another identity *"loving mother"*.The five identities: responsible, imaginative, insightful, rigorous and committed to research, portray the writer as an academic; nevertheless, she appeals to the reader to consider her social role as a mother as loving.

Sentence ten, like sentence three above, is long and complex. Sentence ten is in two parts: The first part comprises similarly constructed grammatical structures arranged in a sequence suggesting some correspondence between them. The writer, again, employs the parallelism device at this part of the extract to present her multiple identities: "*As the coordinator of the Language Support Unit at Kingsway College in London for 11 years, as instructor in developmental education at San Joaquin Delta College, Stockton, California for a year, and as someone involved in the various developments in the UK National Adult Literacy Campaign since 1974, I see the purpose of my professional life–my vocation-as contributing to work which helps adults develop the Literacy Research Group at Lancaster University.*" Although repetition often plays an important role in establishing parallelism, the device is used in this context with subtle variations. The parallel structures are expressing a similar idea and they serve as introduction to the second part of sentence ten which is the main clause: *"I see the purpose of my professional life-my vocation–as contributing to work which helps adults develop the Literacy Research Group at Lancaster University."* This clause is indeed independent and it is stating a fact about the writer's autobiographical self (my professional life – my vocation). The clause also accentuates the writer's contribution to knowledge. The writer's subjective stance in the extract is also realised in the clause.

The eleventh and final sentence of this autobiography states the reason for the writer's choice of vocation: *"My reason for focusing on writing rather than any other aspect of their studying process is that students themselves perceive writing as their main stumbling block"*. It is obvious that the writer has observed that students' interests, attitude and knowledge in writing leaves much to be desired. The writer has chosen her profession in order to render a helping hand to students in the area of writing. The eleventh sentence is the epilogue of the display of multiple identities by the writer.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS
The current study has analysed the autobiographical section of the introduction to a book on writing and identity. The writer of the autobiography communicated her multiple identities by varying her lexical items and grammatical structures. The method of analysis was a combination of literary, linguistic and interpretive approaches. The study was conducted within the framework of the social constructionist theory which posits that self–hood shapes and constrains writing. Social constructionist theorists are also of the view that identity is located in events and experiences and that the "self" is socially constructed by the socially constrained nature of the life experience itself. The findings of the study were the multiple identities that were constructed by the writer through her autobiographical writing. The writer's identities were constructed through the roles she performed in her professional life. The roles range from personal, academic, institutional, literary to social.

The current study has established series of facts concerning writing and identity. First, personal stories are the means by which identities may be fashioned. Second, a writer's autobiographical self at any moment in time is the product of their past experience and encounters in all their richnes and complexity. Third, a writer's autobiographical self is constantly evolving over time. Fourth, a writer may construct a quite different discoursal self from one text to another,

IJLLALW

depending partly on the different demands of different occasions for writing. Finally, the autobiographical self is perhaps the closest thing to what people mean by "my identity" since this is unique to each individual.

The present paper has a number of implications. In the first place, it has implications for the theories of identity and social construction as it proves the fact that identity construction is a multi-faceted dynamic process embedded in social structure and manifested in discourse. Secondly, this paper contributes to the "self" in autobiographical writing. The paper has proved that who we are affects how we write and whatever we are writing. The paper also claimed that writing is an act of identity and that autobiographical self is the identity which people bring with them to any act of writing and this is shaped by their social and discoursal history. Finally, this paper stimulates interest in research in literary analysis of academic texts.

REFERENCES

Afful, A.B.J., & Mwinlaaru, N.I. (2010). The Construction of Multiple Identities in the Acknowledgement Section of a Masters Dissertation. *English for Specific Purposes World, 30 (9)*,1-26.

Bakhtin, M.M. (1981). *The dialogic imagination.* Austin, TX: University of Texas Press.

Brandt, D. (2001). *Literacy in American Lives.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Brockmeier, J., & Carbaugh, D. (2001). *Narrative and identity: Studies in autobiography, Self and Culture.* The Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Co.

Brott, P.E., & Kajs, L.T. (2001). *Developing the Professional Identity of First-Year Teachers through a "Working Alliance".* Retrieved on 3 March 2006 from www.alt.teacherCert.org.

Burke, P.J., & Reitzes, D.C. (1981). The link between identity and role performance. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 44*, 83-92.

Butler, J. (1990). *Gender trouble: Feminism and the subversion of Identity.* New York: Routledge.

Clark, R., & Ivanic, R. (1997). *The Politics of writing.* New York: Routledge.

Eliot M., & Turns, J. (2011). Constructing Professional Portfolios: Sense-Making and Professional Identity Developement for Engineering Undergraduates. *Journal of Engineering Education, Oct. ed., 100 (4),* 630-654.

Gee, J.P. (1990). *Social Linguistics and Literacies: Ideology in discourses.* New York: Falmer Press.

Gergen, K. J., & Davis, K. E. (eds.). (1985). *The Social Construction of the Person.* New York: Springer-Verlag.

Giddens, A. (1991). *Modernity and self-identity: Self and Society in the Late Modern Age.* Cambridge: Polity Press.

Hogg, M., Terry, D., & White, K. (1995). A tale of two theories: A Critical Comparison of identity theory with Social Identity theory. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 58,* 255-269.

Ivanic, R. (1998). *Writing and Identity: The Discoursal Construction of Identity in Academic Writing.* The Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Kehily, M.J. (1995). Self-narration, Autobiography and identity construction. *Gender and Education, 7 (1),* 23-32.

Langelier, K.M. (2001). "You're Marked!": Breast Cancer, tattoo, and the narrative performance of identity. In J. Brockmeier & D. Carbaugh (Eds.), *Narrative and Identity: Studies in Autobiography, Self and Culture (PP. 145-184).* Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Maclean, M. (1988). *Narrative as performance: The Baudelairean experiment.* London: Routledge.

McCarthey, S., & Moje, E. (2002). Identity Matters. *Reading Research Quarterly, 37*, 228-238.

Mieroop, D.V.D. (2008). Co-Constructing Identities in Speeches: How the Construction of an 'Other' identity is defining for the self identity and Vice Versa. *Pragmatics, 18 (3),* 491-509.

Mpungose, J. (2010). Constructing Principals' Professional Identities through life stories: An exploration. *South African Journal of Education, 30,*527-537.

Murfin, R., & Ray, M.S. (1998). *The Bedford Glossary of Critical and Literary terms.* New York: Bedford Books.

Polkinghorne, D.E. (1995). Narrative Configuration in Qualitative Analysis. In: Hatch JA & Wisnieswski, R (eds). *Life History and Narrative.* London: Falmer Press.

Riessman, C.K. (1993). *Narrative analysis.* Newbury Park, C.A.: Sage Publications.

Ros, S.C. (2004). Autobiographical Accounts of L2 Identity Construction in Chicano Literature. *Language and Intercultural Communication, 4(4),* 229-241.

Rosenwald, G., & Ochberg, R. (Eds.). (1992). *Storied Lives: Cultural Conditions of Self understanding.* New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Sarup, M. (1996). *Identity, Culture, and the Postmodern world.* Athens, GA: University of Georgia Press.

Stryker, S., & Serpe. (1982). Commitment, Identity Salience and role behaviour. Theory and research example. In W.Ickes & E.S. Knowles (Eds.). *Personality, Roles and Social Behaviour.* New York: Springer-Verlag.

Stryker, S. (1968). Identity Salience and role performance: The importance of Symbolic Interaction theory for family Research. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 30*, 558-564.

Stryker, S., & Burke, P.J. (2000). The Past, present and future of identity theory. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 63,* 284-297.

Torto, T.R. (2005). *General Knowledge of Literature: Introduction to literary devices, terms and concepts.* Cape Coast, Ghana: Nyakod Printing Works.

Wortham, S. (2001). *Narratives in action: A Strategy for research and analysis.* New York: Teachers College Press.

MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES AS PREDICTORS OF SELF-EFFICACY

Abbas Ali Zarei
Imam Khomeini International University, Qazvin, Iran,
Email: aazarei@ikiu.ac.ir

Sakineh Taheri
Islamic Azad University, Takestan Branch, Iran,
Email: staheri6141@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT
The present study was conducted to investigate types of intelligences as predictors of self-efficacy (general self-efficacy). The participants were 148 male and female Iranian B.A. students majoring in teaching of English as a foreign language (TEFL) and Translation at Takestan Azad University, Zanjan University, Zanjan Azad University, Payame Noor University of Zanjan, Payame Noor University of Abhar, and Shaheed Rajaee Teacher Training University. The instruments included a 100-item Michigan test, Gardner's MI questionnaire, and a 12-item General Self-efficacy scale. Data were analyzed through multiple regression analyses. Results indicated that musical and linguistic intelligences were predictors of general self-efficacy.

KEY WORDS: Multiple Intelligences, self-efficacy, general self-efficacy.

INTRODUCTION
The Multiple Intelligences Theory (MIT), proposed in the early 1980s by Gardner, provided evidence that there are several independent ability areas, unlike traditional general intelligence concentrating on a narrow range of two logical-mathematical and linguistic intelligences. He redefined the concept of intelligence as a "biopsychological potential to process information that can be activated in a cultural setting to solve problems or create products that are of value in a culture" (Gardner, 1999, pp. 33-34).

Most previous studies in the field of second and foreign language learning have been conducted from the learners' perspective, and learners play a vital role in investigations. The application of multiple intelligences theory (MIT) is suggested as a structured way to address and understand the holistic nature of learners' diversity (Christison, 1996; Arnold & Fonseka, 2004). Besides MIs, another issue of increasing importance is learner beliefs about their potentials known as self-efficacy (SE). Bandura (1997) defines self-efficacy as "the belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations" (p. 3).

Although many studies have been conducted on MI and self-efficacy, few of them have explored the interrelationship between MI and self-efficacy, especially in foreign language learning situations. This justifies the need for studies relating MI theory aimed at fostering learners' intelligence profiles to learners' self-efficacy. Therefore, the present study aims to answer the following research question: Which type of multiple intelligences is a better predictor of generalized self-efficacy?

LITERATURE REVIEW
Multiple Intelligences

During the last two decades, Gardner's MIs has been appreciated in language learning. Gardner (1983) suggested several intelligences to be at work simultaneously; so he changed the perception of a general factor of intelligence. He claims that humans possess a number of distinct intelligences that are manifested in different skills and abilities. Gardner (1983) believes that each person possesses at least seven basic intelligences. Armstrong (2002, p. 6) explained these intelligences as follows:

Linguistic intelligences: the ability to use words effectively.
Logical/mathematical intelligence: the capacity to use numbers and reason effectively.
Spatial intelligence: the ability to recognize form, space, color, line, and shape.
Bodily/kinesthetic intelligence: the ability to use body to express ideas and produce things.
Musical: The ability to recognize and perceive musical forms.
Interpersonal intelligence: the ability to understand the feeling and intention of other people.
Intrapersonal intelligence: the ability of self-knowledge and self-understanding.

Haley (2004) showed that through the implementation of MIT, students achieve greater success rates and develop a high degree of satisfaction and positive attitude toward the content. To find empirical evidence for this claim, a number of investigations have been done. Green's study (1999) supports this view by finding that the MI-based classrooms successfully produced environments with rich materials in which learners were motivated in the process of their learning. Temiz and Kiraz (2007) tried to find out whether the implementation of MIT has any effect on Literacy Education (LE). The results showed a positive relationship between them.

In another study, IKiz and Çakar (2010) studied the relationship between multiple intelligences and the academic achievement levels. Academic achievement scores turned out to be related to students' multiple intelligences. Results also contribute awareness to the self knowledge and self-efficacy of the students and to developing programs to improve their academic achievement.

The MIT, which provides a new approach in education, is the most important theory in the area of personal development area (Tirri & Komulainen, 2002). Nowadays, teachers apply the MI-based educational program since it addresses a variety of ways people learn (Shore, 2004; Kallenbach, 1999). The relationship between multiple intelligences and the learning of second language skills is a burgeoning area of research. In this regard, Ahmadian and Hosseini (2012) showed a statistically significant relationship between L2 learners' MI and their writing performance. In another study, Marefat (2007) concluded that kinesthetic, existential, and interpersonal intelligences were the best predictors of writing scores. However, Sadeghi and Farzizadeh (2012) indicated contrary results, that the components of MI did not have a significant relationship with the writing ability of the participants. Similarly, *Hajhashemi* and Eng (*2012*) reported no significant correlation between MI and the performance in reading competency.

In a study by Panahi (2011), the relationship between MI and the grammar knowledge of male and female EFL learners was examined. Results showed a significant relationship between MI of the learners and their grammar knowledge. In another study, Zarei and Mohseni (2012)

investigated the relationship between four types of intelligence and grammatical and writing accuracy of EFL learners. The results indicated that intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences were predictors of grammar accuracy, and intrapersonal intelligence was also a significant predictor of the learners' writing accuracy.

Another aspect of MI theory is the relationship between MIs and language learning strategies. In this regards, Hajhashemi, et al., (2011) reported a low positive correlation between MI and different strategy types. It was also revealed that the highest correlation was between meta-cognitive strategies and MI, followed by compensation and cognitive strategies.

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is grounded in a larger theoretical framework known as Social Cognitive Theory (SCT), in which there are bidirectional interactions between the cognitive, behavioral and environmental or situational contexts (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Self-efficacy beliefs are not a stable attribute of an individual, but they are an active and learned system of beliefs held in context. The concept of self-efficacy is concerned with judgments of one's capability to produce a given pattern of behavior (Schunk, 1981).

According to Bandura (1994, 1997) and Bandura et al., (2003), learners can construct their self-efficacy beliefs through four sources of experiences including mastery experiences, vicarious experience or modeling, social persuasion, and physiological and emotional states. Mastery experiences are the most influential factor for developing self-efficacy and it helps learners determine the level of effort necessary for a success (Bandura, 1997).

The concept of self-efficacy has been widely investigated in various aspects of second and foreign language learning. Pintrich and De Groot (1990) showed that self-efficacy facilitated cognitive engagement. The study conducted by Mohsenpour, et al., (2008) revealed a negative relationship between self-efficacy and learning strategies. However some other researchers were against this claim by finding a positive relationship between these variables (e.g. Ames & Archer, 1988; Elliot, 1999).

Carroll, et al., (2009) examined the structural relations among self-efficacy, and academic aspirations. The results showed that academic self-efficacy and self-regulatory efficacy had a strong relationship with academic achievement. However, a negative relationship between social self-efficacy and academic achievement was reported. According to Newby-Fraser and Schlebusch (1997), self-efficacy has a significant negative correlation with level of stress.

General self-efficacy

Although Bandura (1997) originally focused on task-specific self-efficacy with a stronger predictive power than general self-efficacy, numerous experiences in different domains of functioning have generated more generalized beliefs of self-efficacy that have explanatory value as well (Bosscher & Smit, 1998). This has been supported by many studies (Chen, et al., 2001; Scholz, et al,. 2002; Sherer, et al., 1982; *Yildirim* & Ilhan, 2010). General self-efficacy (GSE) refers to a broad and stable sense of personal competence which effectively deals with a variety of stressful situations (*Luszczynska*, et al., 2005; Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995; Sherer, et al., 1982).

Multiple Intelligences and Self-Efficacy

Many studies (Chan, 2007; Mikolajczak & Luminet, 2007; Penrose, Perry & Ball, 2007; Rastegar & Memarpour, 2009) have explored the connection of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy of teachers. In this regard, Penrose, et al., (2007) and Rastegar and Memarpour, (2009) concluded that there is a positive significant relationship between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy of teachers. Another study (Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009) in Iranian context supported the findings of this study, reporting a significant relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy while three subscales of emotional intelligence were found to be good predictors of teachers' self-efficacy. Chan (2007) also found that individuals who exhibited higher emotional intelligence had higher self-efficacy. However, Nikoopour, et al., (2012) concluded that all subconstructs of trait EI were moderate predictors of self-efficacy. In an attempt to investigate the effect of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy beliefs on high school students' achievement, Yazici, Seyis and Altun (2011) found gender, age and self-efficacy as the major predictors of learners' academic achievement.

Through the use of MI, students' sense of responsibility and efficacy as learners will be improved (Kolata, 2003). Traub (1998) showed that MI theory should be implemented with caution since educators have adapted MIT and applied its concepts in class without evidence about its efficacy. Many studies have examined the relationship between multiple intelligences and self-efficacy of learners.

Young (2003) suggested a new approach to improving mathematics achievement by the integration of MIT and self-efficacy theory. He claimed that learning through intellectual strengths increases students' mathematics achievement both directly from their increased understanding and indirectly by raising students' self-efficacy for mathematics.

Teacher self-efficacy construct, which refers to teachers' beliefs about their abilities to control the reinforcement of their actions within themselves or in the environment (Bandura, 1977; Rotter, 1990), plays a major role across diverse teaching conditions (Klassen, et al., 2009). It has been related to students' own sense of efficacy (Anderson, Greene, & Loewen, 1988; Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998) as well as student outcomes such as achievement and motivation (Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998). In Yazdanimoghaddam and Khoshroodi's (2010) study, the possible relationship between English language teachers' teaching efficacy and their multiple intelligences were examined. Based on the results, it was concluded that the linguistic and musical intelligences were the two main predictors of teachers' teaching efficacy whereas the other domains of intelligences, although intercorrelated, did not significantly contribute to the construct of teachers' teaching efficacy.

Mahasneh (2013) investigated the relationship between multiple intelligence and self-efficacy of students. Results indicated that there was a significant positive correlation between self regulatory and the bodily/kinesthetic, intrapersonal, logical, interpersonal, visual, musical, existential, and verbal linguistic intelligences. In another study, Beichner (2011) showed a relationship between multiple intelligences and students' academic self-efficacy. He reported higher self-efficacy for students in classrooms where teachers used two of their three dominant MI than the other two groups: classrooms where the teacher used one of their three dominant MI and the group in which none of students' dominant MI were emphasized. To conclude, although

there are a number of studies that explore the relationship between self-efficacy and multiple intelligences, they are few, and there are still some gaps.

RESEARCH QUESTION

In order to fill the above mentioned gaps, this study aims to answer the following research question:

Which type of multiple intelligences is a better predictor of generalized self-efficacy?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

This study was conducted with 148 male and female Iranian B.A. students majoring in TEFL and Translation at Islamic Azad University of Takestan, Zanjan University, Islamic Azad University of Zanjan, Payame Noor University of Zanjan, Payame Noor University of Abhar, and Shaheed Rajaee Teacher Training University.

Instruments

In this study, the following instruments were utilized: An already stablished MTELP (Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency) was used to specify the participants' level of proficiency and to homogenize them. It included 100 multiple choice items consisting of 40 grammar items; 40 vocabulary items; and four reading passages followed by 20 reading comprehension items.

A Multiple Intelligences questionnaire, based on Howard Gardner's MI Model, was administered to the participants to specify their intelligence profile. It measured seven dimensions of Gardner's MI theory. It comprised a set of 35 statements with 5 statements for assessing each of the intelligences.This questionnaire is available at http://www.businessballs.com/freepdfmaterials /free_multiple_intelligences_test_young_people.pdf

Furthermore, a general self-efficacy, consisting of 12 items, which is the modified version of Sherer's General Self-efficacy (SGSES) was administered, with reported range of internal consistency of α= 0.69 (Bosscher & Smit, 1998).

Procedure

Initially, the MTELP was utilized; those students whose scores were less than one standard deviation away from (mean = 30.425, SD=10.7) the mean were selected as the sample of the present study. As a result, 32 of the participants were excluded, leaving a total number of 148 numbers.

In another session, Gardner's MI questionnaire and generalized self-efficacy were administered. The participants were required to complete both questionnaires by choosing among 5 alternatives, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

The research question attempted to see which types of MIs are predictors of general self-efficacy scale. To this end, a multiple regression analysis was used. The results of the descriptive statistics are presented in Table 1.

A correlation coefficient was run between general self-efficacy of the students and their types of MI to see the degree of the relationship between them. Of all the seven predictors, only linguistic and musical intelligences account for a statistically significant correlation with general self-efficacy ($r_{linguistic}$ = .249, $p < .05$; $r_{musical}$ = .287, $p < .05$).

The result of the model summary (Table 2) shows that musical intelligence shared 8 % of variance with general self-efficacy while, together, the linguistic and musical intelligences account for around 14% of the total variance with general self-efficacy.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics for general self-efficacy and multiple intelligences

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
GSE	38.2905	7.53699	148
Linguistic	2.8176	1.31985	148
Logical/math	2.8514	1.03256	148
Musical	2.9797	1.17496	148
Bodily/kinesthetic	3.5068	1.22611	148
Spatial / visual	3.0608	1.10796	148
Interpersonal	3.6622	1.09764	148
Intrapersonal	3.3378	1.23748	148

Table 2: Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.287[a]	.082	.076	7.24414
2	.382[b]	.146	.134	7.01293

a. Predictors: (Constant), musical

b. Predictors: (Constant), musical, linguistic

c. Dependent Variable: GSE

Based on Table 3, the results of the ANOVA ($F_{(1, 146)}$ = 13.12, $p < .05$; $F_{(2, 145)}$ = 12.39, $p < .05$) show that the predictive power of both models is significant.

Table 3: ANOVA[c] on general self-efficacy

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.

IJLLALW

1	Regression	688.778	1	688.778	13.125	.000[a]
	Residual	7661.729	146	52.478		
	Total	8350.507	147			
2	Regression	1219.236	2	609.618	12.395	.000[b]
	Residual	7131.271	145	49.181		
	Total	8350.507	147			

a. Predictors: (Constant), musical

b. Predictors: (Constant), musical, linguistic

c. Dependent Variable: GSE

Table 4: Coefficients[a] of Multiple Intelligences

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	32.801	1.628		20.148	.000
	musical	1.842	.509	.287	3.623	.000
2	(Constant)	28.692	2.012		14.258	.000
	musical	1.860	.492	.290	3.779	.000
	linguistic	1.439	.438	.252	3.284	.001

a. Dependent Variable: GSE

Table 4 contains the unstandardaized as well as standardized coefficients of the two models, along with the observed t-values and significance levels. The first model shows that for every one standard deviation of change in one's musical intelligence, there will be about .28 of a standard deviation change in one's general self-efficacy. The second model shows that when musical and linguistic intelligences are taken together, for every one standard deviation change in ones musical and linguistic intelligences, there will be .29 and .25 of a standard deviation change in one's general self-efficacy, respectively. Meanwhile, all the standardized coefficients are statistically significant.

These results indicate that two types of intelligences including musical and linguistic intelligences are predictors of general self-efficacy.

Discussion
The findings of some previous studies are partially similar to the results of the present study, in that they also emphasize MI as predictors of self-efficacy. Yazdanimoghaddam and Khoshroodi (2010) concluded that linguistic and musical intelligences are the two main predictors of teachers' teaching efficacy. This is in partial accordance with the findings of the present study since the same two types of intelligences turned out to be predictors of general self-efficacy.

Furthermore, the findings of the present study partially approve those of Shore (2001). Shore (2001) investigated the relationship between MI and students' self-efficacy. It was concluded that MI-based classrooms would have a positive effect on self- efficacy in ESL courses. Although a relationship was found between MIs and self-efficacy, the present study does not lend full support to that finding. Shore's study showed a relationship between writing self-efficacy and interpersonal, intrapersonal, bodily-kinesthetic, and linguistic intelligences.

A number of factors might have contributed to the results obtained in this study. This study was conducted with a small sample size of participants (180) while in studies like Mahasneh (2013), the number of participants was 576, and in Carroll, et al., (2009), the participants included 935 learners. The other possible factor resulting in different findings may be gender differences. In the present study, gender was not considered as a variable, but the previous studies on multiple intelligences like Nikoopour, et al., (2012), Schneider and Arikan (2009), and Razmjoo (2008), Hanafiyeh (2013) have emphasized gender differences among the participants in MI-based instruction. Another possible factor, which was not controlled in the present study, includes learners' level of proficiency; this study was conducted with B.A level students.

CONCLUSION

The present study attempted to investigate types of multiple intelligences as predictors of self-efficacy. Findings showed that musical and linguistic intelligences are predictors of general self-efficacy. Based on the results of this research, it is concluded that learners' multiple intelligences made a contribution to predicting self-efficacy and some of the intelligence types are a better predictor of self-efficacy. This means that the enhancement of learners' MI will increase their level of self-efficacy and attention to learners MI profiles will raise learners' beliefs about their ability.

Implications

The findings of the present study may have implications for teachers, learners and materials developers. The findings of the present study seem to imply that teachers find better ways to help learners explore their ability as language learners and support them in developing their sense of self-efficacy. And it helps learners and teachers in planning activities to relate students' self-efficacy and their MI profiles and support learners with the best possible instruction. It also has some implications for materials developers and syllabus designers in developing materials and course books to improve the specific MI types that are directly related to self-efficacy.

LIMITATONS OF THE STUDY

There were a number of limitations in this study. One of the most important ones was finding homogenous students at the same level of language proficiency. In this study, the participants were homogenized in terms of their language proficiency based on their obtained score on the Michigan test; other elements affecting their proficiency level were not considered here.

Furthermore, the participants were selected from among B.A. level learners of English majoring in TEFL and translation. Therefore, care must be exercised in generalizing the results to other learners.

Finally, the participants of the present study included both female and male learners; so gender was not a variable. Besides this variable, the findings of the study may have been affected by some other variables like cultural and social factors, which were not considered in this study.

REFERENCES

Ahmadian, M., & Hosseini, S. (2012). A study of the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' Multiple Intelligences and their performance on writing. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, *3 (1),* 111-126.

Anderson, R. N., Greene, M. L., & Loewen, P. S. (1988). Relationships among teachers' and students' thinking skills, sense of efficacy, and student achievement. *The Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, *34,* 148–165.

Ames, C., & Archer, J. (1988). Achievement goals in classroom: Students' learning strategies and motivation processes. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *80 (3),* 160-167.

Armstrong, T. (2002). *Multiple intelligences in the classroom*. (3rd edition). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Alexandria, Virginia USA.

Arnold, J., & Fonseca Mora, M.C. (2004). Multiple intelligence theory and foreign language learning: A brain-based perspective. *IJES*, *4 (1),* 119-136.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review, 84 (2)*, 191-215.

Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V. S. Ramachaudran (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of human behavior* (Vol. 4, pp.71-81). New York: Academic Press.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.

Bandura, A., Caprara, G. V., Barbaranelli, C., Gerbino, M., & Pastorelli, C. (2003). Role of affective self-regulatory efficacy in diverse spheres of psychosocial functioning. *Child Development*, *74,* 769-782.

Beichner, R. A. (2011). *The Relationship between students' academic self-efficacy and teachers' multiple intelligences instructional practices* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database.

Bosscher, R. J., & Smit, J. H. (1998).*Confirmatory factor analysis of the General Self-Efficacy Scale. Behaviour Research and Therapy*, *36,* 339-343.

Carroll, A., Houghton, S., Wood, R., Unsworth, K., Hattie, J., Gordon, L., & Bower, J. (2009). Self-efficacy and academic achievement in Australian high school students: The mediating effects of academic aspirations and delinquency. *Journal of Adolescence*, *32 (4),* 797-817.

Chan, D. W. (2007). Emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, and coping among Chinese prospective and in-service teachers in Hong Kong. *Educational Psychology*, 28(4), 397-408.

Chen, G., Gully, S. M., & Eden, D. (2001). Validation of a new general self-efficacy scale. *Organizational Research Methods, 4 (1),* 62-68.

Christison, M. A. (1996). Teaching and learning languages through multiple intelligences. *TESOL Journal*, *6 (1),* 10-14.

Elliott, A. J. (1999). Approach and avoidance motivation and achievement goals. *Educational Psychologis*t*, 34 (3),* 169-189.

Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of Mind: The theory of multiple intelligences*. New York: Basic Books.

Gardner, H. (1999). *Intelligence reframed: Multiple intelligences for the 21st century*. New York: Basic Books.

Green, F E. (1999). Brain and learning research: Implications for meeting the needs of diverse learners. *Education*, *119 (4),* 682-687.

Hajhashemi, k., & Bee Eng, W. (2012) MI as a predictor of students' performance in reading competency. *English Language Teaching*, *5 (3),* 240-251.

Hajhashemi, K., Yazdi Amirkhiz, S. Y., & Parasteh Ghombavani, F. (2011). The relationship between Iranian EFL high school students' multiple intelligence scores and their use of learning strategies. *English Language Teaching*, *4(3),* 214-222.

Haley, M. H. (*2004*). *Learner- centered instruction* and the theory of multiple intelligences with second language learners. *Teachers College Record*, 106(1), 163-180.

Hanafiyeh, M. (2013). The relationship between Iranian EFL learners ' MI and success in foreign language learning. *Asian Journal of Management Sciences & Education*, *2(1),*197- 1105.

IKiZ, F. E., & ÇAKAR, F .S. (2010). The Relationship between Multiple Intelligences and academic achievements of second grade students. *Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, 2(3),* 83-92.

Kallenbach, S. (1999). Emerging themes in adult multiple intelligences research. *Focus on Basics*, *3 (A),* 16-20

Klassen, R. M., Bong, M., Usher, E. L., Chong, W. H., Huan, V. S., Wong, I. Y. F., & Georgiou, T. (2009). Exploring the validity of a teachers' self-efficacy scale in five countries. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *34,* 67–76.

Kolata, K. (2003) Increasing students' efficacy through the multiple intelligences: Promoting diversity in the classroom. *IUSB Undergraduate Research Journal* . Retrieved July 10, 2007, from http://www.iusb.edu/~journal/2001/kolata.html

Luszczynska, A., Scholz, U., & Schwarzer, R. (2005). The *general self-efficacy scale*: *multicultural validation* studies. *The Journal of Psychology*, *139 (5),* 439-457.

Mahasneh, A. M. (2013). The relationship between Multiple Intelligence and Self-efficacy among sample of Hashemite university students. *International Journal of Education and Research*, *1 (5),* 1-12.

Marefat, F. (2007). Multiple intelligences: voices from an EFL writing class. *Pazhuhesh- e Zabanha-ye Khareji, 32,* 145-162.

Mikolajczak, M., & Luminet, O. (2007). Trait emotional intelligence and the cognitive appraisal of stressful event: An exploratory study. *Personality and Individual Differences, 44,* 1445-1453.

Moafian, F., & Ghanizadeh, A. (2009). The relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy in Language Institutes. *System*, *37*, 708-718.

Mohsenpour, M., Hejazi, E., & Kiamanesh, A.R. (2008). The role of self-efficacy, achievement goals, learning strategies and persistence in math achievement of 11th grade high schools students in Tehran. *Quarterly Journal of Educational Innovations*, *24,* 153- 171.

Newby-Fraser, E., & Schlebusch, L. (1997). Social support, self-efficacy and assertiveness as mediators of student stress. *Psychology: A Journal of Human Behavior*, *34 (3-4),* 61-69.

Nikoopour, J., Farsani, M, A., Tajbakhsh, M., & Sadat Kiyaie, S H. (2012) .The relationship between trait emotional intelligence and self-efficacy among Iranian EFL teachers. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *3 (6),* 1165-1174.

Panahi, A. (2011). Relationship between multiple intelligences and learning grammar. *Iranian EFL Journal, 7 (5),* 139-163.

Penrose, A., Perry, C., & Ball, I. (2007). Emotional intelligence and teacher self-efficacy: The contribution of teacher status and length of experience. *Issues in Education, 17 (1),* 107-126.

Pintrich, P. R., and Groot, E. V. (1990). Motivational and self regulated learning components of classroom academic performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 82 (1),* 33–40.

Rastegar, M. & Memarpour, S. (2009). The relationship between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy among Iranian EFL teachers. *Science Direct, 37 (4),* 700-707.

IJLLALW

Razmjoo, S. A. (2008). On the relationship between multiple intelligences and language success. *The Reading Matrix, 8 (2),* 155-174.

Rotter, J. B. (1990). Internal versus external control of reinforcement. *American psychologist*, 45(4), 489-493.

Sadeghi, K., & Farzizadeh, B. (2012). The Relationship between Multiple Intelligences and writing ability of Iranian EFL learners. *English Language Teaching*, *5 (11),* 136-142.

Schneider, A., & Arikan, A. (2009). *A study of multiple intelligences, foreign language success and some selected variables. Journal of Theory and Practice in Education*, *5 (2),* 110-122.

Scholz, U., Gutirrez-Doa, B., Sud, S., & Schwarzer, R. (2002). Is general self-efficacy a universal construct? Psychometric findings from 25 countries. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, *18,* 242-251.

Schunk, D. H. (1981). Modeling and attributional effects on children's achievement: A self-efficacy analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 73, 93-105. Retrieved from http://libres.uncg.edu/ir/uncg/f/D_Schunk_Modeling_1981.pdf

Schwarzer, R., & Jerusalem, M. (1995). Generalized Self-Efficacy scale. In J. Weinman, S. Wright, & M. Johnston (ED.), *Measures in health psychology: A user's portfolio. Causal and control beliefs* (pp. 35-37). Windsor, UK: NFER-NELSON.

Sherer, M., Maddux, J. E., Mercandante, B., Prentice-Dunn, S., Jacobs, B., & Rogers, R. W. (1982). The Self-Efficacy Scale: construction and validation. *Psychol Rep*, *51,* 663-671.

Shore, J. R. (2001). *An investigation of multiple intelligences and self-efficacy in the university English as a second language classroom* (Doctoral dissertation, George Washington University). Retrieved July 19, 2008, from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3029591)

Shore, J. R. (2004). Teacher education and multiple intelligences: a case study of multiple intelligences and teacher efficacy in two teacher preparation courses. *Teachers College Record, 106,* 112-139.

Temiz, N., & Kiraz, E. (2007). The implications of multiple intelligences theory on literacy education at first grade. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research, 27,* 111-126.

Tirri, K., & Komulainen, E. (2002). Modeling a self-rated intelligence-profile for virtual university. In H. Niemi & P. Ruohotie (Eds.), *Theoretical understandings for learning in virtual university* (pp. 139-168). Hämeenlinna, FI: RCVE.

Traub, J. (1998). Multiple intelligence disorder. *The New Republic, 219 (17),* 20–23.

Tschannen-Moran, M., Woolfolk Hoy, A., & Hoy, W.K. (1998). Teacher efficacy: its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research*, *68 (2),* 202–248.

Wood, R. & Bandura, A. (1989) Social cognitive theory of organizational management. *Academy of Management Review, 14 (3),* 361-384.

Yazdanimoghaddam, M., & Khoshroodi, Sh. B. (2010). The relationship between teachers ' teaching efficacy and their multiple intelligences. *Journal of Language and Translation*, *1 (2),* 33-39.

Yazici, H., Seyis S., & Altun, F. (2011). Emotional Intelligence and self-efficacy beliefs as predictors of academic achievement among high school students. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 15,* 2319-2323.

Yildirim, F. & Ilhan, I.O. (2010). The validity and reliability of the general self-efficacy scale-Turkish form. *Türk Psikiyatri Derneği, 21 (4),* 301-308.

Young, B. E. (2003). *Multiple Intelligences learning and equity in middle school mathematics education*. (Doctoral dissertation, Curtin University of Technology). Retrievedfromhttp://espace.library.curtin.edu.au/R?func=dbinjumpfull&local_base=gen01era02&object_id=15017

Zarei, A, A., & Mohseni, F. (2012). On the relationship between multiple intelligences and grammatical and writing accuracy of Iranian learners of English. *US-China Foreign Language*, *10 (7),* 1306-1317.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF WORD FORMATION, CODE-MIXING, MULTIPLE-CHOICE, AND GAP-FILLING TASKS TO L2 VOCABULARY COMPREHENSION AND PRODUCTION

Abbas Ali Zarei

Assistant professor, Imam Khomeini International University, Qazvin, Iran
Email: aazarei@ikiu.ac.ir

Maryam Afrash Ab

MA, Islamic Azad University, Takestan, Iran
Email: mafrashab@yahoo.com
(PHONE: +9183857952)

ABSTRACT

This study sought to investigate the effect of various task types including Multiple-choice cloze task, Gap-filling task, Word formation task, and Code-mixing task on L2 vocabulary comprehension and production. A sample of 80 adult Iranian intermediate level learners participated in the study. They were in 4 groups; each group read the reading passages under one of the four conditions of Multiple-choice cloze, Gap-filling, Word formation, and Code-mixing tasks. At the end of the treatment, two posttests were administered. A 30-item vocabulary test in multiple-choice format was used to measure the participants' vocabulary comprehension. Another 30-item vocabulary test in fill-in-the-blanks format was utilized to measure the participants' vocabulary production. Two separate one-way ANOVA procedures were used to analyze the obtained data. The results showed an effect of task type, the word formation task was more effective than the other task types in vocabulary comprehension and production. It also turned out that those who were involved in the Gap-filling task were the least successful in both vocabulary comprehension and production. The present study may have theoretical as well as practical implications for the teachers, researchers, and syllabus designers.

KEYWORDS: Task-based language teaching, vocabulary learning, task type

INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary knowledge occupies an important position in second language learning. Numerous attempts have been made to solve the challenges facing learners in reference to vocabulary learning. However, doubts remain over their effectiveness in improving learners' vocabulary comprehension and production (Song, 2011).

One approach which is claimed to be beneficial in coping with the problems of vocabulary learning is task-based language teaching (TBLT). In this adaptable approach of language teaching, tasks are employed as the main pedagogical tool to teach diverse language elements. Language learning occurs through the process of completing tasks, and learners master the target language more effectively when they are exposed to meaningful task-based activities in a natural way. Proponents of task-based language teaching believe that the uptake of vocabulary, as one of the key elements in second language learning, can be enhanced by employing proper pedagogical

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

tasks. However, designing effective pedagogical tasks has always been a huge challenge for second language (L2) researchers and teachers.

Current second language (L2) instruction research has encouraged the use of different tasks in (L2) classrooms. Task-based language teaching provides learners with access to both explicit and implicit learning experience. It has the ability to integrate meaning-focused communication with form-focused instruction. However, the positive impact of utilizing different task types on vocabulary learning is still open to question. The fact that this debate over the effectiveness of diverse task types in promoting vocabulary uptake remains unresolved indicates a need for further examination and research in this regard. The present study attempts to investigate whether employing different task types can influence the uptake of new vocabulary items.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Task-based language teaching is considered as a powerful approach for maximizing language learning and teaching, which employs tasks as its main pedagogical tools to structure language teaching. In TBLT, learners are to use language to perform meaningful tasks and, thus, language which is meaningful to learners can pave the way for the learning process (Willis, 1996).

In defining task, we should draw a distinction between real-world tasks and pedagogical tasks, where the former refers to the tasks which the learner could possibly be required to carry out in the real world, and the latter refers to the tasks which would be highly unlikely for the learner to perform outside the language classroom (Rashtchi & Keyvanfar, 2007). Although pedagogic tasks seem to be of little real-world value, Widdowson (1987) argues that "tasks can be thought of as an investment to be drawn on to meet unpredictable communicative needs." (p. 68)

Nunan (1989, p.10) states that task is "a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form". Willis (1996, p. 53), on the other hand, stresses that task is "a goal-oriented activity in which learners use language to achieve a real outcome". While these definitions vary somewhat, they all emphasize the fact that pedagogical tasks involve communicative language use in which the user's attention is focused on meaning rather than grammatical form (Ellis, 2000).

In TBLT literature, there are many kinds of task categories. Willis (1996) offers six main types of including listing, ordering and sorting, comparing, problem solving, sharing personal experiences, and creative tasks (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 234). Furthermore, According to Rashtchi and Keyvanfar (2007, p. 115) there are different classifications of task types including the following:

❖   Form-focused activities (exercises)
❖   Meaning-focused activities (tasks)
o   Focused tasks
▪   Grammatical
▪   Consciousness-raising
o   Unfocused tasks

❖   Pedagogic tasks (Interactionally authentic)
o   Information-gap
o   Opinion-gap
o   Reasoning-gap
❖   Target tasks (situationally authentic)

Focused tasks have two objectives: one is to encourage communicative language use and the other is to encourage learners to use some specific predetermined linguistics item(s) (Rashtchi & Keyvanfar, 2007, p. 112).

Unfocused tasks can be classified based on the degree of their similarity to real-life situation. Some tasks correspond to the everyday life of learners and, thus, they are said to have situational authenticity. On the other hand, some tasks are rather artificial in the sense that they are unlikely to happen in everyday life; but, they tend to elicit the kind of language that corresponds to the language of everyday-life interaction. These kinds of pedagogic tasks are said to have interactional authenticity (Bachman, 1991).

A large body of research has been carried out on the application of tasks in various aspects of language learning. This study is focused on the effectiveness of tasks on receptive and productive L2 vocabulary learning. Ellis and He (1999) found that the interaction between output and dialogic interaction could contribute to productive as well as receptive vocabulary knowledge. Similarly, de la Fuente (2002) found that only negotiated interaction that incorporated output appeared to have promoted both receptive and productive learning of words, and increased productive word retention.

There is a belief that learners' pushed output can contribute to vocabulary learning in a number of ways. In this regard, Swain and Lapkin (1995, p. 376) argue that output tasks can lead to the noticing of linguistic shortcomings, "pushing" learners to modify output. Actually, output has a very interactive and significant role on vocabulary acquisition. There is also a theoretical claim that output may serve as a crucial means to strengthen connections between the lemma (the particular form that is chosen by convention to represent the lexeme) and the lexeme (the set of all the forms that have the same meaning). Such strengthened connections between the lemma and the lexeme enable learners to have easy access to and efficient control of vocabulary knowledge stored in their L2 language system. As Nation (1990, p. 86) puts it, "when L2 learners are engaged in output production, they are required to actively solve problems of word form or of word meaning on their own. Through such active processing of lexical information, a learner can achieve faster, more precise and automatic use of vocabulary knowledge than when just hearing or reading L2 vocabulary."

Maftoon and Haratmeh (2012) used a pedagogical approach to investigate the relative effectiveness of tasks with different involvement loads on the vocabulary knowledge of Iranian EFL learners. The goal was to investigate the way that the construct of involvement load is related to the Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985) and the Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1996) to see whether the involvement load or input/output-orientation of tasks is the determining factor in task effectiveness. Contrary to the predictions of the Involvement Load Hypothesis (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001), the results of the study indicated that involvement load is not the only determining factor in task effectiveness, but input/output-orientation of tasks is also a decisive parameter in task effectiveness. While Laufer and Hulstijn's proposal is the first valuable step towards building a theory of vocabulary learning, the results of the study indicated that

involvement index may well not function independently of the task type, i.e., input or output orientation of a word-focused task.

Newton (1995) carried out a case study examining the vocabulary gains made by a group of adult learners of English as a second language as a result of performing four communicative tasks. Gains were measured on comparisons of pre- and post-tests of vocabulary from the worksheets from the four tasks. He found that the placement of a word on task worksheets and the nature of a task, whether a split information task or a shared information task, both had a strong effect on the use and learning of new vocabulary.

Joe (1998) examined the effects of text-based tasks and background knowledge (prior vocabulary knowledge and a disposition to use generative learning tactics when tackling new vocabulary) on incidental vocabulary learning. 48 adult ESL learners were randomly assigned to one of three treatments (a) reading and retelling a text with explicit generative training and without access to the text during recall, (b) reading and retelling a text without explicit generative training but with access to the text during recall, and (c) neither reading nor retelling a text. All subjects sat a pre-test (individual interviews and a read and retell task) and post-tests (individual interviews and two multiple-choice tests) designed to tap partial vocabulary knowledge gains. Results indicated that the process of reading and retelling a text promotes incidental vocabulary learning and that generative processing enhances vocabulary learning with greater levels of generative processing leading to greater vocabulary gains for unknown words.

Rott (2004) investigated whether L2 readers' sensitivity towards a new lexical form is heightened if they are repeatedly pushed to produce output and are immediately provided with relevant input in input-output cycles. Fourth-semester learners read three texts, with four target words each, under the following conditions: (a) cued-output task, (b) self-selected output task, and (c) un-enhanced (control) reading. Results showed that four input-output cycles did not contribute to retaining more robust form-meaning connections (FMCs) than the normal reading condition. In all three conditions, FMCs varied in strength and completeness, requiring different cues for retrieval.

Newton (2001) argued that rather than removing difficult words, teachers should consider a number of cooperative options for exposing learners to new words during task-based interaction. He examined data from a number of classroom tasks where learners had to deal with new words during task performance without access to a dictionary or teacher's intervention. The results suggested that not only rich language use results from negotiating new words, but that the meanings of many of these words are retained in the days after the task performance.

Kim's (2011) study consisted of two experiments investigating the involvement load hypothesis in vocabulary learning. Experiment 1 compared the performance of 64 adult English as a second language (ESL) learners from a range of countries at two different proficiency levels (i.e., matriculated undergraduate students vs. students in an Intensive English Program) to ascertain the effectiveness of three vocabulary tasks with different levels of task-induced involvement. Experiment 2 investigated whether two tasks hypothesized to represent the same level of task-induced involvement would result in equivalent initial learning and retention of target words by

IJLLALW

20 adult ESL learners at two different levels of proficiency. The results of Experiment 1 showed that a higher level of learner involvement during the task promoted more effective initial vocabulary learning and better retention of the new words. The findings of Experiment 2 indicated that when different tasks had the same involvement load, they resulted in similar amounts of initial vocabulary learning and retention of new words.

These studies show that researchers seem to have a consensus as to the role of task based instruction in vocabulary learning. Despite this consensus on the general role of task-based instruction in vocabulary learning, there seems to be a paucity of research on how difficult task types can affect L2 vocabulary, particularly in an EFL context. In response to this paucity, the present study addresses the effects of Input-oriented and Output-oriented tasks on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary comprehension and production.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
More specifically the present study aims to answer the following questions:

Q1. Which task type (Multiple-choice cloze task, Gap-filling task, Word formation task, and Code-mixing task) is more effective on L2 vocabulary comprehension?

Q2. Which task type (Multiple-choice cloze task, Gap-filling task, Word formation task, and Code-mixing task) is more effective on L2 vocabulary production?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
A sample of 113 Iranian male and female EFL learners participated in the study. They were studying English at Sokhane Ashna and Shokohe Andisheh institutes in Tehran. The subjects were selected from the intermediate level of proficiency, and their age ranged from 18 to 30. After the administration of the Michigan test of English language proficiency, 33 participants were excluded from the study because of either a different language proficiency test score, or not writing their names on the papers. There remained 80 learners to take part in the study.

Instruments and materials
To conduct the present study, the following instruments were employed: a Michigan general language proficiency test was administered to homogenize the participants and to validate the posttests. The sample of Michigan test used in this study contained 25 multiple-choice items. It was an already established and verified in terms of reliability.

The target words for this study were selected from reading passages taken from Cambridge ESOL Examinations. To make sure that the participants had no prior knowledge of the target words, and to minimize the effect of their prior vocabulary knowledge, a vocabulary pretest containing 100 items was given to all the participants. These lexical items were contextualized in 100 English sentences. Each item contained one of the target words and required students to supply the Persian equivalent of the italicized words in the sentence. Those words the meaning of which the participants did not know were selected for inclusion in the posttest, and the familiar words were excluded from the posttests.

The instructional materials were ten reading passages taken from Cambridge FCE (First Certificate in English) examination. The passages were in an appropriate difficulty level to roughly match the learners' ability**.** Each passage contained 10 target words. Each of the four groups read the reading passages under one of the four conditions of Multiple-choice cloze task, Gap-filling task, Word formation task, and Code-mixing task.

At the end of the experimental period, a vocabulary comprehension posttest was administered to compare the effects of Multiple-choice cloze, Gap-filling, Word formation, and Code-mixing tasks on L2 vocabulary comprehension. It was a 30-item vocabulary test in the multiple-choice format. A 30-item fill-in-the-blanks vocabulary test was also used to measure the participants' productive knowledge of vocabulary. In the fill-in-the-blank test, the first letter of each word was given with its translation in Persian. This was done to ensure that the learners could produce the target words and to prevent the possibility of learners providing either partial synonyms or other words that fitted the context without necessarily being the intended words.

Procedures

Initially, a total number of 113 participants were selected. To homogenize the participants, a Michigan test of English language proficiency was administered. It was an already established and verified test in terms of reliability. As a result, 33 participants, who had scored more than one standard deviation away from (above or below) the mean, were excluded from subsequent statistical analyses, and there remained 80 approximately homogenous participants to take part in this study. The participants were divided into four groups. Each group was randomly assigned to one of the treatment conditions as follows:

Group A: Multiple-choice cloze task
Group B: Gap-filling task
Group C: Word formation task
Group D: Code-mixing task

To make sure that the participants had no prior knowledge of the target words and to minimize the effect of prior knowledge, a vocabulary pretest containing 100 items was administered prior to the treatment. The participants were required to supply the Persian equivalent of the italicized English words in 100 sentences. Each sentence contained one of the target words which had been extracted from the reading passages the learners were supposed to receive as treatment. The words which turned out to be familiar to more than three participants were excluded from the subsequent vocabulary comprehension and production post-tests.

In the next phase, the treatment began. Each group of participants received their treatment under one of the following conditions. The four task types consisted of the Multiple-choice cloze task (Group A); Gap-filling task (Group B); Word formation task (Group C), and Code-mixing task (Group D).

The participants of Group A, the Multiple-choice cloze group, received ten cloze texts. Each text contained ten gaps and was followed by ten four-option multiple choice questions. The

Participants of this group were required to fill the gaps in each text by choosing the right words from a list of ten four-option multiple choice items.

The Gap-fill group (Group B) was provided with ten cloze texts. In each text ten target words were deleted, leaving ten gaps. The target words and their English explanations were provided in random order as a list on a separate page along with five distractors in each text. The task for this group was to read the text and complete the ten gaps with the most appropriate words from a list of 15 words.

Group C was treated with Word formation task. They received ten texts. Each text contained ten gaps, each gap corresponding to a word. The 'stems' of the missing words were given along with the text and had to be transformed to the target and missing words. The types of word formation involved not only the addition of affixes (e.g. 'honest' to 'dishonesty'), but also internal changes ('strong' to 'strength') and compounding (e.g. 'rain' to 'raindrop'). The misuse of capital letters and other punctuation marks was ignored, but correct spelling was important.

Ten cloze texts were given to the participants of Group D, the Code-mixing task group. In each text, ten words were deleted, leaving ten blanks and missing words. The Persian equivalent of each missing word was provided in parentheses after each blank. These Persian equivalents were the clear hint to the missing words. The task for the learners was to fill each of the blanks with the English equivalent of the Persian words given in parentheses.

The experimental period lasted for 8 weeks, of which 5 weeks were allocated to the treatment, two weeks to the Michigan test and the pretest, and one week to the posttests. It needs to be noted, however, that not all the class time was used for the treatment each session. Since the learners were taking their general English course, only a third of each class time every week (about 45 minutes) was allocated to the experiment.

At the end of the experimental period, two post-tests were administered. A 30-item vocabulary test in multiple-choice format was used to measure the participants' vocabulary comprehension knowledge. Another 30-item vocabulary test in fill-in-the-blanks format was utilized to measure the participants' vocabulary production. To validate the post-tests, and to avoid creating learner sensitivity toward the target words, the Michigan proficiency test was given to a group of 30 students with characteristics similar to the target groups (EFL learners studying at the intermediate level) concurrently with the post-tests. To check the validity of the posttests, the correlation between these tests and a Michigan test was checked. The validity index of the comprehension and production posttests turned out to be .83 and .82, respectively. The reliability of the post-tests was also estimated through the KR-21 formula. The reliability index of the vocabulary comprehension and production post-tests turned out to be .42 and .66, respectively.

The validated post-tests were then administered to the 80 approximately homogeneous participants. The obtained data were then summarized and submitted to statistical analyses. Two separate one-way ANOVA procedures were run on the immediate posttest of vocabulary comprehension and production.

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS
Investigation of the first Research Question
The first research question sought to investigate the effect of various task types including Multiple-choice cloze task, Gap-filling task, Word formation task, and Code-mixing task on L2 vocabulary comprehension. To do so, a one-way ANOVA was used. Descriptive statistics are summarized in *Table 1*.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for the ANOVA on Vocabulary Comprehension

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Code-mixing	20	22.4500	2.64525	.59150
Word formation	20	24.7500	2.51050	.56137
Multiple-choice	20	21.5000	2.72416	.60914
Gap-filling	20	20.2000	2.83957	.63495
Total	80	22.2250	3.11783	.34858

Table 1 indicates that the highest mean on the vocabulary comprehension test belongs to the Word formation group ($\bar{x} = 24.75$), followed by the Code-mixing group ($\bar{x} = 22.45$). The third highest mean belongs to the Multiple-choice cloze group ($\bar{x} = 21.50$), and the Gap-filling group ($\bar{x} = 20.20$) has the lowest mean.

In order to see whether the observed mean differences among the selected groups are statistically significant, the one-way ANOVA procedure was used. The results of the ANOVA procedure are summarized in *Table 2*.

Table 2: the ANOVA Procedure on Vocabulary Comprehension

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	221.050	3	73.683	10.239	.000
Within Groups	546.900	76	7.196		
Total	767.950	79			$\omega^2 = .25$

In *Table 2*, the observed F-value and the significance level ($F_{(3.76)} = 10.23$, $p < .05$) indicate that there are statistically significant differences among the four groups. Therefore, it can be safely claimed that there are significant differences among the effect of these four task types on vocabulary comprehension.

At the same time, the index of the strength of association ($\omega^2 = 0.25$) indicates that 25 percent of the total variance in the dependent variable (vocabulary comprehension) is accounted for by the independent variable (task types). This means that the remaining 75 percent of the variance is left unaccounted for.

In order to locate the differences among the study groups, a post hoc Scheffe test was utilized. The results are summarized in *Table 3*. As it can be observed in *Table 3*, the mean score of the

IJLLALW

Word formation group is significantly better than the mean scores of the Multiple-choice and the Gap-filling groups, suggesting that the participants of the word formation group have outperformed their counterparts in the two groups, but the mean scores of the latter two groups do not differ significantly from each other.

Table 3: Multiple comparisons for the ANOVA on vocabulary comprehension

(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Code –mixing	Word formation	-2.30000	.84830	.070	-4.7254	.1254
	Multiple-choice	.95000	.84830	.741	-1.4754	3.3754
	Gap-filling	2.25000	.84830	.080	-.1754	4.6754
Word formation	Multiple-choice	3.25000[*]	.84830	.004	.8246	5.6754
	Gap-filling	4.55000[*]	.84830	.000	2.1246	6.9754
Multiple-choice	Gap-filling	1.30000	.84830	.507	-1.1254	3.7254

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The result further indicates that although there is a difference between the means of the Code-mixing group and the Word formation group, the difference is statistically insignificant. Moreover, the result shows that there are no statistically significant differences between the Code-mixing group and the Multiple-choice group, as well as between the Code-mixing group and the Gap-filling group. The following graphic representation of the results *(Figure.1)* shows the differences among these groups more conspicuously
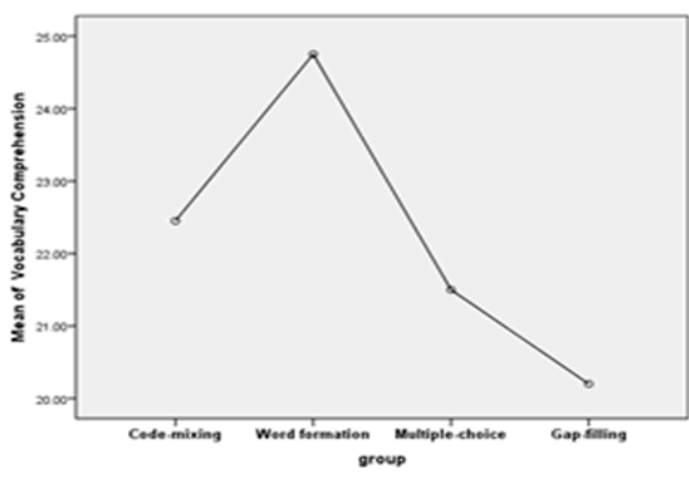
Figure1: Means Plot on the Vocabulary Comprehension

Investigation of the second Research Question
The aim of the second research question was to examine the effect of various task types including Multiple-choice cloze task, Gap-filling task, Word formation task, and Code-mixing task on L2 vocabulary production. To this end, another one-way ANOVA procedure was run. The descriptive statistics are presented in *Table 4.*

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics for the ANOVA on Vocabulary Production

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Code-mixing	20	22.5500	4.09717	.91616
Word formation	20	22.9000	3.89196	.87027
Multiple-choice	20	19.3500	4.01674	.89817
Gap-filling	20	18.2500	3.29074	.73583
Total	80	20.7625	4.27013	.47742

Table 4 indicates that the highest mean ($\bar{x}$ =22.90) belongs to the Word formation group, followed closely by the mean of Code-mixing group ($\bar{x}$ =22.55). The Multiple-choice group has the third position ($\bar{x}$ =19.38). The participants of the gap-filling group have the lowest mean ($\bar{x}$ =18.46), which is noticeably lower than the other groups. To see whether or not the observed differences among the groups are statistically significant, the one-way ANOVA procedure was used. The obtained results are presented in *Table 5*.

Table 5: The results of the ANOVA on vocabulary production

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	321.437	3	107.146	7.277	.000
Within Groups	1119.050	76	14.724		
Total	1440.487	79			ω^2 =.19

As it can be seen in *Table5,* the F-value and the significance level ($F_{(3.76)}$ =7.27, p < 0.05) are indicative of significant differences among the means. Moreover, The index of the strength of association (ω^2 = 0.19) shows that 19 percent of the total variance in the dependent variable (vocabulary production) is accounted for by the independent variable (task types), and that the remaining 81 percent is left unaccounted for.

Another post hoc Scheffe test was utilized to locate the differences among the groups. The results of the multiple comparisons are summarized in *Table 6*.

Table 6: Multiple Comparisons of Means for the ANOVA on Vocabulary Production

(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Code -mixing	Word formation	-.35000	1.21344	.994	-3.8194	3.1194
	Multiple-choice	3.20000	1.21344	.082	-.2694	6.6694
	Gap -filling	4.30000*	1.21344	.008	.8306	7.7694
Word formation	Multiple-choice	3.55000*	1.21344	.043	.0806	7.0194
	Gap -filling	4.65000*	1.21344	.004	1.1806	8.1194
Multiple-choice	Gap -filling	1.10000	1.21344	.844	-2.3694	4.5694

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

IJLLALW

Based on *Table 6,* the difference between the Code-mixing group and the Gap-filling group is statistically significant, with the Code-mixing group outperforming the Gap-filling group. It is worth noting that there are no statistically significant differences between the Code-mixing group and the Word formation group, as well as between the Code-mixing group and the Multiple-choice group.

Moreover, the Scheffe test indicates that the mean score of the Word formation group is significantly better than the mean scores of the Multiple-choice and the Gap-filling groups, but the mean scores of the latter two groups do not differ significantly from each other. In other words, the participants of the Word formation group have outperformed those of the Multiple-choice and the Gap-filling groups, suggesting that Word formation task is the most effective task on vocabulary production.

The following graphic representation *(Figure 2)* shows the differences among the groups more conspicuously.
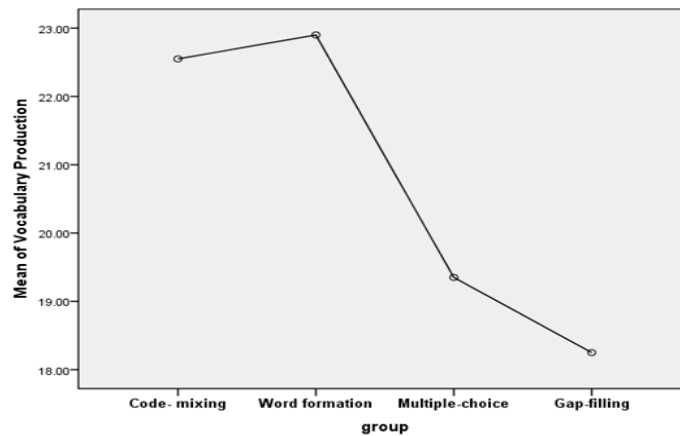
Figure 2: Means Plot on the Vocabulary Production Test

DISCUSSION
Considering the findings of the study, we can conclude that there is a large gap between receptive knowledge from input-oriented tasks and output-oriented tasks in a way that productive tasks are more effective than receptive tasks on both vocabulary comprehension and production. This result is in contradiction with Krashen's input hypothesis, avowing that input alone is sufficient for the development of both receptive and productive second language knowledge. In addition, based on Krashen's natural order hypothesis, speech emerges. In other words, even productive knowledge develops naturally from receptive knowledge. This implies that input-oriented activities alone are not only capable of creating language knowledge, but also even more effective than output-oriented activities on the development of both receptive and productive language knowledge. Drawing on the distinction between receptive and productive knowledge of vocabulary, the finding of this study seems to support the role of output.

At the same time, there are studies that are in line with the findings of this study. In an experimental study, Ellis and He (1999) found that the interaction between output and dialogic interaction could be a beneficial factor for learners to acquire productive as well as receptive vocabulary knowledge. Similarly, de la Fuente (2002) found that only negotiated interaction that incorporated output promoted both receptive and productive learning of words, and increased productive word retention.

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that in spite of the teacher-centered tradition of instruction in Iranian context, applying output-oriented tasks gives sufficient room to students to show themselves. In other words, if treated with output-oriented tasks, students become more engaged in the learning of the target language elements, and they take more active roles in the learning process. It can be concluded that employing output-oriented tasks can keep students motivated, and facilitate students' learning processes.

In the Iranian context, language instruction is mainly based on the input. Target language elements are mostly learnt through the receptive skills. There is no sufficient room for students to show their abilities through productive skills. On the other hand, employing output-oriented tasks necessitates learners to produce the intended language items. The production of the target language items through output-oriented tasks may have a greater level of appeal to learners due to their novelty. This sense of motivation and enthusiasm may partially account for the dominance/superiority of the output-oriented tasks over the input-oriented tasks.

Based on the obtained results, we can claim that this study lends support to the output hypothesis proposed by Swain (1985). The output hypothesis suggests that successful second language acquisition requires not only comprehensible input, but also comprehensible output, language produced by the learner that can be understood by other speakers of the language. It has been argued that when learners have to make efforts to ensure that their messages are communicated (pushed output), this puts them in a better position to notice the gap between their productions and those of proficient speakers, fostering acquisition (Richards & Schmidt, 2002).

The findings of the present study can have implications not only for teachers and learners, but also for materials developers. The knowledge of the effects of diverse task types on vocabulary learning can help teachers make more informed decisions as to which task types to choose to engage their learners in. Moreover, the results may be helpful in improving learners' autonomy. Given the superiority of output-oriented tasks over input-oriented tasks, learners can be allowed to experience greater levels of autonomy by being actively engaged in productive activities and assume more responsibility for their own learning rather than being passive bench-bound recipients of information.

Furthermore, the results of the current study might provide useful insights for the developers of instructional materials and syllabus designers in their selection of effective word-focused tasks in EFL General English materials. It can hardly be denied that   adequate and sufficient vocabulary knowledge leads to good comprehension. Thus, given the importance of vocabulary in EFL General English classes, any word-focused task that helps learners to develop their vocabulary knowledge would certainly be welcomed.

And finally, this study could possibly lay the groundwork for a great deal of research to touch on the effect of different word-focused tasks on various aspects of vocabulary knowledge.

All in all, despite the apparent areas of discrepancy as to which task type is more beneficial than which other types, there seems to be almost a consensus that, overall, tasks are effective and

conducive to language learning in general and vocabulary learning in particular. Yet, the discrepancies among the findings of various studies as to the effectiveness of different task types on vocabulary learning, coupled with areas of gap between the findings of this study and those of other similar studies warrant more studies in the future.

LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

In the present study, the following limitations and delimitations should be taken into account:

1. There are various types of tasks considered as pedagogical tools in task-based language teaching approach. It was impossible to compare all task types in one study. Therefore, this study was confined to a limited number of selected tasks. This implies that the findings of this study may not be generalizable to other task types.

2. Due to time and administration limitations, only 80 language learners participated in the present study. Therefore, care must be exercised in generalizing the findings.

3. The students who participated in this study were male and female. This means that the participants' gender was not a variable.

4. The proficiency level of the participants was constrained to intermediate level. Thus, care should be taken in generalizing the result to learners of other proficiency levels.

5. The present study investigated the effect of different types of task on students' vocabulary comprehension and production; this means that the other language skills (e.g. reading comprehension, listening, speaking, etc.) were not of concern here.

6. While participants were carrying out the selected tasks, their performance could be affected by many different factors including their personality type, level of anxiety or motivation, and their learning styles. Additionally, it was impossible to impose complete control on the students' probable practice outside the classroom.

7. The vocabulary pretest (one hundred-item check-list) used in this study was not verified in terms of reliability. Therefore, more trustable findings will be reached using vocabulary pretest verified in terms of reliability.

REFERENCES

Bachman, L. F. (1991). What does language testing have to offer? *TESOL Quarterly*, *25(4),* 671 704.

de la Fuente, M .J. (2002). Negotiation and oral acquisition of L2 vocabulary. The roles of input and output in receptive and productive acquisition of words. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 24,* 81-112.

Ellis, R. (2000). Task-based Research and Language Pedagogy. *Language Teaching Research, 4 (3),* 193-220.

Ellis, R. & He, X. (1999). The roles of modified input and output in the incidental acquisition of word meanings. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 21, 285–301.doi:10.1017/S0272263199002077

Joe, A. (1998). What effect do text-based tasks promoting generation have on incidental vocabulary acquisition? Applied Linguistics, 19, 357–377. doi:10.1093/applin/19.3.357

Kim, Y, J. (2011). The Role of Task-Induced Involvement and Learner Proficiency in L2 Vocabulary Acquisition. *Language Learning, 61(1),* 100-140.

Krashen, S. D. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications* (Vol. 1, p. 985). London: Longman.

Laufer, B., & Hulstijn, J. (2001). Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition in a Second Language: The Construct of Task-Induced Involvement. *Applied Linguistics, 22 (1),* 1-26.

Maftoon, P., & Haratmeh, M. S. (2012). Effects of Input and Output-oriented Tasks with Different Involve-ment Loads on the Receptive Vocabulary Knowledge of Iranian EFL Learners. *Iranian Journal of Research in English Language Taeching*, *1 (1),* 65-88.

Nation, I. S. P. (1990).*Teaching and Learning Vocabulary*. New York: Newbury House.

Newton, J. (1995). Task-based Interaction and Incidental Vocabulary Learning: A case study. *Second Language Research, 11(2),* 159-176.

Newton, J. (2001). Options for vocabulary learning through communication tasks. *ELT journal, 55(1),* 30-37.

Nunan, D. (1989). *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Rashtchi, M., & Keyvanfar, K. (2007). *ELT Quick'n'easy* (3rd ed.). Rahnama Publication: Tehran.

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (2nd ed.).Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J.C., & Schmidt, R. (2002). *Dictionary of language teaching & applied linguistics* (3rd ed.). Essex: Longman.

Rott, S. (2004). A comparison of output interventions and un-enhanced reading conditions on vocabulary acquisition and text comprehension. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 61(2),* 169-202.

Song, W. (2011). *Learning vocabulary without tears: a comparative study of the jigsaw and information gap tasks in vocabulary acquisition at school* (Unpublished master thesis). Kristianstad University Sweden, School of Education and Environment. Retrieved February 7, 2013, from: http://hkr.diva-portal.org/smash/record.jsf?pid=diva2:439234.

Swain, M. (1985).Communicative competence: some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input and Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 235-253). New York: Newbury House.

Swain, M. (1996). Three Functions of Output in Second Language Learning. In G. Cook & B. Seidlhover (Eds.), *principles and practice in the Study of Language. Studies in Honor of H.G.Widdowson* (pp. 125-144). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in output and the cognitive processes they generate: A step towards second language learning. *Applied linguistics*, 16(3), 371-391.

Widdowson, H. G. (1987). Aspects of Syllabus Design. In M. Tickoo (ed.): *Syllabus Design: The State of the Art*. Singapore: Regional English Language Centre.

Willis, J. (1996). *A Framework for Task-based Learning*. Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.

IJLLALW

TEAM-TEACHING EFFICACY IN AN EFL CONTEXT: DOES THE AGE MATTER?

Mohammad Aliakbari, PhD & Jaber Khales Haghighi, MA

Ilam University (Iran)
maliakbari@hotmail.com,Jaber.haghighi@gmail.com

ABSTRACT
This study was carried out to explore and compare the effectiveness of team-teaching as a model of coteaching in the promotion of children and adults English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students' general proficiency in Iran. Two classes of children and two of adults learners were chosen and based on the achieved scores in the pretests were assigned to control and experimental groups. The students of the control groups received instruction form one teacher, and those in the experimental groups were taught by a couple of teachers through team-teaching model. The results of the final achievement tests were analyzed through T-test computation. Findings revealed that implementing team-teaching was gratifying and beneficial in enhancing the achievement of adults and children impacting the group homogeneity in different manner. Team-teaching experience made all of the students in the experimental groups exhibit a tendency towards having two teachers in the following semesters.

KEY WORDS: Coteaching, Team-teaching, Coteaching Models, Language Proficiency

INTRODUCTION
Delivering profitable and satisfying pedagogy has been the highlight of educational systems for decades. Many models and approaches have been put forward in recent years to improve the students' achievement as such are consultant model, collaborative pedagogy, differentiated instruction, and coteaching. The last one that is the focus of the current study has been emerged from half a century ago with the aim of cultivating and raising the students' academic attainment.

The notion of the present-day coteaching might be embarked upon many tendencies and movements from1950s (Friend & Cook, 2010). One of the first trends was the educators' willingness to replace the traditional single teacher instruction with more effective approaches of pedagogy (Hanslorvsky, Moyer, & Wager, 1969, cited in Friend &Cook, 2010). Villa, Thousand, and Nevin (2004) stated that coteaching was established in 1960s to open up the opportunities for children to learn. Some years later and during 1980s, the educators felt the need to have a special educator collaborating with a general one to improve the students' achievement, especially for those with disabilities (Chapple, 2009). The purport to enhance the achievement of students in the late 1980s and 1990s contributed to the popularity of what today is called *coteaching* (Friend &Cook, 2010).
Since the early 1990s, the major characteristics of co-teaching have been identified to define and describe what coteaching really is (Dieker & Murawski, 2003; Vaughn & Schumm, 1995; Walther-Thomas, 1997). Bauwens and Hourcade (1995) defined cooperative pedagogy as a process of "two or more educators possessing distinct sets of knowledge and skills working together to teach a heterogeneous group of students in the general education classrooms" (p. 46). They believe that this model has the capacity to develop the potentiality of students and teachers

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

(Bauwens & Hourcade, 1995). To Friend and Cook (2007) collaboration is "a style for direct interaction between at least two co-equal parties voluntarily engaged in shared decision making as they work towards a common goal" (p. 7). As Villa, Thousand, and Nevin (2008) put it, coteaching refers to a situation when "two or more people sharing responsibility for teaching some or all of the students assigned to a classroom" (p. 3). All of these definitions and those proposed by other experts emphasize on working together, shouldering the same responsibilities, preplanning, and equal status of instructors in the same classrooms to achieve common goals.

Having these characteristics and factors in mind, this study, in the first place, seeks to find the efficiency of team-teaching among children and adults students in Iranian context and then, attempts to compare the effectiveness of coteaching in the classroom of children with that of adults' learners in terms of students' progress. Moreover, it explores the students' and teachers' evaluation of experiencing coteaching classes.

Co-teaching models
In the last two decades different approaches of co-teaching have been proposed by scholars. Villa et al. (2004) described supportive, parallel, complementary, and team-teaching as four approaches of coteaching. The first one, supportive teaching, is when one teacher as the main leader presents the instruction and the other teacher supports him/her. The teachers teach the lessons and generate supports to different groups of learners in a single classroom in parallel teaching; the instructors can move within and between the groups. As the name suggests, in complementary teaching, one of the instructors who assists the main teacher works as a complement and presents instruction, materials, and so forth when needed. Finally, in team-teaching all of the coteachers are responsible for presenting the information.

Six approaches to coteaching were described by Friend and Cook (2007): one teach, one observe; station teaching; parallel teaching; alternative teaching; team-teaching; and one teach, one assist. In the first approach, one of the teachers provides instruction and the other observes the students. The second approach is station teaching wherein some stations are provided and students move between the stations to learn. There can also be one station for students to work independently. In parallel teaching the class is divided into two or more groups, and each teacher works and teaches independently. In the forth approach viz. alternative teaching, one of the instructors teaches to a large group and the other to a small group of learners. It is added that the students in the small group work on something different from the other one. Teaming, or team-teaching, is similar to the team-teaching model proposed by Villa et al. (2004), wherein both teachers are responsible for delivering instruction, planning, assessing, grading and so forth. The last one is one teaching, one assisting when one of the teachers as the main instructor delivers the instruction and the other helps students. In a metasynthesis qualitative research, Scruggs, Mastropieri, and McDuffie (2007) identified this model as the one that is mostly adopted by coteachers. The following figure clearly manifests these approaches:
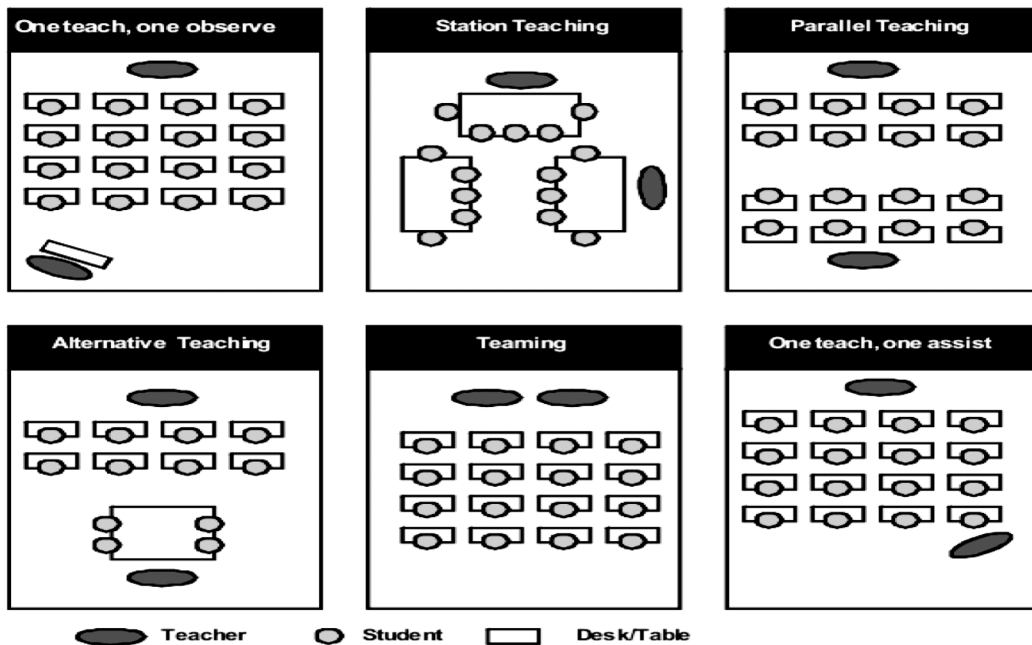
Figure 1: Co-teaching approaches. Adopted with permission from Friend & Bursuck (2009).

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Numerous studies have been qualitatively conducted to theoretically investigate the approach from various perspectives (e.g. Adams & Cessna, 1993; Weiss & Lloyd, 2003). Murawski &Dieker (2008) maintained that the essential strategies of implementing beneficial coteaching are preplanning, volunteerism, administrative support, and teacher training.

Simmons and Mageria (2007) who utilized observations and interviews to see if coteaching was truly implementing in a school district found diverse intensity of incorporating this approach. In first place, the researchers recommended the administrators to update the teachers' training. Further, they suggested "keeping effective coteaching pairs together, providing common planning time, encouraging special education coteachers to become part of content departments, and tracking student outcomes" as the effective strategies in improving coteaching pedagogy (p. 1).

Isherwood and Barger-Anderson (2007) conducted a qualitative study to identify the factors and characteristics of 15 general education and 5 special education teachers that influence the development of their works. They found coteachers' close relationships, obvious and predetermined responsibilities of teachers, and receiving support from administrators as the considerations that can positively impact the expansion and accomplishment of this approach.

Teachers or students' perception of coteaching has been another realm for studies during the previous decades (e.g. Keefe & Moore, 2004; Kohler-Evans, 2006; Salend, Gordon, & Lopez-Vona, 2002). In a study conducted by Austin (2001), 139 general and special education teachers were interviewed to find out their perceptions toward coteaching. The researcher reported that general education teachers referred to coteaching as a favorable approach for facilitating classroom management. Special education teachers also found coteaching beneficial in fostering the content knowledge. Both groups noted small and cooperative group learning as the most glorious experience in students' learning. Finally, general and special education teachers cited coteaching as an invaluable experience. Wilson and Michaels (2006) reported that both students with and without disability were in favor of attending in another classes with coteachers. The participants also added that they got higher scores when receiving coteaching.

Additionally, many classroom studies have been quantitatively conducted to probe the effectiveness of coteaching, among them a plethora of research failed to indicate the efficacy of practically implementing the approach. Beam (2005) studied the usefulness of coteaching in intermediate classrooms of students with disability. No difference was found in the behavior of students and their outcomes after implementing coteaching. Gale (2005) found no meaningful difference in the performance of students with disability in standardized tests, nor in their behavior when confronting with coteaching. Fontana (2005) probed the impact of coteaching on eighth grade students with disability. The students' performance in English and Math classrooms were analyzed. Moreover, the researcher collected data from teachers through one survey. The final results showed no enhancement on students writing, but considerable growth in students' self-concept and math. The surveys also showed the teachers' positive view towards coteaching. Idol (2006) found that coteaching did not significantly affect students with disability and students without disability performance on high-stakes tests.

The outcomes of a study performed by Murawski (2006) revealed no meaningful difference in the achievement of students with disability when receiving coteaching and solo-teaching. Potter (2011) discovered that there is no significant difference in the reading achievement of students with mild disabilities who received coteaching and those who received instruction from a single teacher. Aliakbari and Mansoori Nejad (2010) explored the effectiveness of coteaching in promoting the grammatical proficiency of Iranian junior high school students. They reported no evidence of meaningful difference in the achievement of the students in either group. The researchers suggested that implementing coteaching in Iranian context, in the realm of grammatical proficiency is dubious. Aliakbari and Mansoori Nejad (2010) maintained that "cultural background of students" could be the reason of non-significant results of coteaching in Iran (p. 8). Aliakbari and Bazyar (2012) conducted a classroom study to explore the efficacy of parallel teaching in a public school in Iran. The upshots of the study indicated that adopting parallel teaching is not effective in the promotion of the students' general proficiency in the given context. Among the reasons of non-significant outcomes, the researchers referred to the fact that "coteaching models are somehow new to the state education system in a way that participants culturally felt shocked by the innovation" (Aliakbari & Bazyar, 2012).

In contrast, there is a body of classroom research that proves the usefulness of coteaching (e.g. Bear & Proctor, 1990; Hadley, Simmerman, Long, & Luna, 2000; Marston, 1996). Through a quasi-experimental study, Jang (2006) reported that team-teaching promoted the students outcomes in Taiwan. Khales Haghighi and Abdollahi (2013) sought the efficacy of team-teaching and station teaching in the promotion of students' reading comprehension in an EAP situation in Iran. In this experimental study, 52 sophomore students were selected and based on their performance in the pretest were assigned into three homogeneous groups. There were two experimental, receiving team-teaching and station teaching, and one control group, who were taught by one single instructor. The students' performance in the final test was analyzed through one-way ANOVA, and it became clear that both team-taught and station-taught groups outperformed those in the control group. But,no statistically meaningful difference was found regarding the two experimental groups.The researchers referred to prior planning and teacher training as key reasons of the accomplishment of the adopted models. Reviewing the related studies in the realm of coteaching, it is emerged that the investigation of co-teaching efficacy in

IJLLALW

the area of language proficiency in private language institutes in Iran is absent from the present-day literature.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

As with a large growth of schools, institutions, and colleges the students' desire to continue education is growing as well. The result, then, is an ongoing extensive number of students with wide variety of needs, expectations, and challenges to be fulfilled. Among the many delivery service systems, i.e. inclusion, consultation, differentiated instruction and team-working provided to meet these diverse yet interrelated needs and challenges, one that has received widespread attention during recent decades is coteaching. Furthermore, students gain their knowledge of English through various ways, among them private language institutes play noteworthy roles in enhancing students understanding and knowledge.

A number of studies have been performed to investigate the efficiency of co-teaching in the students' reading performance, high-stakes tests, grammatical proficiency and so forth. Contrasting results were reported from previous classroom studies, and the efficacy of practically exploiting co-teaching strategies still remained unclear. Few studies investigated the efficacy of co-teaching in Iran (Aliakbari & Mansoori Nejad, 2010; Aliakbari & Bazyar, 2012; Khales Haghighi & Abdollahi, 2013); further exploration is still needed to clarify the effectiveness of various models of co-teaching. Therefore, the ultimate goal of this study is to ascertain whether co-teaching as one of the manifestations of service delivery system among children and adults could enhance students' proficiency more favorably in comparison with single instructor-teaching system. Besides, it aims at discovering if implementing team-teaching affect the promotion of children and adults differently.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions are addressed in the current study:

1) To what extent does implementing team-teaching impact the enhancement of children and adults general language proficiency in Iranian context?
2) How do the teachers and students in the experimental groups regard the experience of team-teaching instruction?

METHODOLOGY

Design

A mixed-method design was employed for this study. To provide answer for the first research question, a quasi-experimental design and to explore the second research question semi-structured interviews were conducted with the teachers and students of the experimental groups in the end of the study.

Participants

The participants for the study were chosen from one private language institute, viz. Tarannom Language Institute in Ilam, western city, Iran. The method of choosing the participants was convenience sampling. There were two groups of students, control and experimental, studied English as a foreign language for three sessions a week in winter 2012. There were 29 students in the control groups and 30 students in the experimental groups. It is added that the children were 7 to 10 years old, and the adults were 18 to 30 years old. The following table summarizes the sampling distribution.

Table 1: The distribution and number of students in each group

		Children		Adult	
		Control	Experimental	Control	Experimental
Gender	Female	6	7	7	9
	Male	7	9	9	5
Mean age		8.9	8.2	25.5	24.3
Mean score in the pretest		87.2	86.4	85.93	86.47
Mean years learning English		2.7	2.9	3.1	3.4

Furthermore, three teachers who had experience of five and seven years of teaching English in EFL contexts ran the classes in the control and experimental groups. Two of the teachers had MA degree and the other teacher was an MA student in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). The criteria for choosing the teachers were their experience, inclination for participation, academic knowledge, and teaching qualification.

Materials
The main materials used in the current study were English Time (Rivers, & Tokoyama, 2005) and Touchstone (McCarthy, McCarten, & Sandiford, 2005). The first one, English Time (Rivers, & Tokoyama, 2005) of the series includes seven books for different proficiency levels of 5 to 12 years old learners. The book English Time 5 (Rivers, & Tokoyama, 2005) was practiced in the study. Furthermore, Touchstone 2 (McCarthy, McCarten, & Sandiford, 2005) was the main book of the course for adults' learners.

Instruments
Two proficiency and two achievement tests were utilized as the instruments. All of the students took part in two tests, viz. pretest and posttest. The aim of the pretests was determining the homogeneity of the students in each group in terms of English language proficiency before initiating the instruction. The goal of posttests was investigating the achievement of students in the control and experimental groups. The tests for children learners included oral tests (speaking and listening using picture cues) with time restriction of 20 minutes, and paper tests included sentence and reading comprehension tests, with time restriction of 50 minutes. The tests for the adult students also included oral tests (speaking and listening in oral interviews), reading comprehension, grammar, true/false, close passage, and structure tests. Oral tests were completed in 30 minutes and paper tests in 75 minutes. All paper tests were piloted with the time intervention of two weeks, then, *the Threshold-loss agreement* was adopted and calculated through Brown's (1996) formula to ensure the reliability of the tests. Moreover, to seek the reliability of the oral interview tests, each test was scored by at least two raters. To ensure the inter-raters' reliability, *the Kappa statistics* were adopted. Table 2 presents the *kappa coefficient (k)* for the reliability of each test. It worth noting that all the paper tests were prepared by tests administrators and teachers in the institute. As noted, all the tests were standardized before being used in the study.

Table 2: The calculation of K for the reliability of the pre- and posttests

	Tests	*K* for Paper Tests	*K* for Oral Tests
Children	Pretest	.71	.85
	Posttest	.79	.74
Adults	Pretest	.81	.87
	Posttest	.86	.76

Kappa lies on a scale of -1, 0, and 1. The Kappa=1 denotes complete agreement, 0 indicates agreement by chance, and -1 indicates less than chance agreement. Moreover, $0.61 < K < 0.80$ denotes substantial agreement, $0.81 < K < 0.99$ indicates almost perfect agreement. Therefore, the calculated K's for the tests adopted denote a high level of agreement. Experts' judgment was determined to prove the validity of the tests. The experts were asked to share their ideas about the content relatedness and the items preciseness and clearness. Having known the experts ideas, the test administrators implemented the changes needed, and removed or modified some items. Finally, upon the agreement of the experts, the tests were made ready to use in the real study.

Procedure
Firstly, to determine the homogeneity of the control and experimental groups of children as well as adults' learners, two pretests were taken. Based on the students achieved scores in the pretests, the teachers divided the students into four classes, including two experimental and two control groups. In order to ensure that the experimental and control groups were homogeneous, Independent-Samples T-test was run.

The study was conducted in 20 sessions and in the last session the final exam was held. The children took part in the classrooms on Saturdays, Mondays, and Wednesdays, and the adults participated in the classrooms on Sundays, Tuesdays, and Thursdays in winter 2012, starting in January 8, to February 23. Thirteen children constituted one experimental group in the study. As the first experimental group of the study, they were co-taught by a couple of teachers through team-teaching. While, the other group of children considered as the control group, included 15 students, were taught by only one of the teachers. The other class of the experimental group comprised 16 adults' learners who received coteaching strategies of instruction. Finally, the last group also consisted of 13 adult learners in the control group, received instruction by one of the teacher-researchers.

Among various approaches of coteaching suggested by scholars, team-teaching model presented by Friend and Cook (2007), wherein both teachers are engaged in implementing the instruction, was employed in the study. The coteachers taught the lessons cooperatively and collaboratively and both of the teachers were responsible for planning, analyzing, and incorporating the instruction. The procedures and methods of teaching the content, in the experimental groups, were planned cautiously by the coteachers in advance. Coteachers crystallized their roles and tasks in the classroom, and tried to analyze individual learner's needs and share responsibilities before the class began in each session. Moreover, they emphasized and made students aware of the fact that both teachers are of equal authority in delivering instruction, assessing, managing classroom discipline and students' behavior as well as in scoring.

One week after the study ended, skilled and experienced interviewers conducted semi-structured interviews to seek answer for the second research question. Data needed from the students were

gathered through focus group interviews with 6-7 students in each group. It helped the participants to think together, challenge each other, and react to the salient points. The data from the teachers were also gathered in a friendly situation through semi-structured interviews. The average time for interviews with students was 20-23 minutes, and about 14-17 minutes with the coteachers. There were specific pre-determined core questions; however, the interviewers, who used interview schedules, allowed elaboration in the questions and answers to gather in-depth information. All interviews were audio-taped to ensure the accurate documentation of the data. Audio-tapes were then transcribed for analysis.

Data analysis

To find answer for the first research question, the sum of the oral and paper tests were analyzed using the Statistical Package of Social Science (SPSS). To find answer for the second research question, a portion of data was transcribed. The portion was carefully reviewed and a list of answers including the advantages, disadvantages, recommendations, difficulties and so on was compiled. The list was analyzed as to be categorized and combined into larger units. The most frequent answers were then categorized into three groups of advantages, suggestions, and essentials. To ensure the reliability of the findings, the transcriptions were given to two experts to analyze the data. The results were compared and the agreed-upon answers were considered valid for the research question two.

RESULTS

Descriptive and inferential statistical analyses were run to analyze the students' achieved scores in the pre- and posttests. Tables 3 and 4 reveal the children's performance in the pretest and posttest. Tables 6 and 7 present the adults performance in the tests.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics of the Children Performance in the Pretest and Posttest

			N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Marks	Pretest	Coteaching	13	86.40	5.853	1.511
		Solo-teaching	15	87.20	5.647	1.458
	Posttest	Coteaching	13	90.87	3.85	.995
		Solo-teaching	15	84.80	6.19	1.59

Table 4: Inferential Statistics of the Adults Performance in the Pretest and Posttest

	F	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Std. Error Difference	Effect Size (Cohen's d)
Pretest	.016	27	.785	1.935	–
Posttest	1.583	27	.004	1.882	1.19

The descriptive and inferential statistics of results of the adult learners' pretest and posttest from the Independent-Samples T-test are demonstrated in Tables 5 and 6.

Table 5:Descriptive Statistics of the Adults Performance in the Pretest and Posttest

			N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Marks	Pretest	Coteaching	16	86.47	5.167	1.334
		Solo-teaching	13	85.93	5.431	1.402
Marks	Posttest	Coteaching	16	89.27	5.161	1.33
		Solo-teaching	13	84.07	4.967	1.10

Table 6: Inferential Statistics of the Adults Performance in the Pretest and Posttest

	F	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Std. Error Difference	Effect Size (Cohen's d)
Pretest	.016	27	.78	1.93	–
Posttest	.294	27	.006	1.729	1.02

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

As was noted earlier, two control and two experimental groups were chosen for the study. Before beginning the study, pretests were held to capture the students' initial differences and to ensure that the control and experimental groups were homogeneous. Table 3, presents the mean score of the children in the control and experimental groups. The average score of the former is 87.20, and that of the latter equals 86.40. To see whether or not this difference is meaningful, T-test was adopted. As it is shown in Table 4, the sig=.706; thus, the claim of the homogeneity of the experimental and control groups, before initiating the instruction, is verified. Table 5 indicates the descriptive statistics of the adults pretest results. The experimental group generated a mean score of 86.47, and the control group achieved 85.93 as the average score. The sig=.785 in Table 6 reveals that the difference between the average scores is not statistically meaningful; accordingly, it can be claimed that the two groups were nearly homogeneous.

In the end of the semester, all students participated in the final achievement tests to figure out the efficacy of the treatments. Table 3, provides the descriptive statistics of the achievement score of the students in the children group. Although, the mean score of the experimental group, ($\sum$=90.87) is higher than the control group ($\sum$=84.80); the statistical analysis of T-test was exploited to determine the meaningfulness of this difference. The sig=.004 in Table 4 indicates that the difference was statistically significant. Consequently, it proves that delivering instruction through team-teaching is considerably effective in enhancing students' proficiency in children.

Furthermore, to provide information about the magnitude of the provided information, effect sizes were calculated. In so doing, the *Cohen's d* formula, which can be used to figure out the differences between the means of two groups, was adopted. According to Cohen (1988) a value of .2 is generally considered a small effective size, .5 a medium effective size, and .8 or more a large effective size. So, the effect size of 1.19, presented in Table 4 yields a high level of effective size, suggesting that coteaching is a highly effective procedure for influencing children's outcome.

Descriptive statistics of the adults' performance is demonstrated in Table 5. It is crystallized that students of the experimental group obtained higher average scores ($\sum$=89.27) comparing with those in the control group ($\sum$=84.07). However, to ascertain if the difference between the two groups is statistically significant, the Independent-Samples T-test procedure was run (see Table 6). The sig=.006, indicates that the difference between the students' performance in the posttest was statistically meaningful. All in all, the findings indicate that employing team-teaching is considerably beneficial in fostering the adults' general proficiency.

The comparison of the standard deviation of the scores in the pre- and posttests indicates that the standard deviation of the children was 5.8 in the pretest that was reduced to 3.85 in the posttest; whereas, the standard deviation of the control group in the pretest equaled 5.6 and increased to 6.19 in the posttest. It suggests that implementing coteaching increased the homogeneity of the learners; while, the single teaching lowered the students homogeneity in the end of the study. The standard deviation of the adults in the experimental group was 5.1 in the pretest that remained constant in the posttest; the control groups' standard deviation was 5.43 and decreased to 4.96 in the final test. Put it differently, no considerable change was reflected in the homogeneity of the adults' learners in the experimental and control groups. The calculated effect size for adult groups is 1.02 that is a large effect size. It denotes that implementing coteaching is considerably effective in the promotion of the students' proficiency.

To sum up then, the findings revealed that employing team-teaching as a model of co-teaching procedure was effective in fostering the children and adults general proficiency; although, it affected the groups homogeneity in a different manner. To explore and highlight the differences between implementing team-teaching in the children and adults classrooms, and to find answer for the second research question, the teachers' and students' viewpoints were sought in an open-ended questionnaire. The following table summarizes the teachers and students' perspective on team-teaching.

Table 7: The summary of students' evaluation of team-teaching

Advantages	Essentials	Suggestions
• Potentially effective	• Prior planning	• Preparing the students mindset
• No time is wasted	• Match coteachers	• Making the students' ready for coteaching
• Coteachers can devote great deal of time to analyze the students needs	• Creating and developing the culture of having two teachers	• Involving parents for making the students ready
• Coteachers can observe and analyze other's classrooms	• Administrators support	• Implement coteaching from the students childhood
• Coteachers can share experiences		
• Coteachers can cover the others' weaknesses		
• Coteachers spend less energy		
• Increasing the students' motivation		
• Increasing the students' interest		

Having the opportunity to share experiences is a major benefit of teaching cooperatively and collaboratively from the co-teachers' point of view. Most teachers implement their own procedures and techniques in teaching and in managing classrooms. They feel no need in observing, and analyzing other teachers' techniques and strategies of teaching and managing. Nonetheless, employing coteaching models and strategies of instruction enabled the teachers to make use of observing, and analyzing the couple's methods in teaching.

They also maintained that the model enabled them to support and cover the weaknesses of the paired one in the classroom. Moreover, they posited that less energy is needed to convey the message and to manage the classroom; hence there remains a considerable deal of time that can be devoted to analyzing the students' needs and progress. Nevertheless, they asserted that prior planning, especially in establishing and maintaining communication when presenting information, sharing responsibility, changing the roles, and so forth, is of utmost importance when co-teaching is implemented. Prior planning was also referred to as an inseparable element in studies where positive outcomes were reported (e.g. Bear & Proctor, 1990; Khales Haghighi & Abdollahi, 2013; Marston, 1996; Walther-Thomas, 1997).

For coteaching to be effective and successful the culture of having more than on teacher should be created and developed (Aliakbari & Bazyar, 2012; Aliakbari & Mansoori Nejad, 2010; Friend, 2007). One reason of non-efficacy of coteaching in Iran was the students' background culture. To overcome the obstacle, the administrators and coteachers tried to prepare the students' mindset for having two teachers before initiating and during the study. To the coteachers, amending the stereotypical conception of classrooms among children, that is individual instruction, occurred after one or two sessions. Whereas, the coteachers spent much time to change the traditional one-teacher instruction viewpoints in adults' classroom and letting them cope with the new situation. Stated otherwise, the children dealt with the new model of instruction effortlessly and easily. This might be due to the fact that the children's mindset about classroom environment, instruction, and teachers' roles is not fixed yet. They are more flexible in coming up with new ideas. However, having accepted two teachers instead of one, the students' motivation and interest in learning, as they expressed, were enhanced.

The majority of students referred to team-teaching as a novel, yet effective approach. Most of them stated that employing match coteachers in the classroom is potentially beneficial for enhancing the students' proficiency. They further noted that no time is wasted when two teachers attend and teach in one classroom. Many of them cited that the presence of coteachers can properly support the students, for instance one of the teachers covered grammar in the best possible way; while, the other one widened the students' vocabulary. Finally, all the students who were co-taught declared their willingness to having two teachers instead of one, in the following semesters.

Although contrasting results were reported in the previous studies, the most instructional benefits were reported for students in the presented study. One interpretation that can be put on the positive findings in the current paper, as mentioned before, might be due to preparing the students' mindset before initiating the instruction. Another interpretation can be related to the context where the studies took place. Two of the previous studies in Iran were conducted in state schools, wherein teachers do not have much flexibility in changing the routine conditions and might receive less administrative support comparing with private schools, institutes, or universities; however, this study was carried out in a private language institute where teachers are allowed to implement changes for better conditions, and gained sufficient administrative support.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY
The ultimate goal of educational systems is to fostering the students' attainment. The upshots of the current study will yield the insights to positive educational changes especially in private language institutes by helping educators, administrators, and teachers to realize the significance and efficacy of team-teaching in EFL classrooms. Consequently, administrators and educators who are committed to advance the quality of delivering instruction and are minded for employing constructive instructional strategies and approaches may benefit from the findings of this study. In addition, it was revealed that the children accept the culture of coteaching easier than adults; thus, this study suggests the teachers, educators, and administrators to start implementing coteaching instruction from the learners' childhood.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH
The current study, like the majority of studies, is faced with some limitations. The participants of the study were chosen from one private language institute in Ilam-Iran. Therefore, the outcomes may not be generalized to other populations in other contexts. To offer evidence of the effectiveness of team-teaching in Iranian EFL classrooms, further studies can replicate the current study with a larger number of participants. By adding more students and teachers remarking insights could be found.

Another limitation that may have affected the results is that this study was conducted in one semester in winter 2012 and with students of elementary levels. The interested researchers can longitudinally investigate the efficacy of this approach in other situations and with other participants. This study can also be repeated with students of different proficiency levels. Yet

another limitation was that only one model of coteaching was adopted in the present study. Future research will need to explore and compare the effectiveness of different models of coteaching in EFL classrooms.

REFERENCES

Aliakbari, M., & Bazyar, A. (2012). Exploring the impact of parallel teaching on general language proficiency of EFL learners. *Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics, 16*(1), 55-71.

Aliakbari, M., & Mansoori Nejad, A. (2010).Implementing a co-teaching model for improving EFL learners' grammatical proficiency. *Proceeding of the international conference ICT for language learning" 3rd Edition,* Florence, Italy.

Adams, L., & Cessna, K. (1993). Metaphors of the co-taught classroom.*Preventing School Failure, 37*, 28-32.

Austin, V. L. (2001). Teachers' belief about co-teaching.*Remedialand Special Education, 22* (4), 245-255.

Bauwens, J., & Hourcade, J., J. (1995). *Cooperative teaching: Rebuilding the schoolhouse for all students.* Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Beam, A. P. (2005).*The analysis of inclusion versus pullout at the elementary level as determined by selected variables.*Ed.D. dissertation. (ATT, 3161573). Retrieved January 28, 2012, from ProQuest Digital Dissertations database. http://gateway.proquest.com/openurl%3furl_ver=Z39.88-2004%26res_dat=xri:pqdiss%26rft_val_fmt=info:ofi/fmt:kev:mtx:dissertation%26rft_dat=xri:pqdiss:3161573

Bear, G., & Proctor, W., A. (1990). Impact of a full-time integrated program on the achievement of nonhandicapped and mildly handicapped children.*Exceptionality, 1*, 227–238.

Brown, J., D. (1996). *Testing in language programs.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Chapple, J., W. (2009). *Coteaching: From obstacles to opportunities.* Doctoral dissertation.Retrieved on 23 May 2012, from http://etd.ohiolink.edu/view.cgi/Chapple%20James%20W.pdf?ashland1238966807

Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analyses for the behavioral sciences (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Dieker, L. A., & Murawski. W., W. (2003). Co-teaching at the secondary level: Unique trends, current trend, and suggestions for success. *The High School Journal, 86,* 1-13.

Fontana, K., C. (2005) The effects of co-teaching on the achievement of eighth grade students with learning disabilities. *The Journal of At-Risk, 11*, 17-23.

Friend, M. (2007). The coteaching partnership.*Educational Leadership, 64*, 48-52.

Friend, M., & Bursuck, W. D. (2009). *Including students with special needs: A practical guide for classroom teachers* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson/Merrill.

Friend, M., & Cook, L. (2007).*Interactions:Collaboration skills for school professionals.* Boston, MA: Pearson Publishing.

Friend, M., Cook, L. (2010). Co-teaching: An illustration of the complexity of collaboration in special education. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 20* (1), 9-27. Retrieved 25 February 2012 from http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10474410903535380

Gale, P., F., IV. (2005). *Performance of students with specific learning disabilities in cotaught and pullout models of special education.*Ed.D. dissertation. (ATT, 3156007). Retrieved January 28, 2012, from ProQuest Digital Dissertations database. http://gateway.proquest.com/openurl%3furl_ver=Z39.88-

2004%26res_dat=xri:pqdiss%26rft_val_fmt=info:ofi/fmt:kev:mtx:dissertation%26rft_dat
=xri:pqdiss:3156007

Hadley, P. A., Simmersman, A., Long, M., & Luna, M. (2000). Facilitating language development for inner-city children: Experimental evaluation of a collaborative classroom-based intervention. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools, 31,* 280-295.

Idol, L. (2006). Toward inclusion of special education students in general education: A program evaluation of eight schools. *Remedial and Special Education, 27*(2), 77–94.

Isherwood, R, S. & Barger-Anderson, R. (2007). Factors affecting the adoption of coteaching model in inclusive classrooms: One school's journey from mainstreaming to inclusion. *Journal of Ethnographic & Qualitative Research. 2,* 121-128.

Jang, S., J. (2006).Research on the effects of team teaching upon two secondary school teachers.*Educational Research, 48*, (2)177 – 194.

Keefe, E. B., & Moore, V. (2004). The challenge of co-teaching inclusive classrooms at the high school level: What the teachers told us. *American Secondary Education, 32*(3), 77–88.

Khales Haghighi, J., &Abdollahi, Kh. (2013). On the efficacy of team teaching and station teaching in the enhancement of students' reading comprehension in an EAP situation. *The paper presented in the international conference on current trends in ELT: putting the learner in the spotlight,* Urmia University, Urmia, Iran.

Kohler-Evans, P. A. (2006). Co-teaching: How to make this marriage work in front of the kids. *Education, 127*(2), 260-264.

Marston, D. (1996). A comparison of inclusion only, pull-out only, and combined service models for students with mild disabilities. *Journal of Special Education, 30,* 121–132.

McCarthy, M., McCarten, J., & Sandiford, H. (2005).*Touchstone.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Murawski, W. (2006). Student outcomes in co-taught secondary English classes: How can we improve? *Reading & Writing Quarterly, 22,* 227–247.

Murawski, W., & Dieker, L. (2008). 50 ways to keep your co-teacher: Strategies for before, during, and after co-teaching. *TEACHING Exceptional Children, 40*(4), 40-48.

Potter, R. Sh. (2011). *Co-teaching as an effective approach improving student results*. (Master's thesis). Retrieved May 23 2012, from http://centralspace.ucmo.edu/xmlui/bitstream/handle/10768/98/SPotter_LibraryScience.pdf?sequence=1

Rivers, S., & Toyama, S. (2005).*English Time*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Salend, S. J., Gordon, J., & Lopez-Vona, K. (2002). Evaluating cooperative teaching teams. *Intervention in School and Clinic, 37,* 196-200.

Scruggs, T. E., Mastropieri, M. A., & McDuffie, K. A. (2007). Co-teaching in inclusive classrooms: A metasynthesis of qualitative research. *Exceptional Children, 73,* 392-416.

Simmons, R. J. & Magiera, K. (2007). Evaluation of co-teaching in three high schools within one school district: How do you know when you are TRULY co-teaching? *TEACHING Exceptional Children Plus, 3*(3) Article 4. Retrieved January 5 2012 from http://escholarship.bc.edu/education/tecplus/vol3/iss3/art4

Vaughn, S., & Schumm, J. S. (1995).Responsible inclusion for students with learning disabilities.*Journal of Learning Disabilities, 28,* 264-27.

Villa, R. A., Thousand, J. S., & Nevin, A. I. (2004). *A guide to co-teaching: Practical tips for facilitating student learning.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Villa, R. A., Thousand, J. S., & Nevin, A. I. (2008). *A guide to co-teaching: Practical tips for facilitating student learning* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Walther-Thomas, C. (1997). Co-teaching experiences: The benefits and problems the teachers and principals report over time. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 30*, 395-408.

Weiss, M. P., & Lloyd, J. (2003). Conditions of co-teaching: Lessons from a case study. *Teacher Education and Special Education, 26*, 27-41.

Wilson, G. L., & Michaels, C. A. (2006). General and special education students' perceptions of co-teaching: Implications for secondary-level literacy instruction. *Reading and Writing Quarterly, 22*, 205–225.

A COMPARISON OF EFFECT OF PICTORIAL STORYTELLING AND PLAYING GAMES ON IRANIAN KINDERGARTNERS' VOCABULARY RECOGNITION

Fatemeh Hemmati[1] & Marsa Teimoori[1] & Manuchehr Jafarigohar[2]
Department of English Language, Tehran Payam-e-Noor University, Tehran, Iran
Correspondence: Fatemeh Hemmati, Department of English Language, Tehran Payam-e-Noor University, Tehran, 19395-3697, Iran. Tel: 98-912-378-9248.
E-mail: fatemehhemmati2002@yahoo.co.uk

ABSTRACT
This study aimed at comparing the effects of two methods of storytelling and game playing on Iranian EFL kindergartner learners' vocabulary recognition as well as the methods' superiority over each other. 40 Iranian EFL kindergartner learners between the ages of 5 to 6 who were attending the kindergarten's pre-school classes were selected. They were assigned randomly into two experimental groups: storytelling and game playing. Each group received 8-sessions of treatment. Two point-to tests based on Jung's picture association test were used for the pretests and posttests. Based on the findings of a test of within subjects effects and an independent *t*-test, it was concluded that both the methods were effective and story-based group did slightly better. Implications are for kindergartner teachers, elementary level teachers, material developers, and parents who want to train bilingual children.

KEYWORDS: kindergartner, vocabulary recognition, storytelling, game playing

INTRODUCTION
In today's global community, the study of foreign languages is a necessity (Omari, 2001). According to Chou, Wang and Ching (2012), in its role as a global language, English has become one of the most important academic and professional tools. Recent studies have highlighted the advantages of an early start in second or foreign language learning (Blondin et al., 1998; Edelenbos & De Jung, 2004; Johnstone, 2000). Basically, children are potential in acquiring and learning a foreign language, and even they learn it more quickly than those who are learning the foreign language after puberty (Mc Laughlin, 1978). According to Omari (2007) in kindergarten certain methods of foreign language teaching are more suitable than others because these years bridge the gap between early childhood and first grade. Segers, Takke, and Verhoeven (2004) mention that storybook reading in kindergarten plays a significant role in children's language and literacy development. Repeated exposure to new words, either within the text of a single book or through repeated readings of the same book, facilitates children's learning of those words (Elley, 1989; Penno et al., 2002; Robbins & Ehri, 1994; Senechal, 1997). Gaming is also a characteristic of human nature (Demirbilek, Yilmaz, & Tamer, 2010). Wright, Betteridge and Buckby (2006)

165

review the advantages of games for learning English and find out that games help and encourage learners for language learning in order to sustain interest and work.

Children's First Language Acquisition and its Similarities with Second Language Acquisition and Learning

One remarkable thing about first language acquisition is the high degree of similarity in the early language of children all over the world(Lightbown & Spada, 2006). While more is known about how children learn their mother tongue, researchers are just beginning to understand the processes of children's second language learning. Some researchers argue that the processes of first and second language learning in children share some important similarities (Gordon, 2007). Some 2nd language researchers believe that there is a natural learning sequence in 2nd language acquisition, parallel to 1st language developmental sequences (Lightbown, 1985). Krashen (1985) and other authors see this natural development to be the product of the language acquisition device, assumed to operate in adulthood, allowing childlike internalizations of the rules underlying the target language. Other authors stress the role of universal grammar in constraining the developmental sequence (Healy & Eugene Bourne, 1998).

Critical Period

The idea of a "Critical Period" was first introduced by Penfield and Roberts (1959). According to them, a child's brain is more plastic compared with that of an adult, before the age of 9, a child is a specialist in learning to speak; he can learn 2-3 languages as easy as one. Lenneberg (1967) believes that after laterization (a process by which the two sides of the brain develop specialized functions), the brain loses plasticity. Lenneberg claims that laterization of the language function is normally completed at puberty, making post-adolescent language acquisition difficult. Ausubel (1969) considers that children may be better able to acquire an acceptable accent in a new language and that they have certain cognitive advantages, too. Chase (1997) adds that learning ability decreases after ages eleven and twelve. He mentions that it is developmentally appropriate to teach languages during early childhood and early elementary years because of children's natural ability to acquire language during this stage in life.

Early Bilingualism, and two methods of children tutoring: Story-telling and Game-playing

There is a considerable body of research, as is assured by Lightbown et al. (2006, p.25), on children's ability to learn more than one language in their earliest years. The theory of bilingual facilitation is based on the framework proposed by Ben-Zeev (1977) and elaborated by Hakuta and Diaz (1985). Hakuta and Diaz characterized bilinguals as having enhanced "cognitive flexibility." Their essential idea is that bilinguals show a greater readiness to reorganize linguistic input and impute linguistic structure.

Teaching a language to young learners brings a number of challenges most of which stem from the characteristics of young learners that are different from those of older learners (Cameron, 2003); hence, taking these characteristics into account while determining the language instruction is of utmost importance. Young learners tend to learn implicitly rather than explicitly (Cameron, 2001; Halliwell, 1992; Keddle, 1997; Pinter, 2006; Scatterly & Willis, 2001). They can understand meaningful messages, but cannot analyze the language as a system yet. Children are good observers and they make use of such contextual clues like movements (body language), intonation, mimics and gestures, actions and messages in order to understand and interpret the language itself (Brewster et al., 2002; Cabrera & Martinez, 2001; Halliwell, 1992; Scatterly and Willis, 2001). A further characteristic is that young learners enjoy fantasy and imagination (Pinter, 2006). Games and cartoons suit well in fostering young learners' imagination and

fantasy. Cameron (2001) believes that learning characteristics of children need to be reflected in the design of teaching curricula. According to Semonsky and Spielberger (2004) the kindergarten and first grade teachers use many manipulative things in their teaching that appeal to the children's senses. Children are encouraged to hear, touch, smell, taste and see the actual objects they are using in their foreign language.

Young learners are quick to learn vocabulary, slower to learn structures (Demircioglu, 2010) and The primary role words play in language is to convey meaning (Balota, 1990). De Groot (2010) believes that from the viewpoint of a beginning learner vocabulary knowledge may be considered the most crucial language component: the chances of getting one's basic needs fulfilled in a foreign language environment are substantially better if the learner possesses some well-chosen basic vocabulary in the language concerned than when, instead, he or she masters the language's grammar flawlessly. Jane Feber (2008) believes that vocabulary instruction is important and although there may be no single right way to teach vocabulary to children, some common conditions do need to be met. For example, children need multiple exposures to vocabulary words taught with a variety of direct and indirect instructional methods. These include exposing children to a wide variety of books that appeal to their interests, introducing words in context, and utilizing mnemonic devices. she adds that students need to be actively involved in learning vocabulary which means that students need to see, touch, and feel the words to work with them actively. Since games and activities appeal to students, these seemed like a logical way to help them acquire vocabulary. Creating a classroom atmosphere in which words are fun, and playing with words is encouraged can be a powerful antidote to the very natural fear of making mistakes that can so easily inhibit learning (Thornbury, 2002).

Justice, Meier, and Walpole (2005) believe that the theoretical perspectives of vocabulary development are first, Incidental exposure to novel words is a critical mechanism for word learning; second, word learning is a gradual process, and third, adult input variations can influence the rate of novel word learning. Justice et al. (2005) also mention that although successful vocabulary instruction in elementary classrooms should emphasize explicit teaching of those words needed to access and succeed in the general curriculum, vocabulary instruction should also foster incidental learning opportunities. For younger children who are not reading, incidental exposure to new words occurs through conversations with others, overhearing words spoken in one's environment, and by being read to. Indeed, adult-child storybook reading interactions provide highly contextualized exposures to novel words in a routine that is authentic, familiar, and often motivating to young children (Roth, 2002). New words can be learned with the help of pictures, too. Al-Seghayer (2001) claims that the contribution of visual stimuli to vocabulary learning can also be attributed to a specific process which links vocabulary system of human beings to their imagery system, and this process is closely related with the organization of linguistic knowledge and imagery system in our minds.

Storybook reading is an important factor in vocabulary growth (Bus, Van Ijzendoorn, & Pellegrini,1995), both at home and in the school environment. Reilly and Ward (2000, as cited in Tavil & Soylemez, 2008) believe that stories have lots of repetition which reinforce the acquisition of language items in the classroom and they build up the child's confidence as the language classroom atmosphere is non-threatening. Stories are also useful tools to enhance

comprehension by visuals, touching and seeing things. Reilly and ward also mention that Good picture books are a rich source for understanding new vocabulary and actually understanding the meaning of a story even if one doesn't understand each word.

Current language learning theories follow the premise that children learn best through discovery and experimentation and being motivated to learn in a playful and relaxed context (Griva, et al., 2010). Language learning can be linked with natural activities such as play, since young children can learn languages as naturally as they learn to run, jump and play (Baker, 2000, as stated in Griva, et al., 2010). One of the numerous benefits that come with using games to help students develop and improve in their oral skills is that they engage children in cooperative and team learning (Ersoz, 2000). Lee (1995) believes that teaching vocabulary through games encourage children's interaction and provide opportunities for real communication by bridging the gap between the classroom and the real world. Lee also mentions that games are highly motivating and help students to make learning fun and relaxed. They make the lesson less monotonous, since they maintain students' attention and interest in the language without getting bored and sustain their effort of learning. There is a competitive element that enhances effective learning as games keep learners interested in winning (Nguyen & Khuat, 2003, as stated in Griva, et al., 2010)

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PRESENT STUDY

We seldom stop to marvel at the speed and ease with which children earn their first language. The phenomenon is nothing short of a miracle. All normally developing children master the complexity of pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary of their first language with first four or five years of their lives. While their first language facility surprises no body, we often marvel at how quickly children learn a second language; like the case of immigrant children who speak English without a trace of an accent after having been in an English-speaking environment for a relatively short time. As it was argued by a lot of authors and researchers in the literature, this ability of the children has got a time-limit. So, the researcher's main motive and purpose for doing this research is to reap the benefits of this time-limited capability by using two of the most appropriate methods for the children i.e. story-telling and playing vocabulary games. The researcher wants to examine which of these techniques will give a better answer. This study can thus lead to development of certain guidelines for teachers who are teaching English at the kindergartens to five-six year old kids.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

Based on the above-mentioned literature, this study addressed the following research questions:

1.   Has pictorial story-telling got any significant effect on kindergartners' foreign language vocabulary recognition?
2.   Have physical activities through games got any significant effect on kindergartners' foreign language vocabulary recognition?
3.   Is there any significant superiority in using pictorial story-telling method to teach foreign language vocabulary at the recognition level over playing vocabulary games method, or vice versa?

Based on the above questions, the following research hypotheses were formulated:
1.   Pictorial story-telling has not got any significant effect on kindergartners' foreign language vocabulary recognition.

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

2.   Physical activities through games have not got any significant effect on kindergartners' foreign language vocabulary recognition.
3.   There is no significant superiority in using pictorial story-telling method to teach foreign language vocabulary at the recognition level over playing vocabulary games method, or vice versa.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of this study were 60 Iranian kindergartners between the ages of 5 to 6 and a half. They were chosen from Bojnourd, Naghme-ye-Shadi kindergarten. They were divided into two groups. There were 11 girls and 19 boys in story-telling group, and 12 girls and 18 boys in game-playing one; thus, among 60 participants, there were 23 girls and 37 boys. They hadn't passed any English courses before.

Sampling Procedures

The study was a pretest-posttest as well as a comparison-group one. It was quasi-experimental because the convenience sampling was used as the kindergarten in which the study was done had got two classes each containing about thirty 5 to 6-year-old kindergartners. However, they were randomly assigned into two experimental groups called story-telling and game-playing. Thus, there were two independent variables named story-telling group and game-playing-group as well as one dependent variable named vocabulary recognition. Each of the groups consisted of 30 participants totaled 60. Both groups were taught by the researcher herself.

Instrumentation

In order to achieve the goals of this study, a point-to test is used by the researcher. This test is something like Jung's picture association test. Association tests are methods for discovering complexes by measuring the reaction time and interpreting the answers to given stimulus words or pictures (Routledge, 1979). Picture association tests involve the presentation of a series of stimulus pictures to a respondent who is asked to quickly supply the word that first comes to his mind after seeing the stimulus picture. Presumably the respondent would give the word that he most closely associates with the stimulus picture (Gupta, 2004). The researcher's reason to choose Jung's test was that the participants in the study were kindergartners, so, they were not literate in either their mother tongue or the target language. According to Tavil, Muge, and Soylemez (2008), kindergartners are children who have not started compulsory schooling and have not started yet to read and write. In this test they heard the words read by the researcher and were just needed to point to the right picture on the flashcards set in front of them and got a 'one' or a 'zero.' Two point-to tests were done during the study, a pretest at the first session, to assure that the participants are homogeneous, and hadn't known any of the chosen vocabulary, and a posttest which aimed to measure and compare the amount of grasp of vocabulary by each group. The aim of this research was to test the respondents at the recognition level, so the researcher just asked the pupils to point to the picture as they heard the related word, without saying anything.

IJLLALW

Procedure

The participants in both treatment groups named the story-based and game-playing groups had two classes each week totaled 8 sessions during 4 weeks. Each class session lasted about 30 minutes to avoid the kindergartners' boredom. 8 stories were selected from the book First Friends, class book1, by Susan Lannuzzi for the 8 sessions of the class with story-based group. And the games selected for the game-playing group were "Chinese whisper," "What's missing," "Draw it relay," and "Balloon toss." The participants took the pretest at the first session and the posttest in session 9. Two points should be noted: (1) No student took the tests (pre- and post-test) twice, and (2) both groups were taught by the researcher herself. The sampling method used in this study was convenience sampling. However, random assignment to groups was used by the researcher. As Mackey and Gass (2005) argued, to assess the feasibility and usefulness of the data collection methods and make the necessary revisions, the whole study was piloted before the beginning of the main study.

Story-based Group

The participants of the story-based group were required to listen to 8 stories accompanied by related pictures during 8 sessions; each session, 1 story. The stories were chosen from a book named 'First Friends' class book no. 1, by Susan Lanuzzi. The researcher first showed the participants the flashcards of the vocabulary to be taught and said the words loudly and asked the pupils to repeat them. The repetition's aim was to absorb the pupils' attention to the words and not to prepare them for those words' production. At the next step she gave them pages with the story's comic strips, and asked them to look at comic strips. The pictures of the comic strips were big, colorful, and easy to follow. The researcher then told the story of the comic strips with a loud voice. Her voice was louder than usual to take the pupils' attention, because they were so excited and energetic, and some of them were really naughty. And also the loud voice had a dominant role, too, for the kids to take the orders. As the researcher explained the story, she pointed to the pictures and sometimes did some gestures for better understanding. The story was told twice; the first time the teacher just explained it, and the second time she wanted the students to participate and repeat some parts. At the end of the session the researcher again repeated the vocabulary with the flashcards. And finally she gathered the pages in order to prevent any extra work on the vocabulary at the participants' homes and any derangement in the course of study. At the ninth session, the researcher took the point-to test to assess the grasped knowledge of the participants.

Game-based Group

For the game-based group four games were selected; two of them were played at each session during the eight sessions of the treatment At the beginning of the sessions the same vocabulary as the story-based group were worked accompanied by flashcards; the researcher showed the flashcards and said the words loudly and asked the students to repeat. Again The repetition was to absorb pupils' attention to the words and not to prepare them for those words' production.

The games were done with the aid of the flashcards. The pupils were sat in two rows so for "Chinese whisper", the researcher showed one of the flashcards to the first student of each of the rows and asked him or her to whisper it to his or her classmate, sitting next to him or her, and this process continued till the last member of the row. The group had won, if the last member would have shouted the word sooner than the other squad. The next game was "What's missing". The researcher set the cards on a table in front of the class and asked the participants to gather in front of the table and look at the cards, then asked them to close their eyes. The researcher promptly hid one of the cards, asked the pupils to open their eyes and guess the missing card. At "Draw it relay", the children were divided to two groups; the researcher told two different words to the

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

groups and asked them to rush to the board and draw it. The team, who was speedier, was the winner. In "Balloon toss" game, the researcher used a soft ball and tossed it to different children, showed them the flashcards, and asked them to say the words.

DATA ANALYSES AND RESULTS
The Normality Tests
The assumption of normality is empirically tested through one sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. As shown in Table 1, by considering the fact that 0.848>0.05, the researcher came to this conclusion that the data did enjoy normal distribution.

Table 1: One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

Pretest	Posttest		
40	40	N	
1.6250	11.9000	Mean	Normal Parameters(a,b)
1.67466	2.50947	Std. Deviation	
.184	.134	Absolute	Most Extreme Differences
.184	.134	Positive	
-.166	-.099	Negative	
1.164	.848	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	
.133	.468	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	

The assumption of homogeneity of variances has proved through Levene's Test for Equality of Variances.

Independent T-Test Pretest
Based on the results displayed in Table 2, It could be concluded that story-based group did not differ significantly from game-based group (p=0.926, df=38, t=0.093). The calculated p-value is equal to 0.926 which is more than 0.05.

IJLLALW

Table 2: Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Pretest	Equal variances assumed	.142	.709	.093	38	.926	.05000	.53644	-1.03596	1.13596
	Equal variances not assumed			.093	37.228	.926	.05000	.53644	-1.03670	1.13670

The first two Research Questions

Based on the results displayed in Tables 3 and 4, it could be concluded that the effects of the within-subjects is significant (p=0.0005, F(1,38)=476.257). The effect was significant because F=476.257>251.1, and p=0.0005<0.05. Thus, the null-hypotheses as pictorial story-telling has not got any significant effect on kindergartners' foreign language vocabulary recognition and physical activities through games have not got any significant effect on kindergartners' foreign language vocabulary recognition were rejected.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics

	Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Pretest	Game based	1.6500	1.81442	20
	Story based	1.6000	1.56945	20
	Total	1.6250	1.67466	40
Posttest	Game based	11.2000	2.16673	20
	Story based	12.6000	2.68328	20
	Total	11.9000	2.50947	40

Table 4: Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Testperiods	Sphericity Assumed	2111.512	1	2111.512	476.257	.000	.926	476.257	1.000
	Greenhouse-Geisser	2111.512	1.000	2111.512	476.257	.000	.926	476.257	1.000
	Huynh-Feldt	2111.512	1.000	2111.512	476.257	.000	.926	476.257	1.000
	Lower-bound	2111.512	1.000	2111.512	476.257	.000	.926	476.257	1.000
Testperiods * Group	Sphericity Assumed	10.512	1	10.512	2.371	.132	.059	2.371	.323
	Greenhouse-Geisser	10.512	1.000	10.512	2.371	.132	.059	2.371	.323
	Huynh-Feldt	10.512	1.000	10.512	2.371	.132	.059	2.371	.323
	Lower-bound	10.512	1.000	10.512	2.371	.132	.059	2.371	.323
Error(Test periods)	Sphericity Assumed	168.475	38	4.434					
	Greenhouse-Geisser	168.475	38.000	4.434					
	Huynh-Feldt	168.475	38.000	4.434					
	Lower-bound	168.475	38.000	4.434					

Also, as it can be seen in figure 1, both the story-based and game-based groups have got improvements from pretest to posttest.
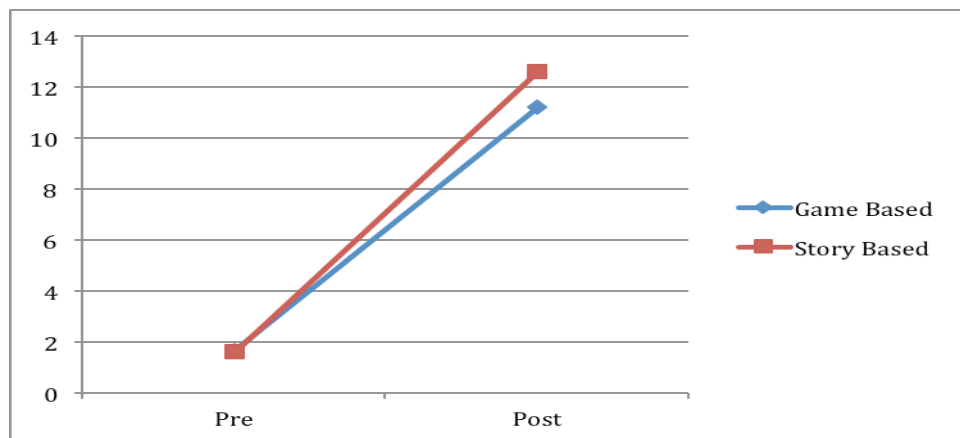

Figure 1: Pretest and Posttest of the Means of Both Groups

173

The third Research Question

Based on the results displayed in Table 5, it could be concluded that the story-based group outperformed the game-based group (t= -1.81, df=38, p=0.077). The p-value is equal to 0.077 which is slightly bigger than 0.05, thus the third null hypothesis as There is no significant superiority in using pictorial story-telling method to teach foreign language vocabulary at the recognition level over playing vocabulary games method, or vice versa was rejected.

Table 5: Independent Samples T-Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Posttest	Equal variances assumed	1.580	.216	-1.815	38	.077	-1.40000	.77119	-2.96120	.16120
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.815	36.386	.078	-1.40000	.77119	-2.96347	.16347

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The research questions in this study were concerned with effectiveness of using stories or games on foreign language vocabulary recognition of children, without producing the words to learn. And also they were concerned with the significance of difference in the effect of these two methods. The analyses indicated that both groups, story-telling and game-playing, were effective, and the story-based group did slightly better. The findings of this study support the scholars' claim that story-telling and game-playing promotes learning a foreign language. The results of this study, regarding the participants' improvement seen at the posttest, supports the positive effects of story-telling in young learners' language development. This supports the scholars' claims cited in the literature part, such as Grave (1990), Wright (1997), Elley (1989), Seedhouse and Li (2010).There were a lot of story books for beginners in the market, but the researcher tried to find something which was meaningful, interesting, exciting and funny; because, according to Gerngross and Puchta (2009), the content of what the children are offered in the new language is of crucial importance in motivating them to work out the meaning of what they hear. On the other hand, as it was supported in previous studies such as Krashen (1986) and Linse (2005), the researcher tried to find pictorial stories to provide comprehensible input. The findings of this study support the scholars' claim that storybook reading is an important factor especially in vocabulary growth. This was supported in previous studies such as Bus et al. (1995), Brett et al. (1996), Robbins et al. (1990), Penno et al. (2002), Reilly et al. (2000, as cited in Tavil et al. 2008). According to Ur(1996), children in general learn well when they are active and when action is channeled into an enjoyable game. Some researchers like Alcorn(2003) believed that games require participation, competing in order to achieve certain goals and have special goals. Thus, the games in this study were all competing, and this competition added a lot of excitement to the class. And also the goals of the games used in this study were simple and obtainable. Children learn best through discovery and experimentation and being motivated to learn in a playful and relaxed context as is cited in Griva, et al. (2010). All the games used in this study put

174

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

the children in a pending position in this way motivated them. In Chinese whisper, all the participants were awaiting their turn to become aware of the words through whispering. In What's missing, children were awaiting with eyes closed, shivering with excitement, while the researcher chose one of the flashcards and hid it. Then, they compete with their classmates in guessing the missed card. In Draw it relay, the participants were awaiting to hear their group's word, then rush to the board and draw the related picture, while others in the group shouting and trying to help them to draw it better. In Balloon toss, children were awaiting their turn all playtime long, the ball might hit them at each second. So, the researcher used the pending element to motivate and excite the participants more. All the four games engaged children in cooperative and team learning (Eroz, 2000) and they had a competitive element that enhanced effective learning as they kept learners interested in winning (Nguyen and Khuat, 2003; as stated in Griva, et al., 2010). Ur (1996), as is stated in the literature, believes that an instructor should not confuse using games as method of teaching a language with a situation where the language learning activity is called a "game" which conveys the message that it is just fun not to be taken too seriously. The researcher felt to some extent that using mere games as a language teaching method was likely to lead on this anti-educational and demoralizing situation mentioned by Ur; although, the researcher tried to use some games in which the emphasis was on vocabulary. After this research was done, the researcher came to conclusion that games are better to be considered as an assisting power for the main method.

IMPLICATIONS
After attending the classes for at least ten sessions, the researcher was sure that story-based group would pass the post-test with better results because that group revealed a deeper understanding during the class time. As the researcher experienced, pupils of story-based group were more attentive to the vocabulary's meaning, while at the next group, game-playing, children were more cautious about winning a contest. But the researcher's expectancy did not happen and both groups took the test with tiny difference. If the researcher was to choose between these two methods the better one, she believed story-telling would work better; although, their combination could be the best choice. With story-telling pupils can gain a better understanding of the sense of the words meanwhile game-playing can add variety and excitement to the learning procedure.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY
Like any study, this research faced a number of limitations which have to be taken into consideration while attempting to generalize its findings. First, in each of the two classes, which were attended by the researcher, there were thirty children which the researcher kept 20 of them as a pilot group, and there was no opportunity for the researcher to module up the groups into smaller squads. In the case of smaller groups, with more supervision, the results may be changed. Second, during the main study the pilot group were attending the classes too. There was no opportunity for the researcher to isolate them, because the classes should pass their regular way with all the classmates together. Third, the research is done in just one kindergarten with children coming of almost the same level of society; thus, the results may not be necessarily generalizable to children of all societal levels.

REFERENCES

Aghlara, L., & Hadidi Tamjid, N. (2011). The Effect of Digital Games on Iranian Children's Vocabulary Retention in Foreign Language Acquisition. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences, 29,* 552-560.

Al-Seghayer, K. (2001). The effect of multimedia annotation modes on L2 vocabulary acquisition: A Comparative Study. *Language Learning and Technology, 5 (1),* 202-232.

Ang, C.S., & Zaphiris, P. (2008). Computer games and language learning. In T. T. Kidd and H. Song (Eds), *Handbook of Research on Instructional Systems and Technology,* (pp. 449-462), Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

Arikan, A., & Ulas Taraf, H. (2010). Contextualizing Young Learners' English lessons with Cartoons: Focus on Grammar and Vocabulary. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences, 2,* 5212-5215.

Asher, J. (1996). Learning another Language through Actions, Los Gatos, p. 43.

August, D., Carlo, M., Dressler, C., & Snow, C. E. (2005). The critical role of vocabulary development for English language learners. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice, 20 (1),* 50-57.

Brouillette, L. (2012). Advancing the speaking and listening skills of K-2 English language learners through creative drama. *TESOL Journal, 3 (1),* 138.

Cameron, L. (2001). *Teaching Languages to Young Learners,* Cambridge University Press.

Chase, K. (1997). *A Second Language before Second Grade, Teaching Pre K*, 8 (28), 46-47.

Chastain, K. (1988). *Developing Second-Language Skills Theory and Practice,* United States of America, p. 167.

Chen, K. (2011). The Impact of EFL Students' Vocabulary Breadth of Knowledge on Literal Reading Comprehension. *Asian EFL Journal, 51.*

Chou, C., Wang, S., & Ching, G. (2012). Balanced reading instructions: An action research on elementary cram school students. *Instructional Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning*, 1 (1), 3-20.

Dawkins, S., & O'Neill, M. (2011). Teaching Literate Language in a Storytelling Intervention. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy,* 34 (3), 294-307.

De Groot., & Anette M.B. (2010). *Language and Cognition in Bilinguals and Multilinguals: An Introduction.* Psychology Press, USA.

Demirbilek, M., Yilmaz, E., & Tamer, S. (2010). Second Language Instructors' Perspectives about the Use of Educational Games. *Procedia Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 9, 717-721.

Demircioglu, S. (2010). Teaching English Vocabulary to Young Learners via Drama. *Procedia Social and Behavioural Sciences, 2,* 439-443.

Donmus, V. (2010). The Use of Social Networks in Educational Computer-Game based Foreign Language Learning. *Procedia Social and Behavioural Sciences,* 9, 1497-1503.

Ersoz, A. (2000). Six games for EFL/ESL classroom. *The Internet TESL Journal, 6 (6).*

Fadayee, F. (2002). *Carl Gustav Jung and his Psycholinguistics*. Dunje, Iran.

Feber, J. (2008). *Active Word Play: Games and Activities that Build Vocabulary.* Maupin House Publishing, Inc. Gainesville.

Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS.* SAGE: London.

Finney, R. (2007). Foreign Language Education in Elementary Schools: Revitalizing and Maintaining a Workable Program, *ERIC 1996*, p. 1.

Garton, A., & Pratt. C (1998). *Learning to be Literate,* Basil Blackwell.

Gerngross, G., & Puchta, H. (2009). *Playway to English,* Cambridge University Press.

Gordon, T. (2007). *Teaching Children a Second Language.* Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data, USA.

Graves, Micheal F. (2006). *The Vocabulary Book: Learning and Instruction.* Teachers College Press.

Griva, E., Semoglu, K., & Geladari, A. (2010). Early Foreign Language Learning: Implementation of a Project in a Game-Based Context. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences,* 2, 3700-3705.

Gupta, S.L. (2004). *Marketing research*. Excel Books, A-45, Naraina, Phase-1, NewDelhi

Harmer, Jeremy (2009). *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, Longman press, p. 13.

Hashemi, M., & Azizinezhad, M. (2011). Teaching English to Children: A Unique, Challenging Experience for Teachers' Effective Teaching. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences.* Vol.30, pp. 2083-2087.

Healy, A. F., & Bourne, L. E. (1998). *Foreign Language Learning: Psycholinguistic Studies on Training.* Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, USA.

Justice, M., Meier, J., & Walpole, Sh. (2005). Learning New Words from Storybooks: An Efficacy Study with At-Risk Kindergarteners. *Language, Speech, AND Hearings Services in Schools,* 36, 17-32.

Kim, Sook-Yi (1999). The Effects of Storytelling and Pretend Play on Cognitive Processes. *Child Study Journal, 29 (3), 175-185.*

Krashen, S. D. (1986). *The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications,* London, p.194.

Lannuzzi, S. (2009). *First Friends class book1,* Oxford University Press, China.

Lee, S.K. (1995). Creative games for the language class. *Forum,* 33(1), 35.

Li, C., & Seedhouse, P. (2010). Classroom interaction in story-based lessons with young learners. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly,* 12 (2), 288.

Linse, C. (2005). *Young Learners,* New York, p. 33.

Lightbown, M., Patsy., & Spada, N. (2006). *How Languages are Learned*, Oxford University Press, 1, 25, 57.

Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design.* Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Maidment, S., & Roberts, L. (2009). *Happy House, New Edition class book1,* Oxford University Press.

Mango, C. (2012). Recalling Foreign Vocabulary Words among Learners of ESL. *ESOL Journal,* 6, 181-186.

Mc Grath, K., Taylor, D., & Kamen, R. (2002). Storytelling: Enhance Language Acquisition in Young Children. *The College of New Jersey, Ewing, New Jersey Education,125 (1).*

Milton, J. (2009). *Measuring Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition.* Short Run Press Ltd, Great Britain.

Niemann, H. (2003). Learning English through story books. *Amazing Young Mind -Cambridge.*

Niu, R., & Andrews, S. (2012). Commonalities and discrepancies in L2 Teachers' Beliefs and Practices about Vocabulary Pedagogy: A Small Culture Perspective. *TESOL Journal,* 6, 134-154.

Omari, D. R. (2007). A Comparison of Foreign Language Teaching Methods:TPR versus Song/Chants with Kindergartners, *ERIC 2001*, pp. 8, 9, 10, 15 (ED461987).

Robertson, P., & Nunn, R. (2007). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition in the Asian Context.* Asian EFL Journal Press.

Routledge, H. (1979). *The collected works of C.G. Jung.* Routledge, London.

IJLLALW

Sanders Semonsky, C. M., & Spielberger, M. A. (2004). *Early Language Learning: A Model for Success.* Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data, USA.

Segers, E., Takke, L., & Verhoeven, L. (2004). Teacher-Mediated versus Computer-Mediated Storybook Reading to Children in Native and Multicultural Kindergarten Classrooms. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement,15 (2),* 215-226.

Soleimani, H., & Molla Esmaeili, M. (2012). The Effect of Explicit Instruction of Clustering New Words on Vocabulary Learning of Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners through Hyperlinks. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature,* 1 (2), 112-126.

Song, C.R. (2008). Educational games with blogs: Collaborating to motivate second language undergraduate critical thinking. *Online Information Review*, 32 (5), 557-573.

Sternberg, R.J. (1987). Most vocabulary is learnt from context. *The nature of vocabulary learning* (89-106). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Inc., New Jersey.

Tavil, Z. & Muge Soylemez A. S. (2008). Vocabulary Teaching Through Storytelling to Very Young Learners in Kindergarten, *Ekev akademi Dergisi*.

Townsend, D. (2009). Building Academic Vocabulary in After-School Settings: Games for Growth with Middle School English Language Learners. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy, 53 (3),* 242-251.

Ur, P. (1999). *A course in Language teaching, Practice and Theory.* Cambridge University Press, The Edinburgh Building, Cambridge CB 2 2RU, UK.

Verenikina, I., Harris, P., & Lysaght, P. (2003). Child's play: computer games, theories of play and children's development. In *Processing of IFIP working group 3.5 conference: young children and learning technologies,* UWS Parramatta, Australian Computer Society, Inc.

Wright, A. (1997). *Creating Stories with Children.* Oxford University Press.

Wittgenstein, L. (1993). *Philisophical investigations.* Oxford, Blackwell.

Yalcin Tilfarlioglu, F., & Bozgeyik, Y. (2012). The Relationship between Vocabulary Learning Strategies and Vocabulary Proficiency of English Language Learners. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature, 1 (2),* 91-101.

THE IMPACT OF METALINGUISTIC KNOWLEDGE AND PROFICIENCY LEVEL ON PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

Arezou Arghamiri
Ph.D. candidate, Department of Foreign Languages, Shiraz Branch, Islamic Azad University, Shiraz, Iran
Email: a.arghamiri@gmail.com

Firooz Sadighi
Full Professor, Department of Foreign Languages, Shiraz Branch, Islamic Azad University, Shiraz, Iran
E-mail:firoozsadighi@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT
The purpose of the present study was to investigate if proficiency level and metalinguistic knowledge affect Iranian EFL learners' degree of pragmatic competence. Participants included 92 junior students at Shiraz Azad University. The elicitation instruments used for data collection were a. Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT), used to measure the testees' proficiency level, b. a Grammaticality Judgement Test (GJT), to show their metalinguistic knowledge, and c. the Discourse Completion Test (DCT) developed by Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990), to investigate their level of pragmatic competence. Based on their scores on the OQPT, the participants were divided into three groups of high, mid, and low proficiency. The data collected from the administration of the above mentioned three tests were then analyzed by the descriptive statistics, Repeated Measures ANOVA and correlation. The results revealed that proficiency level is not the factor which determines the students' degree of pragmatic competence as there was no significant relationship between the students' proficiency level at different groups and their performance on the DCT. However, it was observed that the students' pragmatic competence is significantly affected by their metalinguistic knowledge.

KEYWORDS: Proficiency level, Metalinguistic Awareness, Metalinguistic Knowledge, Pragmatic Competence

INTRODUCTION
For the past 40 years, the question of to what extent the overall second language (L2) proficiency contribute to pragmatic competence has been an ongoing discussion in the study of L2 pragmatics; however, only a very small number of studies have examined the pragmatic and grammatical awareness of second or foreign (L2) language learners in an integrated paradigm. The main reason for this was the teaching methodology used, in which grammar was central to learning. An increasing consensus among educators and researchers (Alderson & Steel, 1994; Germain & Seguin, 1995; Hammery, 1991; Larsen-Freeman, 1995) was that a number of learners lacked

179

linguistic accuracy in performance. They maintain, this linguistic accuracy stems from the knowledge of grammar, proficiency, and knowledge about grammar, Metalinguistic Knowledge (MK) or Metalinguistic Awareness (MA).

Proficiency level, as defined by Bachman & Palmer (1996), is learner's knowledge of L2 grammar and vocabulary, a subcomponent of general language ability. MK often measured through grammaticality judgments, particularly those which require error correction (Alderson et.al, 1996; Ellis, 1991), is proposed by Hu (2002) and Ellis (2004) as learners' explicit knowledge about the syntactic, morphological, lexical, phonological and pragmatic features of the second language. The comprehension of pragmatic meaning can be differentiated from linguistic comprehension in view of the fact that it requires the listener to understand not only the linguistic information, such as vocabulary and syntax, but also contextual information such as the role and status of interlocutor, the physical setting of the conversation and the types of communicative acts that would likely occur in that context (Rost 2002).Bardovi-Harlig, and Mahan-Taylor (2003) defined pragmatics as "using socially appropriate language in a variety of informal and formal situations"." Pragmatic ability, which is an important part of the language proficiency construct (Bachman, 1990; Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980), is the ability to use language appropriately according to the communicative situation.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Researchers working in different areas of L2 acquisition have examined pragmatic development from several perspectives. In a recent study, Kasper (2001) identified four general theoretical approaches that have been taken to account for pragmatic development in second and foreign language learners: a comprehensive model of communicative competence, information processing hypotheses, sociocultural theory, and language socialization theory. The approach important for this study concerns the relation between pragmatic competence and grammatical competence, so, the focus of the present study is the first option, that is, it focuses on a comprehensive mode of communicative competence. Pragmatic ability in a second or foreign language is part of a nonnative speaker's communicative competence and therefore has to be located in a model of communicative ability (Savignon, 1991). In Bachman's model (1990), 'language competence' is subdivided into two components, 'organizational competence' and 'pragmatic competence'. Organizational competence comprises knowledge of linguistic units and the rules of joining them together at the levels of sentence ('grammatical competence') and discourse ('textual competence'). Pragmatic competence is subdivided into 'illocutionary competence' and 'sociolinguistic competence'. 'Illocutionary competence' can be glossed as 'knowledge of communicative action and how to carry it out'.

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Rahimy and Moradkhani (2012) found that using GJ tasks enhances knowledge of grammatical patterns in Iranian learners of English at university level. Correa (2011) considered Metalinguistic Knowlwdge as explicit, verbalizable knowledge of grammatical rules and investigated the relationship between MK and subjunctive accuracy by learners of Spanish at three levels. She found MK indeed is positively correlated with accuracy in the use of subjunctive structure as hypothesized. Fatahi Milasi & Pishghadam (2007) explored the role of explicit knowledge in general language proficiency and the interplay of explicit and implicit knowledge in grammaticality judgements and found that there was a strong relationship between both groups' performance on the two measures. Analysis of the response patterns on GJT indicated an intricate interplay between explicit and implicit knowledge of the test-takers. Also, in a study, Alderson, Clapham and Steel

(1997) investigated the metalinguistic knowledge of university modern languages students and compared this knowledge with the students' level of foreign (French) language proficiency. As they reported, the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and proficiency was weak. Elder and Manwaring (1997) widened the scope of the research done by Alderson, Clapham, and Steel (1997) by giving the Metalinguistic assessment Test and tests of language proficiency to students learning three different languages at elementary as well as advanced levels. The findings supported the existence of a weak relationship between the metalinguistic knowledge and language proficiency.

Refusals are speech acts that function as a response to another act such as a request, an offer, an invitation and a suggestion. The speech act of refusal is a face-threatening act and requires a high level of pragmatic competence because it tends to risk the interlocutor's positive or negative face (Brown & Levinson, 1978).To check the pragmatic transfer of refusal strategies, Qadoury (2011) compared two groups of Iraqi native speakers of Arabic, and American native speakers of English by their responses to a modified version of 12- items written discourse completion task. This was the same as what Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990) did with Japanese and American speakers. In both studies, data were analyzed according to frequency types of refusal strategies and interlocutor's social status and was found that EFL learners expressed refusals with care represented by using more statements of reason/explanation, statements of regret, wish and refusal adjuncts in their refusals than the native speakers and they were more sensitive to the lower status interlocutors. The majority of studies that have looked at the relationship between grammatical and pragmatic competence show higher proficiency learners to be generally better at drawing inferences (Carrell, 1984), using speech act strategies (Trosborg, 1995), and comprehending illocutionary force (Koike, 1996). However, Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei (1998) state that a good level of grammatical competence does not imply a good level of pragmatic competence. In short, the literature presents two generally accepted claims about the relationship between grammatical competence and pragmatic competence: (1) grammar is not a *sufficient* condition for pragmatic competence; however, (2) grammar is a *necessary* condition for pragmatic competence.

Xu, Case, and Wang (2009), in a study examined the influence of length of residence in the target language community and overall L2 proficiency on L2 pragmatic competence with a reference to L2 grammatical competence. A questionnaire consisting of 20 scenarios was administrated to the participants measuring their pragmatic and grammatical competence. Results revealed that both length of residence and overall L2 proficiency influenced L2 pragmatics significantly with overall L2 proficiency demonstrating a stronger influence. Findings also showed that there was a strong and positive correlation between pragmatic and grammatical competence for advanced participants and all participants as a group.

To investigate the relationship between pragmatic competence and organizational competence, and to see the possible effect of the learner's field of study on this relationship, Abuali (1995) examined two groups of subjects (native speakers of English and non-native speakers) participating in the preliminary phase and six other groups of Farsi speaking university students participating in the main phase of the study. The subjects were from different fields of study. The results of the study supported the idea that the EFL learners' field of study affects their language competence and also showed a positively moderate correlation between pragmatic competence and organizational competence.

PURPOSE AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS
As pragmatic competence represents a part of overall L2 proficiency, the common-sense assumption would be that an increase in overall L2 proficiency would be followed by an increase in L2 pragmatic competence. However, several studies (Kreutel, 2007; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper 1997; Bouton, 1996; Boxer & Pickering, 1995) have shown that learners of high grammatical proficiency will not necessarily possess comparable pragmatic competence. Even grammatically advanced learners may use language inappropriately and show differences from target-language pragmatic norms. Regarding this, the present study is aimed at finding the relation between the two important factors of metalinguistic knowledge and pragmatic competence, and also their correlation with learners' language proficiency level to see if knowledge about language can play a significant role in the degree of pragmatic comprehension of Iranian learners of English as a foreign language. In doing so, this study is aimed at finding the answer to the following questions:

R.Q.1. Are there any significant differences between the performances of high, intermediate, and low proficient students on a grammaticality judgment test?
R.Q.2. Are there any significant differences between the performances of high, intermediate, and low proficient students on a discourse completion test?
R.Q.3. Is there any significant relationship between the performance of different groups of proficiency level in a metalinguistic knowledge test and the pragmatic competence test?
R.Q.4. Are there any relationships between the students' proficiency level, metalnguistic knowledge, and their performance on discourse completion test?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
Ninety-two male and female junior students of Shiraz Azad University were randomly selected to participate in this study. They were all Persian speakers, learning English as a foreign language. The participants were divided into three groups of high, intermediate, and low proficiency based on their scores in the Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT) (2005). The mean of the scores was calculated and in order to have three homogeneous groups the top and low 27%s of the total number of the participants were considered as group one (high) and group three (low) respectively, and the mid 46% were considered as group two (mid) . So, the participants who scored 43 and above were included in the high proficient group (level one), those who scored between 36 and 42 (inclusive) were considered as belonging to the mid group (level two), and those who scored 35 and below were considered as low proficient students (level three). This way, there were 25 participants in level one, 42 participants in level two, and 25 participants in level three (Table 1)

Table 1: Groups of students according to the OQPT

	level	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
1	level	25	43	55	49
2	level	42	36	42	39
3	level	25	30	35	32.5

Instrumentation
The participants were required to perform on the following three tests:

1. Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT)
Used as a placement test, the OQPT contains 60 multiple-choice items. The participants are supposed to choose the correct choices in 35 minutes.

2. Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT)
Used to assess Metalinguistic Knowledge, the GJT contains ten ungrammatical sentences. It has three phases each having one point. In phase 1, the participants are to find the grammatical error in a given sentence and underline it. In phase 2, they are asked to provide the related rule in either L1 or L2. In the third phase, they should write the correct form of the grammatically ill-formed part. No time limitation is set. A total score of thirty is assigned, three for each item.

3. Discourse Completion Test (DCT)
The DCT, already used by Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1985), and Yamagashira (2001), is a written role-play questionnaire consisting of 12 situations. Each situation presents respondents with a detailed description of the context and the social status between the interlocutors. The refuser's social status relative to the interlocutor in each group of situations involves three levels: high, equal, and low. Each situation consists of a gap in which only a refusal would fit. The gap is followed by a rejoinder which is said to limit the range of allowable responses a DCT can elicit and thereby facilitate rating (Rover, 2005). The 12 DCT situations are divided into four types: three requests, three invitations, three offers, and three suggestions.

Is 'Discourse Completion Test' a Reliable Data Collection Instrument?
According to Nurani (2009), in pragmatic research, Discourse Completion Test (DCT) is one of the data collection instruments whose reliability is questioned. This is due to several weaknesses of DCT. Firstly, the authenticity of the situations is limited. Then, the hypothetical nature of the situations in DCT simplifies the complexity of interactions in real conversation. Moreover, what people claim they would say in the hypothetical situation is not necessarily what they actually say in real situations. In addition, DCT is not able to bring out the extended negotiation which commonly occurs in authentic discourse due to the absence of interactions between interlocutors. Beebe and Cummings (1996) claim that although the absence of feeling and interaction, insufficient social and situational information such as detailed background of the event and comprehensive information on the role relationship between the speaker and the hearer lead DCT to some drawbacks, the naturalness is only one of many criteria for good data and it does have weaknesses hardly discussed. Natural data clearly represent spontaneous speech; nevertheless, natural data collection is not systematic. The social characteristics of the participants such as age, ethnic group, and socioeconomic status are often unknown, and the time consuming nature of data collection contributes to the main weaknesses of natural data. Moreover, it is inconsistent in applying ethnographic data collection methods.

Beebe and Cummings (1996) add that it is true that absence of naturalness leads to lack of psycho-special dimension of DCT; however, it cannot be ignored that DCT provides several important strengths. DCT allows researchers to collect a large amount of data in a relatively short time. Furthermore, they state that DCT creates model responses which are likely to occur in spontaneous speeches. DCT also provides stereotypical responses for a socially appropriate response.

Administration Procedure / Data Collection
Firstly, the participants were given the Quick Placement Test according to the results of which they were divided into three groups of high, intermediate, and low proficiency. It took 35 minutes. After

that, the grammaticality judgment test was administered. There was no time limit for the task. The third task was the Discourse Completion Test which revealed how much competent the participants were in dealing with pragmatics of the L2. As it was mentioned in the review of the related literature section, all the three tests were used by other others in the field several times and high levels of validity and reliability were reported for them. However, to double check the reliability of the DCT, the verbalizations were marked independently by the author and an experienced university instructor, and finally, the interrater disagreements were resolved through discussion.

Scoring Procedure of Grammaticality Judgment Test

The verbalizations were marked independently by the author and an experienced university instructor. In view of Schmidt (1990), a somewhat relaxed view of what constituted a correct rule was adopted so as to avoid an overly restrictive definition of correct metalinguistic knowledge and to allow scope for the participants to express their understanding. A verbalization was accepted as correct if it expressed the essential information. Thus, a correct rule might be given in a nontechnical language, or cover a somewhat broader or narrower scope than the preset rule statement (Green & Hecht, 1992). For example, a verbalization like "You use *a* when you mention a person or a thing for the first time" was considered just as good as the more precise statement "The indefinite article is used before a singular count noun to indicate that the referent is not identifiable in the shared knowledge of the speaker and the hearer."

Scoring Procedure of Discourse Completion Test

To analyze the data obtained from the administration of the DCT, the researcher used the same semantic formulas as Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1985), and Yamagashira (2001) did (see appendix E for a complete list). The total number of semantic formulas of any kind used for each situation was obtained and the frequency of each formula for each situation was counted. A list was made. Grammatical accuracy was not examined.

Data Analysis

The data collected from the administration of the above mentioned three tests were then transferred to SPSS Version 16 (1998) for statistical analysis. The significance level was set at .05. In analyzing the data, the descriptive statistics and Repeated Measures ANOVA was used to find the relationship between proficiency level and Grammaticality Judgment Test, and proficiency level and the participants' performance on Discourse Completion Test. The relation between the students' proficiency level, metalinguistic knowledge, and their performance on Discourse Completion Test was computed using correlational analysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 2 shows the correlation between proficiency and metalinguistic knowledge in different levels. The correlation between proficiency and metalinguistic (r =.68, p = .000) was significant at level one for the high proficient students; whereas, in levels two and three the correlation was not significant. That is, there was no correlation between the performances of mid and low proficient students and their metalinguistic knowledge.

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

Table 2: Correlation between proficiency and metalinguistic knowledge

	proficiency	metalinguistic knowledg
Level 1	Pearson Correlation	.684**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
Level 2	Pearson Correlation	.031
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.845
Level 3	Pearson Correlation	.336
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.101

Table 3 shows the correlation between the performances of high, intermediate, and low proficient students on Discourse Completion Test.

Table 3: Correlation between proficiency and Pragmatic Competence

	proficiency	pragmatic
Level 1	Pearson Correlation	.315
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.126
Level 2	Pearson Correlation	.142
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.369
Level 3	Pearson Correlation	.159
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.447

The table indicates that there is no correlation between the students' proficiency level and their pragmatic comprehension of context. Another correlation showed the relationship between the metalinguistic knowledge and the pragmatic competence of the students of different proficiency levels. Table 4.

Table 4: Correlation between metalinguistic knowledge and pragmatic competence

	metalinguistic knowledge	pragmatic
Level 1	Pearson Correlation	.488*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013
Level 2	Pearson Correlation	.343*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.026
Level 3	Pearson Correlation	.562**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	. .003

The results show that, for the three groups of high, mid, and low proficiency, there is a significant correlation between the scores on Grammaticality Judgement Test which is an indicator of metalinguistic knowledge, and the scores on the Discourse Completion test as an indicator of pragmatic competence; however, this correlation is more significant for the high and the low proficiency groups. To find the relationship between the students' proficiency level, metalinguistic knowledge, and pragmatic competence, a correlation was run in the SPSS programme. As clear in Table 5, each two of the variables have a significant relationship with each other.

Table 5: Correlation between proficiency level, metalinguistic knowledge and pragmatic competence

		proficiency	metalinguistic	pragmatic
proficiency	Pearson Correlation	1	.541**	.306**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.003
	N	92	92	92
metalinguistic	Pearson Correlation	.541**	1	.492**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	92	92	92
pragmatic	Pearson Correlation	.306**	.492**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.000	
	N	92	92	92

Findings

1. As the results in Table 2 indicated, there is no correlation between proficiency and metalinguistic knowledge for the mid and low proficient students; however, this correlation is significant for the high proficient group about .68. This is in line with what Sorace (1985) found about the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and use of specific structures on different tasks. According to him, there was "a highly significant correlation between knowledge and use in non-beginners", [high proficient students].

So, we can infer that, in low and mid levels, the students' proficiency is not yet high enough to help them understand the knowledge about language. It shows that there is a positive correlation between the linguistic knowledge and the metalinguistic knowledge of the participants, in that, the higher their linguistic knowledge is, the higher their metalinguistic knowledge will be. Moreover, the absence of correlation between proficiency and metalinguistic knowledge in mid and low levels may also mean that teaching about language (teaching the grammatical points deductively) is not preferred for the students of low proficiency and that, this would be possible as students' linguistic knowledge improves and they acquire enough understanding about the metalinguistic knowledge.

2. The absence of correlation between proficiency and pragmatic competence in the three levels (Table 3) is a great evidence that, the L2 learners, even the high proficient ones, perform poorly when it comes to interacting in a real situation. This fact highlights the need to differentiate pragmatic competence from linguistic competence. As Eslami – Rasekh and Eslami – Rasekh (2005) found, the explicit teaching of pragmatics does influence the EFL learners' appropriateness. David (2008) also recommended that English language teachers should move beyond linguistic processing of meaning to pragmatic meaning in language teaching and learning, and that authentic language samples must be used by English language teachers to provide practice for students in expressing themselves pragmatically, not just linguistically. So, any students need to be exposed to the real situations through explicit instruction on pragmatics in classroom and watching films.

3. As mentioned earlier, the comprehension of pragmatic meaning can be differentiated from linguistic comprehension because it requires the listener to understand not only linguistic information, such as vocabulary and syntax, but also contextual information, such as the role and status of the interlocutor, the physical setting of the conversation, and the types of communicative acts that would likely occur in that context (Rost, 2002; Van Dijk, 1977).

Here (in Table 4), as the students improve in proficiency from level three (low) to level two (mid), and from level two (mid) to level one (high), as their metalinguistic knowledge increases, their pragmatic competence also increases, however, the proportion of this increase is less from level three to level two (.56 to .34) compared with level two to level one (34 to .49). Xu, Case, and Wang (2009) found that, there was a strong and positive correlation between pragmatic and grammatical competence for advanced participants and all participants as a group.

4. The positive relationship between scores on Grammaticality Judgement Test vs. the test of L2 proficiency, Discourse Completion Test vs. test of L2 proficiency, and Grammaticality Judgement Test vs. Discourse Completion Test, (Table 5), for the entire sample indicates that in general, as the students' proficiency level increases, their understanding of the knowledge about language (metalinguistic knowledge) also increases; however, this increase in proficiency knowledge more weakly leads to an increase in pragmatic competence, whereas, the more metalinguistic knowledge the students acquire, the better they can perform in situations that need pragmatic competence.

CONCLUSION
The insignificant differences between the performance of the three proficiency groups (high, mid, and low proficient) on Discourse Completion Test indicates that pragmatic failure can occur in an interaction between individuals from the three groups. That is, even high proficient students couldn't perform well in situations where pragmatic comprehension was needed. They even risked committing pragmatic failure and sometimes were considered rude. Foreign language teachers should be aware that fluency in a language involves both a mastery of linguistic knowledge and pragmatic knowledge. Even language learners with a fairly advanced level of proficiency can produce pragmatic failures. This study illuminates several areas where ESL/EFL students might appear inappropriate (i.e., confrontational, presumptuous, vague) when making a refusal. To help our students achieve optimal pragmatic success, teachers need to make students aware of specific *speech act sets* and the accompanying *linguistic features* that are necessary to produce appropriate and well-received refusals, and other important speech acts. Therefore, explicit teaching of L2 pragmatics in the language classroom might be necessary. Language teachers should adopt teaching materials or language activities focused on conscious raising. Moreover, language learners should be taught to be aware of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic behavior (Kasper, 2001).

Before generalizing the findings of the study, we must be aware of some limitations. According to McNamara (2007), if pragmatics is to be understood as language use in social settings, tests would necessarily have to construct such social settings. There are many differences between written and spoken language with regard to hesitation phenomena, tone of voice, facial expression, gesture and a number of other nonverbal cues that interlocutors use to contextualize their utterance and convey their meaning. The present study used DCT as a research tool. Data obtained from a written role play questionnaire might be different from naturally occurring data. So, future studies need to employ other research tools such as role plays or simulation to support the use of Discourse Completion Task.

IJLLALW

REFERENCES

Abuali, M. A. (1995). Assessing Language Competence in Adult EFL Learners: A Pragmatic Perspective. Thesis submitted to the graduate school in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of M.A. in teaching English as a foreign language. Esfahan University.

Alderson, J.C., Clapham, C., & Steel, D. (1996). 'Metalinguistic knowledge, language aptitude and language proficiency'. *Language Teaching Research, 1,*93–121.

Al-Issa, A. (2003). Sociocultural transfer in L2 speech behaviors: Evidence and motivating factors. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, vol* (*27),* 581- 601.

Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. S. (1996). *Language testing in practice: Designing and developing useful language tests*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Bachman, L. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Griffin, R. (2005). L2 pragmatic awareness: Evidence from the ESL classroom. *System, 33,*401–415.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., Mahan-Taylor, R. (2003). Teaching pragmatics. United States Department of State. Available at http://exchanges.state.gov/education/engteaching/onlineca.htm.

Beebe, L. M., Takahashi, T., & Uliss-Weltz, R. (1990). Pragmatic transfer in ESL refusals. In R. Scarcella, E. Andersen, & S. D. Krashen (Eds.), On the development of communicative competence in a second language (pp. 55–73). Cambridge, MA: Newbury House.

Beebe, T., & Uliss-W. (1985). *Journal of Language and Linguistics, 5 (2),* 167-193

Bialystok, E. (2007). Acquisition of Literacy in Bilingual Children: A Framework for Research. *Language Learning, 57 (1),* 45–77.

Bouton, L. F. (1996). Pragmatics and language learning. In L. F. Bouton (Ed.), *Pragmatics and Language Learning,* monograph series,7, 1-30. Urbana-Champaign, IL: Division of English as an International Language, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign.

Bouton, L. (1994). Conversational implicature in a second language: Learned slowly when not deliberately taught. *Journal of Pragmatics, 22,* 157–167.

Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to language pedagogy. In: Richards, J., Schmidt, J. (Eds.), Language and Communication. Longman, London.

Celce-Murcia, M., & Olshtain, E. (2000). *Discourse and context in language teaching: A guide for language teachers*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Chen, X., Ye, L., & Zhang, Y. (1995) Refusing in Chinese. In Gabriele Kasper (ed.), *Pragmatics of Chinese as Native and Target Language*, Manoa, HI: University of Hawai'i Press, 119-163.

Chomsky, N. (1975). The logical structure of linguistic theory. New York: Plenum.

Correa, M. (2011). Subjunctive Accuracy and Metalinguistic Knowledge of L2 Learners of Spanish. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching , 8 (1),* 39–56.

Ellis, R. (2005) Measuring implicit and explicit knowledge of a second language: A psychometric study. *Studies of Second Language Acquisition, 27,* 141-172.

Ellis, N. (2004). The definition and measurement of explicit knowledge. *Language learning, 54,* 227-275.

Eslami-Rasekh, Z., & Eslami-Rasekh, A. (2005, April). An empirical study of NNESTs pragmatic enhancement . The 39 th Annual TESOL Convention. San Antonio , Texas .

Eslami-Rasekh, Z., Eslami-Rasekh, A., & Fatahi, A. (2004). Using metapragmatic instruction to improve advanced EFL learners pragmatic awareness. *TESL EJ,* 8 (2) A2, 1-12.

Fatahi Milasi, A. & Pishghadam, R. (2007). The interplay between explicit and implicit knowledge of English native speakers and ESL learners. *IJAL, 10 (1)*.

Garcia, P. (2004). Pragmatic comprehension of High and Low level language learners. In TESL-EJ., http://writing. Berkely.edu/TESL EJ/ej30/al.html.,8:2.

Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In P. Cole & J. L. Morgan (Eds.), *Syntax and Semantics, 3,* 41-58.

Hu, G. (2002). Psychological constraints on the utility of metalinguistic knowledge in second language production. *Studies of Second Language Acquisition, 24,* 347-386.

Kreutel, K. (2007). "I'm not agree with you." ESL Learners' Expressions of Disagreement. *TESL – EJ top. Volume 11, Number 3.*

Qadoury, A. A. (2011). Pragmatic Transfer in Iraqi EFL Learners' Refusals. *International Journal of English Linguistics, 1 (2),* 66.

Rahimy, R., & Moradkhani , N. (2012). The effect of using grammaticality judgement tasks on Iranian EFL learners' knowledge of grammatical patterns. *ASIAN JOURNAL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES, 1 (2),*148-160.

Rimmer, W. (2006). Grammaticality Judgment Tests: Trial by Error International House Moscow. *Journal of Language and Linguistics , 5 , 2.*

Robinson, M. A. (1992). Introspective methodology in interlanguage pragmatics research. *Technical Report, 3,* 27–82.

Rose, K., & G. Kasper, G. (2001). *Pragmatics in language teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rose, K. R. & Ono, R. (1995). Eliciting speech act data in Japanese: The effect of questionnaire type. *Language Learning, 45*(2), 191-223.

Schmidt, R. W. (1983). Interaction, acculturation and the acquisition of communicative competence. In N. Wolfson & E. Judd (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and second language acquisition* (pp. 137–174). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Schütze, C. T. (1996). *The empirical base of linguistics: Grammaticality judgments and linguistics methodology.* Chicago: The University of Chicago.

Takahashi, T., & Beebe, L. M. (1986). ESL teachers' evaluation of pragmatic vs. grammatical errors. *CUNY Forum*, *12*, 172-203.

Wei Xu a., Rod E. Case a, Yu Wang b, (2009). Pragmatic and grammatical competence, length of residence, and overall L2 proficiency. *System*, *37,* 205–216

IJLLALW

ON IRANIAN EFL TEACHERS' DOMINANT TEACHING STYLES IN PRIVATE LANGUAGE CENTERS: TEACHER-CENTERED OR STUDENT-CENTERED?

Ali Kazemi (Corresponding author)
Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics, Dept. of English, School of Humanities, Yasouj University,Yasouj, Iran
Tel & Fax: (+98) 741 2221502 E-mail: akazemi@yu.ac.ir

Neda Soleimani
M. A. Student of TEFL
Dept. of English, School of Humanities, Yasouj University, Yasouj, Iran

ABSTRACT
The significance of learning English as an international language is widely acknowledged in diverse areas particularly in educational settings (Farhady, 2010). Effective language learning is undoubtedly appreciated in an educational setting and teaching styles contribute to fulfillment of this ambition. Teaching style is viewed as teachers' identifiable and consistent behaviors and techniques in classroom (Conti, 1986). Generally speaking, every teacher follows particular styles in classroom depending on the learners, subject matter, and course objectives. Grasha (1996) proposed a model for teaching style in which teachers' teaching styles are categorized into five groups. It is worthy of note that this model provided the theoretical framework for the current study. Acknowledging the great impact of teaching styles on learners' achievement and varying teaching styles in different context, this survey study aimed at describing English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers' dominant teaching styles at private language centers. To this end, 103 EFL teachers working at private language centers in Iran were randomly selected to fill out the teaching style inventory (TSI) developed by Grasha (1996). Using descriptive statistics, the findings of this study showed that EFL teachers dominantly implement formal teaching style in private language centers. The implications of the findings are also discussed.

KEY WORDS: teaching styles, private language centers, teacher-centered, student-centered

INTRODUCTION
Learning English as an international language plays a pivotal role in current educational system of Iran, international marketing, and diplomacy. It is worthy of note that despite other Asian counties like Japan in which English is used as medium of internationalization, the significance of learning English is restricted to educational setting in Iran (Farhady, 2010). As such, language learning is extensively recommended in educational settings and English is an indispensible course offered at all levels of education from Junior High to university.
One of the determining factors in learners' successful learning is teaching styles (Knowles, 1980). Large bodies of supportive evidence stress the effect of teaching style on learners' achievements (Conti, 1985; Miglietti & Strange, 1998). Teaching style refers to" a predilection toward teaching behavior and the congruence between educators' teaching behavior and teaching beliefs" (Heimlich & Norland, 1994, p.34). In fact, teaching styles are reflections of an amalgamation of teachers' theoretical assumptions and actual teaching practice. Jarvis (2004)

provides a more vivid account of teaching style and believes that a style "is the totality of one's philosophy, beliefs, values, and behaviors, and it incorporates the full implementation of this philosophy; it consists of substantiation and support of beliefs about values and attitudes toward elements of the student learning and teacher learning exchange" (p. 40).

The categorizations of teaching style have been recurrently stated in literature using different terminologies (Akbari & Karimi Allvar, 2010). For example, Flanders (1970) grouped teaching styles into Direct style (didactic) and Indirect style (student-centered). Similarly, Bennett (1976) identified informal (student-centered) and formal (teacher-centered) teaching styles. Moreover, Campbell (1995) proposed another categorization of teaching styles, which includes Didactic, Socratic and Facilitative teaching styles. Didactic teachers are dominant authorities in educational settings. Socratic teaching style is again a teacher-directed approach and students' questions determine the direction of teaching process. Facilitative teachers create a pleasant environment and students are responsible for their own learning.

In the same vain, Grasha (1996) asserted that teachers' teaching style is a representation of teachers' value system and needs. Regarding the role played by teachers in a class, Grasha introduced a framework based on which teachers' teaching styles are grouped into five classes: (a) formal authority teaching, (b) expert, (c) personal model, (d) delegator, and (e) facilitator.

The framework formulated by Grasha (1996) is the theoretical background of this study and his categorization of teaching styles could be traced back to the traditional dichotomy of teacher-centered and student-centered teaching styles. More specifically, an expert model possesses the knowledge that students need and is concerned with transmitting correct information to students. A formal authority model is mainly involved with providing feedback to students and establishing rules and expectations. This teacher is assumed as an expert in his field of study, responsible for preparing materials and managing the students. The personal model teacher assumes himself as a model for students and students have to emulate his approaches.

The facilitator teacher focuses on teacher-student interaction, tries to guide students by asking questions and suggesting options, and encourages students to make informed decisions. In this style, the teacher is a good listener trying to enhance teacher-student interactions and critical thinking. The delegator teacher is characterized as a resourceful person who is available at the request of students. Fostering autonomy in learners is of primary significance for the delegator teaching style. The summary of this classification in terms of teacher-centered and student-centered could be observed in Table 1.

Table 1: Grshas' teaching styles (Psychology Factsheet, 1996)

Teacher-centered styles	student-centered styles
The Expert style	the facilitator style
The personal style	the delegator style
The Formal Authority styles	

IJLLALW

As seen in Table 1, the expert style, the personal style, and the formal authority style are attributed to teacher-centered styles whereas the facilitator style and the delegator style are defined as student-centered styles. However, the issue of concern is that teachers' teaching styles might differ depending on the context and students' needs and that no single teacher is following only one style in an educational setting. Grasha (2002) maintained, "Each style is not a box into which faculty members fit; rather, all of the dimensions shown are present in varying degrees within the attitudes and behaviors of teachers" (p.140).

Therefore, teaching style could fall into four clusters: Expert/Formal Authority (38%); Cluster 2: Personal Model/Expert/Formal Authority (22%); Cluster 3: Facilitator/Personal Model/Expert (17%); and Cluster 4: Delegator/Facilitator/Expert (15%). Moreover, drawing a clear border between teacher-centered and student-centered styles might be a demanding task if not impossible and teachers might represent an amalgamation of both teacher-centered and student-centered teaching styles.

Teaching styles have been studied in diverse contexts and from different angles. In here, a summary of the most relevant studies into teaching styles are discussed. According to the literature, teachers' teaching styles vary depending on the context of teaching (e.g. public schools or private centers) (Korthagen, 2004), the subject matter, or the curriculum (Cunningsworth, 1995), and learners' learning styles (Oxford, 2002). Of influential factors in teaching styles are demographic variables including age, gender, students' learning styles and level of education (Brew, 2002).

In an investigation into the impact of gender on teaching styles in Iran, Karimvand (2011) found that male teachers practice a more authoritarian teaching style compared to female teachers. The other variable affecting teachers' teaching style is self-efficacy. Soodak and Podell (1997) discovered that experienced teachers show more resistance to change in their perception of personal efficacy and use different types of activities. This is less true of less experienced teachers.

Grasha invented a personality type inventory, which has been used by Larenas, Moran and Rivera (2010) in a quest for the relationship between teachers' personality type and teaching style. They selected their respondents from both public and private sectors. The findings of their study indicated that public sector participants tended to follow a facilitator teaching style and an extrovert personality type; yet private sector participants showed a more authoritative teaching style and an introverted type of personality.

In an investigation into educational backgrounds and teaching styles of athletic training educators in entry-level CAAHEP accredited athletic training programs, Rich (2006) studied 338 athletic educators in the US. The investigator used Grasha' teaching style inventory to collect data .The findings showed that athletic educators predominantly use a personal model and none of the educators practices delegator style of teaching.

Campbell and Yong (1993) conducted a study on foreign language institutes in the People's Republic of China. They found that a composition of the audio-lingual method and traditional teacher-centered grammar translation method were practiced in these institutes.

Riazi and Razmjoo (2006) studied language-teaching methodologies used in Shiraz EFL institutes. They used both qualitative and quantitative instruments to collect data. Detailed

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

observation and a questionnaire addressing EFL learners about the effectiveness of instruction in the institutes in which they registered were used to gather data. Findings of this study showed that EFL teachers tend to practice communicative language teaching in private language institutes.

Faruji (2012) examined EFL dominant teachers' teaching styles in private language centers using Grasha' teaching style inventory and interview questions on 24 respondents. Her findings indicated that EFL teachers are performing Formal Authority Style, Expert Model Style, Facilitator Style, Personal Style, and Delegator Style, respectively. Kassaian and Ayatollahi (2010) conducted a study on the optimal level of teachers' guidance among Iranian EFL instructors. Their findings showed that teachers' levels of guidance vary depending on the nature of courses (English for specific purposes or general English).

Asadollahi and Rahimi (2012) investigated Iranian EFL teachers' teaching styles in high schools. They used Teaching Activities Preference (TAP) questionnaire developed by Cooper (2001). This study revealed that "male and female teachers were different in extroverting, sensing, and feeling styles of teaching while female teachers used activities related to these styles more than their male counterparts did" (p.157).

Currently English is a course offered in both junior high and high schools in Iran. However, learning English is increasingly in demand in diverse areas of society and due to some limitations and shortcomings in high schools, Iranian students tend to attend private language centers to learn English. The other justification encouraging people to enroll in private language centers to learn the language could be sought within teaching methodologies and styles EFL teachers perform. Iranian EFL teachers prevalently follow grammar translation method (GTM) in high schools, which heavily relies on vocabulary memorization and translation activities (Dolati & Mikaili, 2011). In GTM-oriented classrooms, the focus is on reading passages and reading activities. As such, few listening and speaking activities are practiced in GTM classes. Since in high schools GTM is regularly practiced, many language learners interested in learning spoken and communicative language attend private language centers.

Substantial research evidence confirms that teachers' teaching styles are not all the same and teachers adopt various styles to create effective teaching (Baily, 1984). In addition, effective teaching styles contribute to effective learning (Knowles, 1980). Although teaching styles have been looked upon from several points of view, studies into EFL teachers in private language centers are still sparse. Hence, this study attempts to determine EFL teachers' dominant teaching styles in private language centers in Iran.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
To keep abreast of the latest developments both in theory and practice in teaching language, to incorporate the latest research findings into theory and practice of language pedagogy and in response to the demands placed on language teachers by the society, in the Iranian context, some attempts have been underway to shift away from traditional teacher-centered classes to learner- and learning-centered ones. Given that each of these approaches entails different teaching styles,

193

IJLLALW

which are not necessarily compatible with the other approaches, the current research seeks to determine whether in Iranian language centers a real change has taken place or not. Specifically, an attempt is made to determine whether these language centers are teacher-centered or learner-centered in terms of the teaching styles adopted by language teachers.

METHODOLOGY
Sampling procedure
Population of this survey study included the teachers teaching at private language centers. To select the samples, the researchers used convenient sampling and selected two available cities: Yasuj and Gachsaran. Then, because the language centers in these two cities were scattered, the researchers applied random cluster sampling to choose the participants of the study. According to Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, and Razavieh (2010) cluster sampling is a kind of probability sampling in which the chosen unit is a group of individuals who are naturally together. That is a number of individuals who share similar characteristics with regard to the variables in the study and formulate a cluster.

In this study, the selected unit is English private language centers in which language skills are taught in Yasuj and Gachsaran. Based on a list of the ministry of education, there are 50 English private language centers in Yasuj and Gachsaran of which 13 centers were randomly selected. Thirteen clusters comprised 110 EFL teachers. Thru one -stage cluster sampling, all the teachers in 13 language centers were surveyed.

The participants of this study were different in terms of level of education, teaching experiences and field of study. Demographic information about the participants is given in Table 2. The majority of samples were female (63%) and the rest male (37%). Their teaching experiences ranged from one year to fifteen years. All of the EFL teachers had the experience of teaching all four language skill: speaking, listening, reading and writing.

Table 2 Demographic Information of participants

Variable	f	%
Gender (n=103)		
Male	37	35.92
Female	66	64.07
Years of teaching experience		
One year or less	14	13.59
2-5 years	55	53.39
6-10 years	25	24.27
10 or more than 10	9	8.73
Level of education		
B.A.	61	59.22
M.A.	37	35.92
Ph. D.	5	4.85
Age of the teachers		
18-23	26	25.24
24-35	67	65.04
36 and more	10	9.70

Instrumentation
To collect the data use was made of teaching style inventory (TSI) that is a forty-item questionnaire designed by Grasha (1996). In this questionnaire a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree is used. This inventory is a standard quantitative tool to categorize teachers' instructional behavior into five styles: (a) expert, (b) formal authority, (c) personal model, (d) facilitator, and (e) delegator. On the whole, TSI showed an acceptable internal consistency (α=0.75). In fact, each subsection of TSI is composed of eight questions and teachers were required to mark the choice that best described their teaching preferences (see appendix A). That is, eight questions were pertinent to each teaching style of expert, formal authority, personal model, facilitator, and delegator.

Once the questionnaires were completed and gathered, the scores given to the items of each subscale were tallied and five groups of scores were obtained. The scores of each subcategory of TSI reflect teachers' teaching style.

Data collection and analysis
The current study was carried out from March 15, 2012 to Jun 20, 2013. To collect the data, the researchers first contacted the managers of the selected private language centers in Yasuj and Gachsaran and then the two previously mentioned questionnaires were administered in person. To ensure the full cooperation of the participants, the researchers offered a small gift to the participants. These small incentives helped the researchers to obtain responses that are more accurate. Thru one-to-one administration, the instruments were simultaneously handed in to one hundred and ten participants and the researchers explained the aims of the study and asked them to provide accurate responses. Finally, one hundred and three questionnaires were found complete and seven questionnaires were left out due to missing data.
In this quantitative study, the researchers made extensive use of Statistical Package for Science (SPSS) 16 to carry out data analysis. In particular, descriptive statistics were used to shed light on EFL teachers' dominant teaching styles.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
This study investigated EFL teachers' dominant teaching styles in private language centers. Data were analyzed though SPSS and the descriptive statistics are provided in Table. 3.

Table 3: EFL teachers' teaching styles (descriptive statistics).

Teaching styles	N	minimum	maximum	mean	standard deviation
Formal authority	103	22	40	30.20	5.03
Personal model	103	19	37	29.95	3.30
Facilitator	103	20	38	29.84	3.85
Expert model	103	17	37	29.17	3.77
Delegator	103	15	38	27.45	3.84

According to the results of this study, EFL teachers dominantly use formal authority teaching style Formal (mean =30.20, SD=5.03). However, delegator model is the least dominant teaching style EFL teachers employ in private language centers. After formal authority teaching style, EFL

IJLLALW

teachers preferred to adopt personal model (mean=29.95, SD=3.30), facilitator style (mean=29.84, SD=3.85), expert model (mean=29.17, SD=3.77), respectively.

As mentioned earlier, formal authority teaching style is a teacher-centered style of teaching. In teacher-centered approach, the teacher is the authority in the classroom whereas in a learner-centered approach the students can participate in decision-making processes and teachers are primarily concerned with facilitating learning rather than controlling students (Rogers & Freiberg, 1994). Because in Iranian high schools, EFL teachers prevalently employ GTM to teach students, Iranian language learners prefer to attend private language centers to learn spoken language and communicate in English. Unlike GTM, that is a reading-based method, in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) "everything is done with communicative intent" (Larsen-Freeman cited in Rao2002, p.81) and students are provided with opportunities to voice their opinions and participate in decision-making processes. Therefore, in CLT teachers establish a mutual relationship with the students to develop learning. However, contrary to the researchers' expectations, the results of this study indicated that EFL teachers manipulate formal authority teaching style, that is a teacher-centered style in private langue centers. EFL teachers tending to practice Formal Authority Style heavily rely on transmitting accurate knowledge to students. They are assumed to be experts in their field of study, responsible for preparing materials, managing the class, setting rules, providing students with appropriate feedbacks and doing tasks in standard ways (Grasha, 2002).

The results of this study were in line with those of Faruji (2012) on EFL teachers' dominant teaching styles in English language centers. One reason for this finding could be that the overall educational system of Iran is strongly affected by behavioristic approaches to learning. Iranian teachers still practice traditional methodologies and styles in educational settings to maintain their dominance over the students and to be the locus of control (Pishghadam & Navari, 2010). It is worth noting that teachers' philosophy of teaching affects their teaching styles and in such a traditional system, conventional teaching or teacher-centered styles are encouraged and practiced. In Iran, parents and educational authorities expect teachers to be the locus of control and students' latitude is not allowed. The findings vouch the results of an investigation on foreign language institutes in the People's Republic of China by Campbell and Yong (1993). Their results revealed that Audio-Lingual Method, a teacher-centered, method is followed in foreign language centers in China. Interestingly, this finding could be supportive evidence for the tendency of teachers to adopt a teacher-centered methodology in such countries.

The other justification for applying a teacher-centered teaching style in private language centers is that the nature of subject being learned is different in an EFL class. As Littlewood (1984) puts it, developing communicative ability is the primary goal in a foreign language learning environment. Unfortunately, an informal language environment is not available for most EFL learners. Therefore, EFL teachers shoulder the huge responsibility of creating an environment where EFL learners are exposed to language even minimally (Krashen, 1976). Under such circumstances, EFL teachers should teach students thru communicative tasks and activities. Undoubtedly, EFL teachers are required to establish a rapport with students and build a warm environment to ease learning; yet they should be meticulous in terms of controlling students' inevitable misbehaviors. Thereupon, EFL teachers need control everything to contribute to a successful teaching and learning environment.

The results of this study do not support the findings of a study on athletic educators' teaching styles by Rich (2006). This inconsistency might be because teachers of different subjects exhibit

varying teaching styles and behaviors. Additionally, the findings of the current study do not lend support to the results of an investigation into EFL teachers' methodologies in private language institutes in Shiraz. This discrepancy could be attributed to the setting of data collection. This could be due to the fact that Shiraz is a metropolis and language learning is deep-rooted in this city. Normally teachers might be provided with better facilities in terms of teacher training courses in larger cities and are, thus, in a position, to acquire the latest teaching methodologies and skills.

CONCLUSION

This descriptive survey study was aimed at determining EFL teachers' dominant teaching styles in private language centers. The data were analyzed thru SPSS and descriptive statistics and it became clear that EFL teachers predominantly have formal authority style (a teacher-centered style). The findings of this study could have implications for EFL teachers in that it could provide them with a profile of their performances, in the light of which they could improve their teaching practices. However, further studies are required to discover the impact of proficiency level of students on EFL teachers teaching styles. This study used a quantitative instrument to gather the data to draw a snapshot of teachers' dominant style.

Every research project may suffer from some limitations and the current investigation is no exception. Due to the fact that the participants of this study were selected thru cluster sampling from small districts, the findings will have limited generalizability. Moreover, some variables beyond the control of the researchers might affect the overall results of this study. Further, the instrument used in this project was a questionnaire and a superficial picture of teaching style was depicted. More studies could be done to shed light on how teachers teach and what factors affect how they do this.

REFERENCES

Akbari, R., & Karimi Allvar, N. (2010). L2 teacher characteristics as predictors of students' academic achievement. *TESL-EJ, 13* (4), 1-10.

Ary, D., Jacobs, L., Sorensen, C., & Razavieh, A. (2010). *Introduction to research in education* (10th ed.). Canada: Wadsworth Publishing.

Asadollahi, F., & Rahimi, M. (2012). "Teaching Styles of Iranian EFL Teachers: Do Gender, Age, and Experience Make a Difference". *International Journal of English Linguistics, 2(2),* 153-164.

Baily, G. (1984). An Evaluator's guide to diagnosing and analyzing teaching style. *NASSP Bulletin, 68,* 19-25. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/019263658406846903

Bennett, N., Jordan. J., Long, G., & Wade. B. (1976). *Teaching styles and pupil progress.* London: Open Books Publishing Limited.

Brew, R. (2002). Kolb's learning style instrument: Sensitive to gender. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 62,* 373-90. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0013164402062002011

Campbell, J. (1996). A comparison of teacher-efficacy for pre- and in-service teachers in Scotland and America. *Journal of Education, 117,* 2-12

IJLLALW

Conti, G., J. (1985). The relationship between teaching style and adult student learning. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 35, 220-228. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0001848185035004004.

Cooper, C. (2001)*. Foreign language teaching style and personality.* Foreign Language Annals, 34, 301-16. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2001.tb02062.x

Cunningsworth, A. (1995). *Choosing your course book.* Oxford: Macmillan Heinemann.

Dolati, I., & Mikaili, P. (2011). Opinions related to the main reasons on Iranian Students' difficulties in Spoken English proficiency. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences,* 5(11), 1142-1148.

Farhady, H., Sajadi Hezaveh, F., & Hedayati, H. (2010). Reflections on Foreign Language Education in Iran. *The Electronic Journal for English as a Second Language*, 13 (4), 1-18.

Faruji, L. (2012). Teachers' Teaching Styles at English Language Institutes in Iran. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education*, 2, 364-373.

Flanders, A. (1970). *Analyzing teacher behavior.* MA: Addition-Wesley Publishing Company.

Grasha, A. F. (1996). *Teaching with styles: A practical guide to enhance learning by Understanding learning and teaching styles.* New York: Alliance Publisher.

Grasha. A. F. (2002). The Dynamics of One-on-One Teaching. *College Teaching, 50 (4),* 139-147.

Heimlich, E., & Norland, E. (1994). *Developing teaching style in adult education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Jarvis, P. (2004). *Adult education and lifelong learning: Theory and practice.* London: Routledge Falmer.

Karimvand, P. N. (2011). The Nexus between Iranian EFL Teachers' self-efficacy, teaching experience and gender. *English Language Teaching,* 4, 171-183. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v4n3p17*d*

Kassaian, Z., & Ayatollahi, M.A. (2010)**.** Teaching Styles and Optimal Guidance in English Language Major. *Quarterly Journal of Research and Planning in Higher Education, 55,* 131**-**152.

Knowles, M., S. (1980)*. The modern practice of adult education: From pedagogy to andragogy.* New York: Cambridge Books.

Korthagen, F. A. J. (2004). In search of the essence of a good teacher: Towards a more holistic approach i teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *20*, 77-97. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2003.10.002

Krahen, S.D. (1976). Formal and informal linguistic environments in language acquisition and learning *TESOL QUARTERLY,* 10,157-168.

Larenas, C., Moran, A., & Rivera, K. (2011). Comparing Teaching Styles and Personality Types of EFL Instructors in the Public and Private Sectors. *PROFILE Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 13* (1)*,* 111-127.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and principles in language teaching* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Littlewood, W.T. (1984). *Foreign and second language learning. Cambridge*: Cambridge University Press.

Miglietti, C., L., & Strange, C., C. (1998). Learning styles, classroom environment preferences, teaching styles, and remedial course outcomes for underprepared adults at a two-year college. *Community College Review*, *26*, 1-19. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/009155219802600101

Oxford, R. (2002). Language learning strategies. In R. Carter and D. Nunan. (Eds.). *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages* (pp. 166-172). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Pishghadam, R., & Navari, S. (2010). Examining Iranian language learners' perceptions of language education in formal and informal contexts: A quantitative study. Retrieved April 2010 from http://www.mjal.org/Journal/Examining.pdf.

Riazi, A.M., & Razmjoo, S.A. (2006). On the Teaching Methodology of Shiraz EFL Institutes. *journal of social sciences & humanities of shiraz university, 23(1),* 58-70.

Rich, Valerie J. (2006). *Educational backgrounds and teaching styles of athletic training educators in entry-level CAAHEP accredited athletic training programs*. Unpublished dissertation for the degree of doctor of philosophy. University of South Florida*.*

Rogers, C., & Freiberg, H. J. (1994). *Freedom to learn (3rd ed.).* New York: Macmillan/Merrill.

Soodak, L., & Podell, D. (1997). Efficacy and experience: Perceptions of efficacy among pre-service and practicing teachers. *Journal of Research and Development in Education, 30,* 214-219.

EXCESSIVE ORIENTATION TO EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH AN OBSTACLE FOR INNOVATIVENESS AND CRITICALITY IN ELT METHODOLOGY

Fatemeh Hemmati

Department of Foreign Languages, Payame Noor University, POB: 19395-4697, Tehran, I.R. Iran
E-mail: fatemehhemmati2002@yahoo.co.uk
Mobile: 09123789248

Majid Ghelichi (Corresponding author)

Department of Foreign Languages, Payame Noor University, POB: 19395-4697, Tehran, I.R. Iran
E-mail: majid200954@yahoo.com
Mobile: 09169600598

ABSTRACT
This article has been aimed at discussing the ways in which experimental methodological research in English language teaching (ELT) in many contexts is problematic. It also addresses how excessively orienting Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) student researchers and teacher researchers towards experimental studies, at the expense of engaging them in thought-provoking argumentative writing and theorizing, has rendered them incapable of discovery-learning and critical thinking in their field of specialization. A discussion has also been presented about different educational philosophies and how they apply to our EFL context in Iran. In summary, it has been argued that our ELT context in Iran is highly dominated by strict adherence to experimentally-oriented thinking and researching away from provision of opportunities for ELT-specializing students to practice thinking through an argumentative genre. Consequently, rarely have they developed the ability and self-confidence to *doubt* and think beyond and above what they have read in books or been dictated upon by other western scholars. This has given rise to a trend of thinking the only product of which has been the habit of *believing* what the so-called [omniscient] Big Names have too much confidently argued to be the TRUTH.

KEW WORDS: theory-construction; criticality; innovativeness; argumentative genre

INTRODUCTION

A comparison between three outstanding educational philosophies clearly reveals how each of them differentially advocates a distinctive approach to educating people. These educational philosophies are called classical humanism, re-constructionism, and progressivism (Clark, 1987). At one end exists classical humanism which, although dating back to very old eras in the history of education, is still widely prevalent in some parts of the world where education is merely an exchange of information from the knower to the learner. At the other end of the continuum, lies progressivism which rightly propagates the need for developing critical thinking and reflectivity in learners. This is what will result in discovery-learning by enhancing the habits of self-regulated problem solving and reflection.

In the field of English language teaching (ELT) in particular, such criticality and reflectivity in methodological research and theorizing are suppressed by excessively orienting English teachers and ELT university students towards experimental studies within the limits of pretest-intervention-posttest cycles. This article, therefore, aims at providing a critical analysis of this situation and proposing some hints for enhancing innovativeness, criticality, and agency in both English teachers and ELT-specializing students.

EDUCATIONAL VALUE SYSTEMS

There are three educational value systems which reflect particular socio-political and philosophical beliefs (Clark, 1987). Clark adopts Skilbeck's (1982) conceptual framework through which he has identified three broad value systems which permeate educational processes. These value systems in education are *classical humanism, reconstructionism,* and *progressivism*. Each is elaborated below.

Classical humanism is concerned with the one-way exchange of knowledge from the knower, i.e. the teacher, to the learner for the purpose of promoting intellectual capacities and cultural values. The learner is considered a person who receives and, later, applies and uses what the teacher has taught him or her. The teacher is the only agent who decides what is worth teaching and learning and how it is to be taught and learned, with little room left for creativity, decision-making, and criticality by the learner. Although Clark (1987, p. 5) presents Skilbeck's (1982) analysis of the classical humanist approach to education as characterized by "the ability to analyze, classify, and reconstruct elements of knowledge, so that these capacities can be brought to bear on the various challenges likely to be encountered in life", in some educational systems based on classical humanism the product of learning closely corresponds the first two levels of Bloom's (1956) six-level taxonomy of objectives for the cognitive domain (Richards and Schmidt, 2002), i.e. the levels of 'knowledge' and 'comprehension'. Of course, not very pessimistically, the second level (comprehension) may not accrue in many cases. Rarely do learners reach the final level of 'evaluation' in such contexts – Bloom's taxonomy consists of six levels, namely, knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

Unlike classical humanism which is knowledge-oriented (Clark, 1987), *reconstructionism* is society-oriented (ibid). This educational philosophy, in Clark's (1987) words, "is an essentially optimistic ideology which believes that man can improve himself and his environment…and that social, economic, intellectual, and spiritual advance can all be planned for. Education is seen as an important agent for bringing this about." (p.14). Reconstructionism is also objective-oriented. That is, it breaks knowledge down into achievable objectives towards which teachers and learners strive. In this philosophy "human beings must be seen as persons, as purposive agents, to be valued as equals irrespective of their level of ability or achievement" (ibid).

The third educational philosophy is *progressivism*. It is "a learner-centered approach to education" which sees the learner "as a whole person and not just as a disembodied intellect or as a skilled performer" (ibid). It emphasizes the provision of learning experiences and opportunities in which children can learn from their own learning and by their own efforts.

The only man who is educated is the man who has learned how to learn; the man who has learned how to adapt and change; the man who has learned that no knowledge is secure, that only the process of seeking knowledge gives a basis for security (Rogers, 1969, cited in Clark, 1987, p. 49).

Therefore, unlike classical humanism which considers knowledge "a set of closed truths and fixed facts" (ibid), progressivism sees knowledge as:

> A creative problem-solving capacity that depends on an ability to retrieve appropriate schemata from a mental store, to utilize whatever can be automatically brought to bear on a situation, and to bend existing conceptual structures to the creation of novel concepts that offer a working solution to the particular problem in hand (ibid, pp. 49-50).

The greatest emphasis in progressivism is placed upon "learning by doing rather than by being taught" and upon "learners as active participants shaping their own learning" (ibid, p. 50).

THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE SYSTEM INSPIRING OUR SCHOOLING

There are a number of ways in which our educational system corresponds with classical humanism or, to some extent, re-constructionism, away from progressivism. Of course, a comprehensive discussion of all of these ways is beyond the scope of this article. Therefore, I will scratch the surface with reference to some of them.

First, from the perspective of teachers, one could argue that teachers themselves have been reared and educated in a memorization-reproduction-oriented way. They themselves, in most cases, have not developed the skills for critical thinking and analysis which are the pre-requisites for innovativeness. To what extent are such teachers able to help their learners develop the habits of criticality and reflectivity while they are studying or learning?

Second, the *methodologies* which are used for teaching mostly encourage memorizing discrete, non-integrated, unanalyzed pieces of information the only product of which is knowledge acquisition. To what extent, if any, have we encouraged our students to stop to wonder whether, and to what extent, what they are told or what they read is actually correct? To what extent have we helped them realize the fact that nobody is God? Do we really teach them how to become *thinkers* or do we, in reality, *force* them to become *learners and imitators*? Both the way teachers themselves have been educated and the methodologies they adopt for teaching their students inculcate in the students' minds the habit of imitating and non-critically accepting whatever they hear, see, or read. Having been educated through such *methods and methodologies,* can such students, some day in future, be expected to have any well-thought-out hypotheses about the validity of the prospective methods which they, as would-be teachers, would adopt for their own professional practice? In other words, can they develop in their future students the skills and habits of being critical and evaluative, habits which they themselves *lack*? Are our university students specializing in TEFL real critics of ELT methods or do they only assemble some pieces of information such as review of literature, treatment, data collection and analysis, and discussion to submit a paper as a course requirement?

Third, the way we assess and evaluate the performance of our students renders them memorizers, regurgitaters of stuff remembered from books, and, in a nutshell, *non-thinkers*. Are our students judged and evaluated by what they have thought and contributed themselves, even if they are not

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

perfectly right, or by how exactly they have copied verbatim and by rote the contents of the course book? Are our students normally encouraged to risk presenting arguments of their own and are such risks valued by educators? Even disappointingly, students are sometimes penalized for using their own opinions in answering questions and for not using the exact words they have read in books. Here exists a very critical difference between our evaluation criteria and those followed in developed countries where novelty in thinking, originality and genuineness in ideas, and being critical and analytic are highly valued.

PROBLEMS WITH EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES CONDUCTED IN OUR CONTEXT

Although the merits of experimental design for research purposes cannot be ignored because of the high degree of "control of extraneous variables" (Mitchell and Myles, 2004, p.127) and also due to "control of the target language and target structures to be learned, control of exposure, control of instruction (explanation), control of tasks, and control of response measurement" (Hulstijn, 1997, pp.139-40, cited in Mitchell and Myles, 2004, p.127), Mitchell and Myles (2004) argue that:

It is questionable how far you can isolate variables that would be interacting in a natural context, and therefore how far results obtained in that way mirror what happens in real life with real languages. Moreover, because of the highly controlled nature of laboratory experiments, the questions being asked tend to be very specific and local, with the resulting danger of ignoring how different aspects of the learning process might interact (p. 127).

De Graaff (1997, p. 272, cited in Mitchell and Myles, 2004, p. 128) maintains that "However, the more controlled the design and the more specific the learning task, the more we bear the risk of not studying L2 acquisition any more, but only participants' capacity to carry out some kind of cognitive puzzle." Therefore, one of the disadvantages of experimental studies is the high degree of control they entail. But the question that arises at this point is how this disadvantage, apart from being an inherent drawback of experimental studies for adequately explaining the L2 acquisition process, is related to our present discussion. The answer lies with the fact that such a degree of control and a priori determinism in specifying research questions, variables and procedures severely narrows the researcher's peripheral vision in looking for a "complex unpredictable" (Larsen-Freeman, 1997) array of interactions and interrelationships among a complex unpredictable constellation of variables. Such a peripheral vision is exactly what a researcher or scholar uses when s/he engages in the complex process of hypothesis generating and consequently theory-construction about second language acquisition (SLA) processes. Especially in our own ELT context it has mistakenly been fashionable to think that experimental studies must be legitimized by a related review of literature which, although useful in itself, may sometimes simplistically be considered a theoretical panacea at the expense of any self-initiated theorizing and innovativeness on the part of the researchers themselves. In other words, the confining stipulations of conducting experimental studies such as the requirement that a researcher must always continue what other previous researchers have done up to a certain point and be inspired by the existing literature on the research question in hand severely restrict our researchers' freedom to proceed with their possibly novel ideas and hypotheses, to the point that, in many cases, they completely abandon their initial research questions because of the limitations

they encounter during the carry-out of their studies until they come up with totally new questions which are infinitely different from what they were initially supposed to do, let alone the mirage of their becoming theorists and innovators.

A further problem with TEFL experimental studies in our context and actually many other contexts in general relates to the accuracy with which such studies are carried out. The accuracy of these studies may be considered problematic on several grounds as follows.

First, in many cases such studies are conducted by TEFL university students as course requirements. Due to the practical limitations in carrying out genuine experimental studies in many ELT contexts such as availability and accessibility of samples of subjects, time limitation, facilities and financial problems, commitment and collaboration of participants, such studies do not adequately represent reliable studies. Second, student researchers themselves may not have the ability, expertise or commitment to put their full investment in the studies. This is because, in many cases, such students do not have good reasons and motives for carrying out experimental studies except a pass score in their own course. They, therefore, sometimes *wrap the task up* very quickly while they seem to be doing sound experiments. Also, sometimes teachers do experimental studies to get promotion, again with the same or similar problems of truthfulness and trustworthiness. Next, experience in reading the reports of such studies and being consulted by their conductors, who are M.A. and even Ph.D. students, has shown that, in many cases, the researcher students do not have enough training in the basics and principles of research such as design, data analysis, statistical concepts and procedures, randomization, interpretation of results, and so on. For example, some student researchers or teacher researchers make attempts to homogenize intact-group classes simply by administering a general language proficiency test prior to the treatment. And they naively think that this can account for an absence of randomization.

In summary, these problems and the like are very likely to yield experimental studies which do not enjoy acceptable indexes of reliability and are likely to suffer low internal and external validity. Finally, such studies mostly take the form of methods-comparison studies, sometimes as mere replications of previous studies. Rarely do such studies reveal genuine questions arising out of deliberation, reflection, and sound theoretical argumentation. All these render researchers *knowledge consumers* rather than *knowledge producers* and *real thinkers*.

IMPLICATIONS FOR METHODOLOGICAL RESEARCH IN ELT
Especially in contexts representing 'Expanding Circle' countries (Kachru, 1985), it is still fashionable to think that only one method which is related to a particular theory of learning or theory of language is superior to other methods, therefore, rejecting other rival stances. For example, it has become fashionable to reject any method or methodological issues affiliated to the behaviorist psychology and accept anything related to communicative language teaching (CLT), at least among practitioners with lower academic education. Most people in the field of ELT in these contexts believe that there is an alleged "best method", in Richards' (2001) terms, for teaching English which outweighs other methods and underlying theoretical principles. Therefore, every university student specializing in TEFL engages or is required to engage in methods-comparison studies in pursuit of that best method – a phenomenon resulting in their being *theory-users* rather than *theory-constructors*. This is because as long as one takes a "classroom as experimental laboratory" perspective (Breen, 2001) with certain pre-specified and controlled variables in mind, s/he is bound to be a servant of the principles of the experiment-

based mode of thinking. Breaking such confines requires engaging in thought-provoking argumentation and critical theorizing and theory analysis. This is likely to result in multi-dimensionality in thinking and knowledge productivity. It is this sort of orientation to research that lets us know that we cannot totally and simplistically reject the behaviorist psychology simply because others have done or said so, i.e. criticized it. Even if others have rejected it, they have been able, or at least encouraged, to think and argue analytically and convincingly rather than support or reject the totality of a theory by blindly imitating other people or based on the findings of a single laboratory-based experimental study.

Such narrow-mindedness has prevented those involved in English language teaching (ELT) in many countries from becoming self-actualized thinkers and has oriented them towards being greedy reviewers and narrators of the available literature.

There seems to exist a vicious cycle which is very difficult to get out of. This knowledge-dependency which is prevalent in our context has taken away from us the self-confidence to think critically, act confidently, and generate the knowledge which we are otherwise supposed to *faithfully* borrow from others.

We have been schooled in a tradition which emphasizes *knowing* and *memorizing* only. Rarely does it encourage critical reflection and thinking. When applied to ELT methodology, this tradition has always based English language teacher education and teacher research on the assumption that others have supplied the necessary theoretical underpinnings and principles upon which teachers and researchers can draw for their own teaching practices and research purposes. Hardly ever are we judged by what we have dared say about what we ourselves believe to be true about language teaching methods and methodology away from the dictatorship of the outer professional world.

I do not intend by any means, however, to deny the importance and relevance of what others have said and done which is already available to us in the form of ELT literature. What I am trying to downgrade is strict and illegitimate adherence to conducting *pretest-treatment-posttest* experimental studies in many EFL contexts in pursuit of either "best methods" (ibid) or testing and verifying what other people have argued to be the best methods. Such are the sources of non-criticality and non-creativity which have rendered our students at all levels of education imitative. Although such experimentation, in many cases, is justifiable and necessary, it is, by itself, not all that is sufficient for an academic in TEFL to become a discovery-oriented scholar.

Why can't our practitioners base their experimentations on SLA theories generated in our own ELT/EFL context? Why shouldn't we educate theoreticians whose theories and theoretical innovations would generate a large body of research, as is the case with many western scholars? Why is it that our share of ELT methodology is only review of, and doing research based on, the literature provided by others? To what extent, if at all, have our own scholars been able to propose original theories of first and/or second language acquisition, models of curriculum design, and language teaching methods? How many new scientific terminologies and ideas have we been able to coin with reference to methodology in ELT and other applied linguistics areas? Almost all method-related concepts and distinctions have been experimentally researched by

English-major students in our own context. But the question that arises is what percent of these research-generating ideas and concepts, e.g. focus-on-form versus focus-on-forms (Long, 1991), comprehensible input (Krashen, 1981) versus comprehensible output (Swain, 1985), different negotiation strategies (Ellis, 2008), etc. belongs to our professional TEFL community? How much theory have we contributed to the repertoire of ELT literature? In other words, how much our strict adherence to experimental studies has contributed to theory construction, novelty of ideas, and originality of thoughts away from attempts to verify other scholars' thoughts and theories?

Even a well-conducted experimental study which is supposed to provide the researcher with useful findings about the effectiveness of particular methods must be preceded by deep conceptual reflection and reasoning. Otherwise, it would not be well-grounded. It is through analyzing and critically reflecting on other people's theories, rather than doing laboratory-based experimentation, that one can gain a deeper understanding not only of those arguments and theories but also of how much one had realized such theories before and how deeply s/he understands them now. This is because in laboratory-based research we are led by the limits of the design and variables of the study to ignore so many potentially insight-providing nuances that emerge only through reflection and critical analysis. For example, suppose that the counterarguments by which the theoretical underpinnings of audio-lingual approach were called into question were replaced with counterarguments derived from a methods-comparison study following an experimental design. Would the latter counterarguments be as appealing and convincing as the former?

TWO APPROACHES TO THEORY-BUILDING

Two broad approaches to theory-building have been identified (Long, 1985, cited in R. Ellis, 2008, p. 926): the " 'research-then-theory' approach and the 'theory-then-research'" approach. According to Ellis, "This corresponds to the difference between an inductive (empiricist) approach to theory-building and a deductive (rationalist) approach." (ibid) There is considerable debate over which approach to theory-building is more defendable. For example, Ellis (2008) referring to Beretta's criticism of the research-then-theory approach maintains:

> Beretta (1991:505) referred to this approach [the research-then-theory approach] as a 'bottom-up strategy' and argued that researchers should seek plentiful data before proceeding to formulate a theory. He [Beretta] argued that the tendency of researchers to formulate theoretical statements prematurely constitutes a weakness of this approach (p.927)

Another weakness of this approach, according to Ellis (ibid), is that "it leads to theories that are particularistic rather than general (i.e. theories that seek to explain only a limited set of data)". Gregg (1993, cited in Ellis, ibid) also argues that this approach to theory-building results in "shallow theories (i.e. theories that stick as closely as possible to what is observable and, therefore, do not address phenomena)". Ellis (2008) also quotes Long's (1985) evaluation of this approach observing that:

> researchers in the research-then-theory approach are less likely to be 'wrong' because their theoretical claims are based firmly on empirical evidence – always providing, of course, that their observations are valid and reliable – but the end result of their efforts may be 'limited' and perhaps ultimately 'irrelevant'(p. 927).

The second approach to theory-building, i.e. the theory-then-research approach, has been positively evaluated for 'lending itself to the construction of deep theories (i.e. theories that go beyond what has been observed by acknowledging the importance of those aspects of nature that cannot be observed (Gregg, 1993); for allowing for predictions to be formulated, tested, and modified (Ellis, 2008); for the adoption of a theory from outside the realm of SLA research such, e.g. the emergentist and skill-building models adopted from cognitive psychology and the constructionist models derived from socio-cultural theory (ibid); and for being more likely to bring about a paradigm shift and being associated with scientific revolutions (ibid).

However, we are not intending to argue in favor of either one approach to theory-construction as being superior to the other one because maybe it is safer to think that both approaches are needed and each has its own 'strengths and weaknesses' (Long, ibid). Such strengths and weaknesses have already been referred to above. Therefore, as Jordan (2003, cited in Ellis, 2008, p. 928) has argued, maybe a pluralist approach to theory development is more advantageous.

The points that I would like to emphasize are twofold. The first point is that engaging in such theoretical mind-exercising activities, i.e. theory-then-research approach, better directs our TEFL students towards becoming authorities in the field in several ways. First, they deeply understand other scholars' theories. Second, they have to read a lot. Third, they have to be analytic and evaluative. Fourth, they practice formulating ideas of their own. Fifth, they can overcome their fear of proposing wrong ideas. Sixth, they can purify and expand their understanding of mainstream ideas and concepts in the field. Seventh, they develop self-confidence in their ability to become thought-generating scholars. Many other advantages can be added to these, of course.
The second point that I am trying to emphasize is that in both approaches to theory-construction research alone does not have anything to offer unless it leads to the formulation of some testable and falsifiable statements in the form of a *theory*. Therefore, the question of '*To what extent does strict adherence to the research-then-theory approach as the only adopted approach lead to the development of ELT theories and the enlightenment of our researchers' minds?*' seems pertinent! That is, the dominance of the research-then-theory approach in contexts such as ours in Iran, contrary to its real purpose in other contexts, is not looked upon as a means of helping students become *thinkers and theorists*. Rather, it is considered a *research-for-research* approach. Why is it the case that we are not used to assuming agency and having a voice in the world of theory-construction and novelty-creation in ELT methodology and L1 and L2 acquisition?

CONCLUSION
University students of TEFL and English teachers in our country receive a lot of training on different theories and methods concerning ELT. But there are very rare, if any, cases of students or teachers who have the ability and courage to transcend the boundaries of *receiving and unquestionably believing* what they encounter in the literature and make novel contributions of their own to the field of language learning or teaching. Very rarely do we have specialists who propose new ideas in the field. We are most often fully aware of other people's theories, even more than those theorists themselves. But we are often unable to analyze, synthesize and evaluate those theories and/or methods and come up with novel ones of our own. Sometimes popular

IJLLALW

authorities in the field of language teaching methodology are not even aware of the contents of their own books, even though they have authored those books. This means that they do not emphasize memorizing or even knowing much information. Rather they have developed the habits and skills of discovery-learning and making novel contributions of their own. In other words, one does not have to keep so much information in his mind, something a machine can do much more efficiently, but he does have to learn how to think critically and synthesize all that he has studied into new ideas of his own. But we know much more information about ELT methods than there exists in a library without being able to reach a point of theorizing and methods-inventing of our own. Why is such the case? Maybe it is because we are accustomed to working within the limits of experimental studies, in a direction pre-specified by others, looking for hard evidence based on narrow-ranging classroom research away from speculative work and discovery-learning in creative ways.

REFERENCES

Beretta, A. (1991). Theory construction in SLA: Complementarity and opposition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 13*, 493-511. In Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bloom, B.S. (Ed.). (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives*, *Book 1: cognitive domain.* London: Longman.

Breen, M. (2001).The social context for language learning: A neglected situation?'In C. *Candlin* and N. Mercer (eds.) *English Language Teaching in its Social Context*. *London*: Routledge, pp. 122–44.

Clark, J.L. (1987). *Curriculum renewal in school foreign language learning.* Oxford University Press.

De Graaff, R. (1997). The Esperanto experiment: effects of explicit instruction on second *language* acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *19*, 249-76. In Mitchell, R. and Myles, F. (2004). *Second language learning theories*. Hodder Arnold.

Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gregg, K. (1993). Taking explanation seriously: or, let a couple of flowers bloom. *Applied Linguistics, 14*, 276-294. In Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hulstijn, J. (1997). Second language acquisition research in the laboratory: *possibilities* and limitations. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *19*, 131-43, in Mitchell, R. and Myles, F. (2004). *Second language learning theories*. Hodder *Arnold*.

Jordan, G. (2003). *Theory construction in second language acquisition*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. In Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition. Oxford*: Oxford University Press.

Kachru, B. (1985). Standards, Codification and Sociolinguistic Realism: The English Language in the Outer Circle, in R. Quirk and H. Widdowson (eds) *English in the World: Teaching and Learning the Language and Literatures*. Cambridge: CUP, pp. 11–36.

Krashen, S. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning.* Oxford: Pergamon.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (1997). Chaos/complexity science and second language acquisition. *Applied Linguistics, 18* (2), Oxford University Press.

Long, M. (1985). Input and second language acquisition theory. In Gass, S., & Madden. C. (eds.): *Input in second language acquisition.* Rowley, Mass: Newbury House. In Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Long, M. (1991). Focus on form: a design feature in language teaching methodology. In Candlin, C. N., & Mercer, N. (2001). *English language teaching in its social context*. London: Routledge.

Mitchell, R. & Myles, F. (2004). *Second language learning theories*. Hodder Arnold.

Richards, J.C. (1995). *The language teaching matrix*. Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J.C. (2001). *Curriculum development in language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J.C., & Schmidt, R. (2002). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics*. Longman.

Rogers, C.R. (1969). *Freedom to learn*. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill. in Clark, J.L. (1987). *Curriculum renewal in school foreign language learning*. Oxford University Press.

Skilbeck, M. (1982). Three educational ideologies. in T. Horton and P. Raggat (eds.) *Challenge and change in the curriculum*. Sevenoaks: Hodder and Stoughton. in Clark, J.L. (1987). *Curriculum renewal in school foreign language learning*. Oxford University Press.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In Gass, S., & Madden, C. (eds.): *Input in second language acquisition*. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House. In Ellis, R. (2008): *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

IJLLALW

THE IMPACT OF CULTURAL SCHEMATA AND PROFICIENCY LEVEL ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' CLOZE TEST PERFORMANCE AND RECALL OF PASSAGE

Arezou Arghamiri

Ph.D. candidate, Department of Foreign Languages, Shiraz Branch, Islamic Azad University, Shiraz, Iran
Email: a.arghamiri@gmail.com

Mostafa Zamanian

Ph.D. Department of Foreign Languages, Shiraz Branch, Islamic Azad University, Shiraz, Iran
Email: mostafazamanian@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT
The emergence of socio-cultural perspectives in language education on the one hand and the recent trends towards more contextualized and authentic forms of language tests on the other hand have led practitioners to take more into account issues of culture in language teaching practices and of course in designing appropriate tests; tests which are namely fair and not biased toward individual test takers' cultural values. This study is therefore an attempt to find out if cultural schemata and proficiency level affect Iranian EFL learners' cloze test performance and recall of the passage. Participants included 144 freshman students at Islamic Azad University of Shiraz. They took a 50-item placement test (Oxford Placement Test) measuring their proficiency level, and two cloze tests (one culturally familiar and the other culturally unfamiliar). They were also asked to write whatever they recalled from the text after they finished the cloze test. The results revealed that both cultural schemata and proficiency level significantly affected cloze test performance and recall of the passage. It was also observed that more proficient students were less affected by cultural familiarity of the passage, and the cloze test scores correlated very highly with recall scores. Based on the findings of the study, test developers should be more sensitive to individuals' cultural differences and proficiency level when designing cloze tests as integrative measures of reading ability.

KEY WORDS: cultural achemata, proficiency level, cloze test performance, recall of passage

INTRODUCTION
Language testing has generally followed the trends in language teaching methodology, while language teaching is affected by advances in linguistics and psychology. As a result, language testing has to a great extent been directly and indirectly influenced by epistemology in general psychology and related fields, such as educational measurement, innovations in psychology and education. This trend has caused test-makers to change their methods, from discrete point tests, which are still in use in many areas, to integrative testing (Farhady, Jafarpur, & Birjandi, 1994). Among the types of integrative tests, the cloze test is perhaps the most representative (TalebiNezhad & Dastjerdi, 2006).

As Nielsen (2011) asserts, cloze tests measure reading comprehension, and not just a readability level of the text because they provide empirical evidence of how easy a text is to read and

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

understand for a specified target audience. However, the cloze procedure has several advantages over other types of reading assessment. For example, cloze tests are very easily created and administered. They are also based on silent reading, which is the predominant and most natural form of reading. Moreover, they can be constructed from materials that teachers use for instructional purposes or from authentic texts and they do not require the writing of specific comprehension questions. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, cloze tests often exhibit a high degree of consistency; though this consistency may vary considerably depending on the text selected, the deletion starting point and gap rates that are employed (Alderson, 1979; Sciarone & Schoorl, 1989).

Researchers have not yet had an agreement on what cloze tests really measure. As asserted in Tremblay (2011), some researchers have proposed that cloze tests tap low-level lexical and grammatical competence (e.g., Alderson, 1979; Markham, 1985), whereas others have argued that cloze tests can also measure higher level discourse competence (e.g., Bachman,1982; Fotos, 1991; Jonz,1990). Although no firm consensus has been reached as to what aspects of linguistic competence cloze tests measure, their scores have been found to correlate highly with standardized proficiency scores and therefore are claimed to provide an excellent overall picture of proficiency since they reflect the degree to which language skills are used in a meaningful context. In the same vein, a number of researchers have also found them to be particularly useful tools for measuring reading comprehension (Cecilia, 2003). In general,"Today, cloze tests are widely used in some places such as Iran & China as part of some large-scale language tests such as TOEFL and IELTS", (Ajideh & Mozaffarzadeh, 2012, p.143).

Written recall task has also been recommended as a measure of reading comprehension and is generally considered as an integrative test in that several features combine to convey the meaning upon which a response is then based. It requires readers to read a passage silently and then to write down everything they can remember from the text. There is evidence that a recall protocol provides data that reflect the nature of the reading process in terms of encoding, restructuring and analyzing information.

Although the written recall task and cloze test are both integrative tests, they differ in the nature of their response modes. According to Savignon (1983) cloze tests entail a discrete-point response mode whereas recalls have a global response mode. Both have proved to be affected by different factors which need to be controlled if we want to construct valid and reliable tests. Cloze may be influenced by the level of the difficulty of the text, the amount of the text on either side of the blank, text redundancy, personal characteristics, cultural schemata, and many others. Research also reveals that recall of the text is affected by factors such as the text structure, memory, the topic of the passage, the conditions under which the test is administered, scoring procedures, and so on. For example, Yuh-Fang Chang (2006) compared readers' performance on the immediate recall task and a translation task in order to explore the effect of memory on readers recall. The results showed that the requirement of memory in the recall task hinders the test takers' ability to demonstrate fully their comprehension of the reading passage.

Among the factors mentioned above, cultural familiarity of the passage and proficiency level, are claimed to cause variations in test takers' performance on cloze tests and written recall tasks.

IJLLALW

Therefore, the present study intends to investigate these two factors and see to what extent they may affect students' performance on a cloze test and the recall of the passage once the cloze test is taken.

CULTURAL SCHEMATA
Schema is generally defined as the background knowledge one has about the topic one is reading and may have an effect on the interpretation of the passage being read. The background knowledge may consist of personal history, cultural beliefs, attitudes, interests, so on and so forth. Cook (2001) states "for a reader to make sense of a text a particular piece of background information is required and a person who does not posses the information does not get much out of the text" (p.12).

Schemata can be of two types; formal and content schemata. The former is the knowledge of language and linguistic conventions, including knowledge of how texts are organized, and what main features of particular genres are. The latter, however, is the knowledge about the content of the passage readers need to have in order to be able to understand it. Such knowledge does not simply need to be available- it needs to be activated by the reader, or the text, if it is to be used in accurate understanding.

Some studies report that a match between background knowledge presupposed by the text and that possessed by readers leads to a better comprehension than a mismatch (Johnson 1981; Steffensen, Joag-Dev, & Anderson, 1979). Other studies show that providing students with background knowledge facilitates understanding of unfamiliar texts (Gatbonton & Tucker, 1971; Johnson, 1982). The combined provision of background knowledge and previews for students particularly enhances L2 reading comprehension (Chen & Graves, 1995).

Rezaei, Barati, and Youhanaee (2012) in a study investigated the effect of content familiarity and test format on Iranian English learners. The subjects of this study were sampled from advanced students studying at different language institutes in Isfahan, Iran and based on an OPT test 70 students were considered as the target participants. Each participant was given a test of reading comprehension with familiar content and unfamiliar content. It became clear that content familiarity facilitates comprehension. In the same vein, Keshavarz, Atai, and Ahmadi (2007) investigated the contribution of content and background knowledge, vocabulary and syntactic knowledge, and L2 proficiency to reading comprehension and recall. 240 male Iranian EFL learners participated in the study. Each participant was tested with a familiar, and an unfamiliar text. The authors found that familiarity with content was significantly correlated with reading comprehension test scores and recall scores. Chihara, Sakurai, and Oller (1989) changed several culturally unfamiliar words (e.g. Nicholas, Athen, Klein) from two English texts into more familiar words (Ben, Osaka, Daiei) for the Japanese participants. Leaving all other words intact.They controlled other possible intervening variables such as the content and syntactic complexity of the two texts. The results of the cloze test showed that the participants performed significantly better on the modified, that is culturally familiar, cloze texts than on the original texts.

Partially replicating Chihara et al.'s (1989) experiment, Sasaki (2000) investigated how schemata activated by culturally familiar words might have influenced students' cloze test-taking processes. She changed several unfamiliar words in the original cloze test passage to more familiar ones in the modified version. Unlike Chihara et al., however, students were asked to give

verbal reports of their test-taking processes, and to recall the passage after they had completed the test. Results demonstrated that those who read the culturally familiar cloze text tried to solve more items and generally understood the text better, which resulted in better performance, than those students who read the original text. When students read content familiar text, they might have enjoyed the situational interest aroused by the text. Tomlinson (1998), for example, maintained that when students see elements of their local culture in classroom materials, they feel much more engaged and identify themselves with the context of the text. As the last example we can mention Carrell (1981), who examined the comprehension of advanced ESL Japanese and Chinese subjects using folktales from different cultural orientations. Her findings showed that the cultural origin of the text affected the subject's recall of information from the texts, as well as the subjects' judgments of the level of difficulty of the texts.

PROFICIENCY LEVEL

L2 proficiency has been conceptualized in different ways, none of which, according to Stern (1983), provides a completely satisfactory expression. Stern (1983) states that "until 1970 or so, proficiency was defined as the knowledge of phonology, vocabulary, and grammar; however, more recent definitions of proficiency include semantic, discourse, and sociolinguistic features". The description of proficiency is therefore an important step in the studies of second / foreign language testing since the proficiency level of testees has been manipulated as a variable in most language testing research. In addition to the role of content (cultural) schemata in EFL reading comprehension, the potential interaction between content and learners' proficiency also concerns researchers in EFL reading. Carrel (1984) suggested that the nonnative readers in her study failed to use background information because they were linguistically bound.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study tends to investigate the impact of cultural schemata and the proficiency level on cloze test performance, and recall of the passage. The main purpose we are after is to indicate the effect of cultural familiarity of the passage on cloze test performance. In fact written recall task is added to double-check the same effect as another test of reading comprehension. In this vein, the present study seeks to answer the following research questions:

R.Q.1. Do participants perform better on a cloze test when the passage is culturally familiar or when it is unfamiliar?
R.Q.2. Do participants perform better on a recall task when the passage is culturally familiar or when it is unfamiliar?
R.Q.3. Are there any relationships between the students' proficiency level and cultural familiarity of the passage in their performance on cloze tests?
R.Q.4. Are there any relationships between the students' proficiency level and cultural familiarity of the passage in their performance on a written recall task?
R.Q.5. Is there a relationship between students' performance on a cloze test and written recall?
R.Q.6. Is there an interaction between cultural familiarity and proficiency level in cloze tests and written recall tasks?

IJLLALW

METHODOLOGY
Participants
One hundred and forty four freshman students at Shiraz Islamic Azad University participated in this study. The participants were divided into three groups of high, intermediate, and low proficiency based on their scores on Oxford Placement Test (OPT) (Allan, 2004). The mean of scores was calculated and one half of standard deviation was added to and subtracted from it in order to have three homogeneous groups. So the participants who scored 30 and above were included in the proficient group (group 1), those who scored between 25 and 29 (inclusive) were considered as belonging to the intermediate group (group 2), and those who scored 24 and below were considered as low students (group 3). In this way, there were 54 participants in group 1, 46 in group 2, and 44 in group 3.

Instruments
To indicate the participants' proficiency level, the standardized Oxford Placement Test (Allan, 2004) was administered to all participants. The original test includes 200 tests items from which we chose the second part including 50 items for two main reasons: 1. The second part looks more like a cloze test. 2. With only 50 items we would not have problems of time and the participants would not get bored and tired. For cloze test administration, we needed to construct two kinds of cloze tests, one, culturally familiar, and the other, culturally unfamiliar. For this purpose, we made use of a cloze test taken from Sasaki (2000) as the unfamiliar cloze for our participants. In his study, he administered it as the familiar cloze to Japanese students. The cloze test was constructed based on fixed-ratio method (every 5th word was deleted). Then some modifications were made in terms of wordings of the passage in order to make it culturally familiar for Iranian participants. Care was taken to ensure that there would be similar passages in all other aspects such as, difficulty level, number of words, and the places of all the blanks. Both cloze tests consisted of 50 blanks.

Administration procedure
First the Oxford Placement Test was administered to all the participants to determine their proficiency level. The participants were given about 25 minutes to answer the questions in the OPT.

It was not possible for the researcher to administer both cloze tests (culturally familiar and culturally unfamiliar) to the same participants because there was the possibility of practice effect. So each group of proficiency level was further divided into two groups in order to give one, culturally familiar cloze test, and the other, culturally unfamiliar cloze test. It should be noted that the two groups of each proficiency level were selected in such a way that they would have equal means. The cloze tests were administered after an interval of two weeks from the proficiency test. Based on the pilot study done before, participants were given 35 minutes to perform on the cloze tests.

All participants were also asked to write down whatever they remembered from the passage either in their mother tongue or the target language. This way, it was intended to eliminate the possible effect of L1 or L2 on the participants' quality and quantity of recall. This procedure was done after all cloze tests were collected from the participants. They were instructed to write the recall on a separate piece of paper.

Scoring procedure
To score the cloze test the exact word method was used. The participants were expected to guess the exact word used in the original passage. This type of scoring method was used because it is

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

easier than the other methods. For written recall task first the idea units of the passage were all identified. As a whole there were 66 idea units. Then the recall papers were studied, and then one point was given to each idea unit if it was recalled verbatim or in a close paraphrase or correct translation.

Data analysis

In order to make sure that the two groups of proficiency were homogeneous and there was no difference between their performances on the proficiency test, an independent t-test was run. The results showed that there was no statisticaly significant difference between them. In order to indicate the relative effect of participants' level and cultural familiarity of the passage on the cloze test performance, a two-way ANOVA was run. The same procedure was also followed for participants` performances on recall task in order to measure the same thing. Finally a correlation between the scores of recall task and cloze test was taken.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The first research question in this study examined whether cultural familiarity of passage affects students' cloze test performance or not. Table 1 displays the result of the two-way ANOVA run in order to answer this question. Based on the table it can be concluded that cultural familiarity of the passage significantly affects students' cloze test performance. The findings are in line with what Carrell and Eisterhold (1983), Chihara et al. (1989), Chen & Graves, (1995), Anderson (1999), and Sasaki (2000) noted in their studies. They mentioned background knowledge and familiarity with the passage as the very important factor on the reader's reading comprehension ability.

Table 1:Two-way ANOVA   Dependent variable: cloze

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	3529.895	5	705.979	26.036	.000
Intercept	46690.218	1	46690.218	1271.905	.000
Culture	663.293	1	663.293	24.462	.000
Level	2740.108	2	1370.054	50.527	.000

The second research question in this study examined whether cultural familiarity of passage affects studentds' recall task or not. Statistical statistics two-way ANOVA was run in order to answer this question. As it is shown in Table 2, the result was (.000) and significant at (p < .5). So, like what Carrell (1981) and Yuh-Fang Chang (2006) found, the cultural familiarity of the text significantly affected the subject's recall of information from the texts.

Table 2: Two-way ANOVA   Dependant variable: recall

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	2085.892	5	417.178	22.002	.000
	14789.334	1	14789.34	779.992	.000
Intercept	549.840	1	549.840	28.999	.000
Culture	1528.752	2	764.376	40.313	.000

215

Table 3 displays the results of an independent t-test run to answer the third research question which was if the effect of cultural schemata on cloze test performance varies among different proficiency levels. Results reveal that the lower two groups (intermediate and low) are significantly affected by cultural schemata but not the high group. As Carrel (1984) suggested, the nonnative readers in her study failed to use background information because they were linguistically bound. According to this table, participants with higher proficiency level in this study are also less affected by cultural schemata. This may be due to the students' using their higher proficiency level to compensate for the unfamiliarity of the passage.

Table 3: Independent t-test

level	culture	mean	Mean dif.	Sig. (2-tailed)
High	1	24.91	1.826	.290
	2	23.9		
Inter.	1	19.37	4.556	.002
	2	14.81		
Low	1	16.41	6.545	.000
	2	9.86		

The fourth research question asked if the effect of cultural schemata on recall task performance varies among different proficiency levels. Table 4 displays the results of an independent t-test run to answer the question. The results reveal that all groups of proficiency level are more or less affected by cultural schemata. The relationship which was observed was the same as that of the cloze test. As students' proficiency level decreases, culture affects more significantly their performance on recall task.

Table 4: Independent t-test

level	culture	mean	Mean dif.	Sig. (2-tailed)
High	1	16.04	3.696	.015
	2	12.35		
Inter.	1	12.41	4.074	.003
	2	8.33		
Low	1	7.95	4.000	.000
	2	3.95		

The fifth research question asked if there is any interaction between the two variables of the study. As results in Table 5 show, there is no interaction between these two variables at all.

Table 5: The interaction between culture and level

Test	Source	Sig.
Recall	Culture*level	.975
cloze	Culture*level	.100

The correlation which is reported in Table 6 is .67 and it shows that scores of cloze test on recall task both as tests of reading comprehension are highly correlated. The scores of cloze test and recall task was also correlated separately for each proficiency level. According to Table 7 the correlation is only significant for the two lower groups but not for the higher ones, and scores of lower proficiency groups were more highly correlated. The former case may be interpreted as a

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

result of memory, and the latter shows that students who received low grades on cloze test have also received low on recall task.

Table 6: Correlation

Correlations	Recall
cloze Pearson correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.670** .000 144

Table 7: Correlation between groups

level	Recall
1 cloze Pearson correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.246 .099 46
2 cloze Pearson correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.563** .000 54
3 cloze Pearson correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.848** .000 44

CONCLUSION
So, as far as the results of the study implicated, different levels of English proficiency had a determining effect on the success in performing integrative measurements. In better words, it was observed that cultural schemata as well as proficiency level have a direct effect on the testers' cloze test performance and recall of the passage therefore it can be argued that the findings of this study clearly depicts that, contrary to the stereotype, the design and construction of appropriate integrative tests can be quite a demanding task and requires much expertise at least for beginner and intermediate test takers. Part of the challenge is due to the fact that attempts to contextualize language tests may lead to bias toward particular proficiency groups and cultural backgrounds. For advanced test takers; however, this is not a major threat. Proficient test takers in this study were less affected by cultural familiarity of the test.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH
The interested researcher(s) can investigate the effect of cultural schemata on other versions of cloze test such as: C-test, and can compare the effect of cultural schemata on participants' cloze test performance and traditional reading comprehension test. The participants of the present study were university students. The interested researcher can do the same research using different participants such as high school students, or investigate whether the effect of cultural schemata on cloze test performance and recall task varies among different age groups.

REFERENCES
Ajideh, P., & Mozaffarzadeh, S. (2012). A Comparative Study on C-test vs. Cloze Test as Tests

217

IJLLALW

of Reading Comprehension. *English Language Teaching, 5 (11)*,143-168.

Alderson, J. C. (1979). The cloze procedure and proficiency in English as a foreign language. *TESOL Quarterly*, 13(2), 219-28.

Allan, D. (2004). *Oxford Placement Test*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bachman , L. F . (1982). The trait structure of cloze test scores . *TESOL Quarterly, 16,* 61 – 70.

Carrel, P. L. (1984). The effects of rhetorical organization on ESL readers. *TESOL Quarterly, 19,* 441-69.

Carrell, P. L. (1987). Content and formal schemata in ESL reading. *TESOL Quarterly*, *21,* 461-481.

Cecilia, Y. H. C. (2003). Cultural content and reading proficiency: a comparison of Mainland Chinese and Hong Kong learners of English. *Language , Culture and Curriculum*, *16 (1),* 60-9.

Chen H.C., & Graves, M.F. (1995). Effects of previewing and providing background knowledge on Taiwanese college students' comprehension of American short stories. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29, 663–686.

Chihara, T., Sakurai, T., & Oller, J.W. (1989). Background and Culture as Factors in EFL Reading Comprehension. *Language Testing, 6 (3),* 172-189.

Cook, V. (2001). *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*. London: Arnold.

Farhady, H., Jafarpur, A. J., & Birjandi, P. (1994). *Testing language skills*: *From theory to practice*. Tehran: SAMT.

Fotos , S. (1991). The cloze test as an integrative measure of EFL proficiency: A substitute for essays on college entrance examinations? *Language Learning*, *41*, 313 – 336 .

Gatbonton, E. C., and Tucker, G. R. (1971). Cultural orientation and the study of foreign literature. *TESOL Quarterly*, 5, 137–143.

Johnson, P. (1981). Effects on reading comprehension of language complexity and cultural background of a text. *TESOL Quarterly*, *15 (2),* 169-181.

Johnson, P. (1982). Effects on reading comprehension of building background. *TESOL Quarterly 16,* 503–516.

Jonz , J. (1990). Another turn in the conversation: What does cloze measure? *TESOL Quarterly*, *24*, 61 – 83 .

Keshavarz, M. H., Atai, M. R., & Ahmadi, H. (2007). Content schemata, linguistic simplification, and EFL readers' comprehension and recall. Reading in a Foreign Language, *19,* 19-33.

Markham , P. L . (1985). The rational deletion cloze and global comprehension in German . *Language Learning* , *35*, 423 – 430

Nielsen, J. (2011). Cloze Test for Reading Comprehension. http//:www.nngroup.com/articles/cloze-test-reading-comprehension.

Rezaei**,** O., Barati, H., and Youhanaee, M. (2012). The Effect of Content Familiarity & Test Format on Iranian EFL Test Takers' Performance on Test of Reading Comprehension. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature, 1 (4),* 86-120.

Sasaki, M. (2000). Effects of cultural schemata on student's test-taking processes for cloze tests: a multiple data source approach. *Language Testing*, *17,* 85-114.

Savignon, S. (1983). *Communicative competence: theory and classroom practice*. Reading, MA: Adison- Wesley.

Sciarone, A. G., & Schoorl, J. J. (1989). The cloze test: or why small isn't always beautiful. *Language Learning, 39 (3),* 415-38.

Steffensen, M.S., Joag-Dev, C., & Anderson, R. C. (1979). A cross-cultural perspective on reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly, 15,* 10–29.

Stern, H. H. (1983). *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*. Oxford University Press.

TalebiNezhad, R., & Dastjerdi, V. (2006). Chain-preserving deletion procedure in cloze: A discoursal perspective. *Journal of Language Testing*, *23*, 58-69.

Tomlinson, B. (1998). Introduction. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Materials development in language teaching* (pp.1–24). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Tremblay, A. (2011). Proficiency assessment standards in second language acquisition research. *"Clozing" the Gap. Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *33*, 339– 372 .

Yuh, F. C. (2006). On the use of immediate recall task as a measure of second language reading comprehension. *Language Testing, 23 (4),* 520-543.

SPEECH ACTS IN AMERICAN ENGLISH AND PALESTINIAN ARABIC

Ibrahim M. R. Al-Shaer
Al-Quds Open University
P.O. Box 988, Bethlehem, West Bank, Palestine
E-mail: ishaer@qou.edu

ABSTRACT
This study attempted to examine how both English and Arabic realize certain speech acts, mainly authoritative speech acts, promising and thanking. For this purpose, an analysis of spontaneous naturally-occurring utterances comprised of declaratory speech acts, commissives, and thanking in both English and Arabic was conducted. In the light of this analysis, the study highlighted interesting differences displayed by the two languages as to how they realize the given speech acts at the level of structures and lexical items used. The study also showed that cross-cultural and pragmalinguistic characteristics of Arabic speech acts as compared with their counterparts in English are of paramount importance for sociolinguistic, contrastive, semantic and translation studies.

KEY TERMS: Speech act, commissives, locutionary act, illocutionary act, perlocutionary act, performative utterances, naturally-occurring utterances.

INTRODUCTION
Our daily talk includes speech acts or utterances that serve certain functions. We perform speech acts when we promise, thank, apologize, or introduce someone, for example.

In inter-cultural interactions, speech acts are tricky to execute because people are not always aware of the cultural norms that regulate the conventions of the other language; they may simply resort to their native language conventions and convey them to others. Therefore, it is crucial that people become aware of not only knowledge of the language but also of the culturally appropriate ways to perform the speech acts in that language. Sometimes what conveys a message in one language might not produce the same one when presented in another. An example of potential misunderstanding between an English and an Arab interlocutors would be when the former invites the latter saying *Would you like to have a cup of tea?* and the Arab person declines the invitation saying just *Thank you*. The English person would probably not understand it as a refusal and would say *thank you, yes or thank you, no.* This is because the utterance used in polite English as a response to an invitation always includes *thank you* regardless of whether one accepts or turns down the invitation.

Clearly, speech acts are very culture specific and differences in this field would produce potential misunderstanding among people. As Gass and Neu (2006) put it, "Speech acts are realized from culture to culture in different ways, and these differences may result in communication difficulties that range from the humorous to the serious". Similarly, Gass and Selinker (2008: 288) claim that all "languages have a means of performing speech acts and

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

presumably speech acts themselves are universals, yet the form used in specific speech acts varies from culture to culture". This goes in line with Wolfson's (1986: 119) notion that "speech acts differ cross culturally not only in the way they are realized but also in their distribution, their frequency of occurrence, and in the function they serve".

Accordingly, the present study attempts to investigate performative utterances in both English and Arabic. The focus will be on three functions of performative utterances: declaratory or highly authoritative speech acts, promising and thanking. The assumption here is that each of the two languages has more than one way of expressing each of the three functions or speech acts under investigation, in terms of their structure, inclusion or exclusion of performative verbs. Differences are anticipated at the structural and lexical level, particularly in colloquial Arabic, mainly because speech acts are culture-specific expressions. In this connection, Hudson (1980: 111) says, " if speech act categories are cultural concepts, we might find them to vary from one society to another."

LITERATURE REVIEW
General Background
Utterances are formed of words or lexical items in any given language. Utterances have functions to express depending on the situation and occasion which trigger these utterances. These functions are put in what Austin (as cited in Searle, 1969: 23) calls " illocutionary acts". When utterances have certain verbs, they are described as ' speech acts ', i.e. they perform acts on the given occasion. In English, Searle (1969: 28) mentions a list of such performative verbs which illocutionary acts contain (e.g. " state ", " describe ", … etc.).

A speech act as an utterance has been described by semanticists (of course for the first time by Austin 1962) as having three acts: the locutionary act, in which the utterance as a linguistic construction of words has sense and is not ambiguous; the illocutionary act which refers to the utterance used to perform a certain act such as " a greeting, a statement, a prediction, a promise, a prohibition, or whatever " (Allan, 1986: 104); the perlocutionary act, which is the effect that the utterance can bring about in the addressee's or hearer's state of feeling or reaction. " The perlocution of an utterance is the causing of a change to be brought about, perhaps unintentionally, through, or by means of, the utterance " (Hurford et al, 1983: 243).

Sperber and Wilson (1986: 243) go even further saying that "language can be influential in performing actions (i.e. speech acts), such as bringing about and executing obligations, or affecting others' thoughts and actions, or even generating fresh affairs and further social interactions."

Utterances that function as speech acts cannot be described as true or false, though they may take the form of statements. Rather, " the uttering of the sentence is, or is part of, an action " (Austin, 1962, as cited in Palmer, 1981: 161). So statements or utterances can perform lots of functions such as promising, warning, christening, apologizing, thanking … etc. Utterances performing such functions are described as performatives. In this regard, and in order for speech acts to be successful as communicative acts, Cohen (1994) as cited by Morsi, 2010, P.6) points out that the

successful planning and production of speech act utterances depend on the sociocultural and the sociolinguistic ability of the speaker. Cohen (1994) defines the Sociocultural ability as the respondents' skill at selecting speech act strategies appropriately with the given culture involved, "the age and sex of the speakers, their social class and occupations, and their roles and status in the interaction" (22). By Sociolinguistic ability, Cohen (1994) refers to appropriately selecting the linguistic forms or expressions that are used to realize the speech act.

Performative utterances, or perfromatives, can be classified as direct or indirect speech acts. A direct speech act has illocutionary force made explicit by means of a verb, such as promise, warn, apologize, congratulate, among others, whereas the illocutionary force of an indirect perforamtive utterance is made implicitly, i.e. without a performative verb. Yet, the two types " have the same illocutionary point " (Allan, 1986: 165).

Speech acts may be explicitly or implicitly performative. This means that we can use a verb which denotes, for example promising, when we utter ' I promise to visit you '; or we can just say ' I will visit you "; in which case no explicit verb of promising is mentioned. According to Grundy (2000: 53) " …. Non-explicit, even very implicit, ways of using language performatively are the norm. "

To illustrate how utterances function as such, i.e. as direct or indirect speech acts, we cite here the utterances given by Allan (ibid, 165-6) in which she shows how the same command can be issued or effected in three ways which depict three illocutionary forces, but all have the same illocutionary point:

" I order you to leave immediately. "
" Go out ! "
" Out ! "

provided they are uttered with proper prosody and in the right context. She also gives a good list of explicit performative verbs:

> *" abjure, abolish, accept, acknowledge, … , withdraw ".*   (pp. 167-8)

A good test for a perfomative utterance is the insertion of the adverb ' hereby ' between the subject and the performative verb, e.g. I hereby submit my resignation.

Performatives can be negative in meaning and in structure as follows:

- I hereby refuse your resignation.
- I hereby don't agree to your resignation.

English direct performative utterances must have the performative verbs in the present tense in the case of explicit speech acts, but this is not necessarily the case in implicit speech acts. The examples above illustrate the case of explicit speech acts.

The following utterance exemplifies an indirect speech act with no explicit performative verb:
- I'll lend you some money when I cash my salary.

In this example (will + v) express a promise, though a conditional one.

- The following statement can also exemplify an indirect speech act.
- This watch is yours.

Here we can imagine a situation in which someone, for example, gives a watch as a present to his wife, sister or friend. So the speech act of giving a present has been performed by means of a statement. Speech acts might have the form of a question, but the intention of the speaker who utters the question is to perform something else, for example, a request. Thus,

- Can you pass the salt? does not question the ability of the addressee to pass the salt. Rather, the speaker in uttering this question wants the hearer to realize and recognize that this is a request to pass the salt. In natural language we can get things done by people through different ways. For example, directives (directing people to do something) can take a number of forms. Holmes (1992: 289 – 90) speaks of an indefinite number of possible utterances which could express a directive. She cites some examples of how to get people to sit down which range from orders and commands to declaratives as follows:

- Sit down   imperative
- You sit down   you imperative
- Could you sit down?   Interrogative with modal verb
- Sit down, will you?   Imperative + interrogative
- Won't you sit down?   Interrogative with negative
- I want you to sit down.   Declarative
- I'd like you to sit down.   Declarative
- You'd be more comfortable sitting down.   Declarative

In this context language can be seen as defined by Halliday (1973: 7) as " meaning potential ": " that is as sets of options ". But people take into consideration the factors against which they decide on their choices of options, which include the social context, the social distance, the social values and culture, and the interactants themselves: who is saying what to whom, in what capacity, and for what purpose, and the shared assumptions and knowledge of the world. One important remark about the functioning of utterances as speech acts is the intention of the speaker concerning the message he wants to convey. An utterance may express or have more than one illocutionary force. Kempson (1977: 59) points out a few linguistic actions of the sentence:
" There are four large bulls in that field. " She explains that this sentence " may be used as a warning (to a walker who is about to cross the fence), a statement (to a new assistant on the farm), a boast (to a fellow farmer), or a threat (to a boy who is misbehaving). "

The same also applies to other forms of utterances, i.e. imperatives and interrogatives. Kempson (ibid, p. 67) explains that " we can use an interrogative form to give information or to make a request for action, and we can also use an imperative both to give information and to request information. "

IJLLALW

Previous Studies

To the best of my knowledge few studies were conducted in this area, though not strictly contrastive in nature and focus. The first study was conducted by Khalil and McCarus (1999) and dealt with performative utterances cited from MSA written genres: "plays, short stories and formal/legal documents, texts that should provide a higher incidence of performatives " (p. 8). In the second study, El-Zeini (2001) has examined expressions of gratitude in colloquial Cairene Arabic. She also cites some other studies that have dealt with the same topic, i.e. expressions of gratitude (EOGS) in Arabic, in addition to some more other linguistic functions. But she points out that Hussein's study (1995) "is the only one that describes EOGS as a speech act in Arabic " (p. 173).

In an attempt to examine the cultural differences in the implications of expressing thanks, Hinkel (1994) investigated the ability of 199 non-native speakers of English (Chinese, Arab, Indonesian, Korean, Japanese and Spanish) to judge the appropriateness of giving thanks in common situations similarly to native speakers of English. The study revealed that 199 non-native speakers ranked expressions of thanks for appropriateness significantly different from the 34 non-native speakers of the control group. Hinkel's study (1994) showed that native speakers were very consistent in their judgments of the relevant thanking expressions whereas respondents whose native languages were heterogeneous showed no consistency in their rankings of the thanking expressions studied.

Morsi (2010) investigated how Egyptians living in the United States utilize their vernacular Arabic to express gratitude and indebtedness in return for a favor or generosity. She explains the strategies and various expressions Egyptians used in her study. The instances of expressing thanking in her study and responses to it as used by Egyptian Arabic speakers living in the United States show that these Egyptians recourse to repetition, redundancy, and plenty of formulaic expressions which include blessings and supplications as strategies to convey sincerity and gratitude to their addressees.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study is meant to answer the following two questions:

1. How do English and Arabic realize certain speech acts (i.e. authoritative, promising and thanking)?
2. What differences do English and Arabic display as to how they structurally and lexically realize such speech acts?

METHODOLOGY

The English and Arabic corpora of this study comprise spontaneous spoken utterances that are authentic and contextualized. The English examples were collected from Tillitt and Bruder's book entitled "Speaking Naturally: Communication Skills in American English" [1], in addition to references which contain discussions on speech acts. As for the Arabic examples, these have been collected from both MSA (Modern Standard Arabic) and daily social interactions, as observed and heard by the researcher in his daily interactions with native speakers of Arabic in Bethlehem

---

[1] Many English utterances have been borrowed from Tillitt and Bruder's book entitled "Speaking Naturally: Communication Skills in American English" , Cambridge University Press (1985).

Governorate. The researcher for this part of the corpus has focused on how native speakers of Arabic would perform thanking and promising or committing themselves to doing things in their daily transactions. Of course, most, if not all, of this part focuses on Palestinian dialect, of which Bethlehem regional dialect is exemplary. The thanking (expressing gratitude) utterances consist of expressions collected by the researcher from villagers and peasants or expressions used by females in their social interaction. The colloquial ones are more realistic in this regard because they are frequently used in the most natural context. The collected Arabic and English utterances have been respectively presented to a panel of seven native speakers of Arabic and another panel of seven native speakers of English working at Bethlehem University in the West Bank to appeal to their intuitive knowledge and to get their feedback on the basis of their immediate reactions. Both panels, with very few exceptions, judged the given utterances as authentic and natural.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
English Language
Declaratory (Performative) acts:
Consider these examples:

1. I hereby pronounce you guilty.
2. The court/jury hereby permits you to stand down. (Allan, 1986: 168)
3. We hereby authorize you to pay on our behalf a sum not exceeding $ 500. (Allan, p. 168).
4. You are hereby authorized to pay ………..
5. Out!
6. I don't grant your request. (Allan, p. 171)
7. I refuse your request. (Allan, p. 171)

Declaratory acts in English as the examples above show can have three types or forms:
- Form 1 consists of subject (first person) + (hereby) + performative verb+ other words:
    e.g.   I (hereby) pronounce you guilty.

- Form 2 consists of a declarative statement which can be either an active voice statement consisting of a subject (the name of an institution or an authorized body + (hereby) + a performative verb + other words:

    e.g.   The court/jury (hereby) permits you to stand down. It could also be a passive
            voice statement.
    e.g.   (1) You are (hereby) authorized ……….
            (2) Notice is hereby given that trespassers will be prosecuted.

It should be noted that " the person(s) responsible for illocution is (are) represented by the agency of the performative clause. Thus, it is a necessary condition on the explicit performative clause that S (speaker) is agent for himself or another, whichever takes responsibility for enforcing the illocution in the performative " (Allan, 1986: 169)

- Form 3 has no subject (overt subject) and no explicit performative verb or object ….. etc. It is enough to use a particle, for instance, as this example shows:

- " Out! **"** in the sense " I declare the ball out! uttered by a referee.

The above examples under forms one and two have perofrmative verbs in the simple present tense. However, performative verbs can occur in the present progressive as well, as in:

- I am betting you £10 Arsenal will win.

Another important point is that declaratory performative verbs can occur as negative performatives, as in:

- " I don't grant your request, " provided it is uttered with the appropriate prosody. In addition, the verb ' refuse ' can be used to express a negative performative act as in:

- I refuse your request.

Commissives
Examples:

- I (hereby) promise to come to the party.
- " I am hereby promising you not to scatter chips on the carpet " (Allan, 1986: 170).
- " I do promise to come more often " (Allan, p. 170)
- I will not scatter chips on the carpet anymore.

It is clear that commissives in English can occur in the simple present and the present progressive when they have explicit performative verbs as in:

- I (hereby) promise to come to the party.
- I am (hereby) promising you not to scatter chips on the carpet.

They also occur in the emphatic-do form as in:

- I do promise to come more often.

It is conditional that the performative clause occurs in the indicative mood. When commissives have no explicit performative verbs, they occur in the future with will:
- I will not scatter chips on the carpet any more.

Allan (1986: 174-5) sums up the necessary conditions on the form of explicit performative clauses in English as follows:

> 1. The clause complies with the normal rules of English grammar.
> 2. The main verb in the performative clause must be a perofrmative
> verb which spells out the illocutionary point of U.

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

3. The performative verb must be in the present (non-past, non-future, non-perfect) tense, because the illocutionary act is defined on the moment of utterance.

4. A performative clause must be ' realis ', i.e. designate an actualization of the illocutionary act. Therefore, (a) a performative verb can only co-occur with root modals which are 'realis ', and not with ' irrealis ' epistemic modal auxiliaries; and (b) a perfromative clause must be in the indicative mood.

5. The subject of the performative clause is conditioned by the fact that the speaker S is agent for either himself or another, whichever takes responsibility for enforcing

the illocution described by the performative verb. More often than not this controls the form of the SU NP.

6. It is often said that a performative verb necessarily occurs in the simple aspect; and it does normally do so, perhaps for the same reason that the simple aspect is normal in on-the-spot reporting of football matches, baseball games, etc. However, there are occasions where a performative may occur in the progressive aspect. Conditions 2-6, and 7 below, constitute sufficient conditions on the form of the performative clause.

7. A performative verb can typically be preceded by the adverb ' hereby ' meaning " in uttering this performative. " This adverb will precede the negative preformative ' not ' or auxiliary verb + n't or a negative performative.

(pp. 174-5)

- We also note that: (i) a performative clause may be either positive or negative, in the sense of denoting an act of doing or not–doing respectively; and (ii) a performative clause may be emphatic.

Thanking

Thanking as a speech act can occur on numerous occasions. Leech in this connection (as cited in El-Zeini, 2001: 172) defines thanking as " a convivial function whose goal of stating appreciation helps maintain a polite and social atmosphere. "

For the purpose of this study, thanking on the occasions of giving a gift, doing a favour, helping and asking about someone's health for the English part of the study will be examined as illustrated by Tillit and Bruder (1985). Informal language or utterances will be the focus of the discussion.

Thanking for a gift:

Native speakers of English receiving the gift usually say three things:

" 1. an expression of thanks;

2. a compliment on the gift itself, showing that the recipient likes the gift; and

3. a question relating to the gift (its origin), use, maker … etc) to show interest in the gift " .

Examples:
1. When receiving roses:
- Oh, thank you! I just love roses. Are they from your garden?
2. When receiving a picture:
- It's beautiful! Thank you very much. I've always wanted a picture from Japan. Did you get it in Osaka?
- " Another way of thanking for a gift is to use an expression of thanks and then to state that a gift was not necessary or expected:
- Oh, Thank you. But you really didn't have to. "

(p. 37)

Thanking for doing a favor or for helping

In this situation someone volunteers to do something to help another party, a friend, or anybody who may be in need of help or who might ask to give him/her a hand in doing any of his/her little businesses. People who receive help find themselves obliged to say something in return for this help. Sometimes in case of receiving " bigger " favours, that is, ones involving more time or effort, the beneficiary … may also give a gift to the doer of the favor ". (ibid, p. 38)

Expressions of gratitude native speakers of E. use in informal situations:

- Thank you very much.
- Thank you so much.
- Many thanks.
- Thanks, you've saved my neck.
- Thanks, love!
- Thanks a million!
- Thanks a lot for ….
- I really appreciate your help!
- Thanks!

Expressions of gratitude when someone tries to help but fails the attempt:

- " Thank you very much for trying, at least.
- Thank you so much for your efforts.
- Thanks anyway.
- Thanks a lot. " (Tillitt & Bruder, 1985: 41)

Syntactically, expressions of gratitude as evident from the examples above, can vary in structure:

1. the verb ' thank ' + object (a pronoun referring to the person offering help) + adv. P. (usually very (so) much.
2. I + adv + V + obj. (NP): I really appreciate your help.
3. NP ⟶ modifier + (N-plural): Many thanks.
4. N (PL) + a word expressing affection: Thanks, love!
5. Thanks + a comment: Thanks, you've saved my neck.
6. Thanks + NP which functions as an adverbial: Thanks a million.

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

7. N (PL) = Thanks!

In case of failed attempts of help, the structure of the expressions varies slightly as follows:

- Thank you + adv. P + comment (acknowledgment of the attempt).
      e.g. Thank you <u>very much for your efforts</u>.
                              a lot   for trying at least.

<u>Thanking for expressing interest in someone's health</u>:
This short dialogue shows how people show interest in each others' health and how they express gratitude toward that:

a) How is your husband these days?
b) Oh, he's pretty good, thanks;
in which case a comment is made on the concerned person's health + an expression of the thanks. (Tillitt & Bruder, 1985: 41)

Arabic Language
Arabic declaratory or performative acts:
The following utterances function as highly performative acts. They have their strong illocutionary force as a result of the authority or empowerment the speaker has; they are usually very formal, i.e. uttered or written in MSA or CA (Classical Arabic).

1. ³u'linu qiyāma dawalti filastin
2. yuḫallu-L-barlamān
3. ³u'linu bad'a-ljalsati
4. tuḳffadu as³aar-s-sila³i-l-stihlākiyya
5. bi-mujibi-s-salāḥiyyaati-l-muḳawwalati 'ilayy 'amnaḥuka haðihi-š-šahaadah
6. zawwajtuka ibnati
7. bi' tuka sayyārati
8. iðhabū fa'antumu-t-tulaqā'
9. liyutlaq saraḫu-s-sujanaa
10. 'anti taliq
11. 'anta mafṣū lun mina-l-āmal.
12. 'uḫððiruk

According to their forms or structures, the above performative (declaratory) acts can be classified into FOUR types. Examples are transliterated, translated word-for-word to help the English reader construe their syntactic structure and then they are translated into equivalent English ones.

    1. Imperfect, in which the simple present tense (active or passive) is
used:
          Examples:
          (1)   ³ūlinu qiyāma dawlati filastīn.

IJLLALW

I declare the establishment of the state of Palestine.
I declare Palestine a State. (Uttered by President Arafat)
An active simple present tense has been used.

(2)   *yaḫallu-l-barlamān*

Is dissolved the parliament.
The Parliament is dissolved.
(Simple Present Passive)

2. Perfect:
-    *zawwajtuka ibnati*

I married you daughter-my.
I married you my daughter.
(I marry you my daughter).
or   (I give you my daughter's hand in marriage)

-    *biᵌtuka sayyarati*

I sold you car-my.
I sold you my car.
(I sell you my car)
3. Imperative:
- *iðhabū fa'antum a-ṭ- ṭulaqā'.*
Go-you, you free.
Go, you are free.
(was uttered by Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him) when he freed captives, once his enemies, after conquering   Mecca).

-    *liyuṯlaq saraḫu-s-sujanā'*

Let release freedom of prisoners.
Let prisoners be released.
(I order prisoners be released)
(uttered by a king/president of a state)

4. Nominal Clauses:
- *'anti ṯāliq* (You divorcee)

You are divorced
(uttered by a Muslim husband to his wife to divorce her)
- *'anta mafusulun mina-l-ᵌamal*

You dismissed from the work (job).
You are dismissed from your job.
(You are fired from your job)
(uttered by an employer, a boss or a manager)

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

Arabic declaratory or performative acts:
The focus here is on colloquial expressions of promising or pledges. But for the sake of contrast, some examples of formal commissives will be discussed.

1. Formal Commissives:

- *sawfa 'azūruka*

Will I visit you
(I will visit you)

No performative verb. Will + V constitute the promise, same as in implicit or indirect commissives.

- *'a³iduka biðālik*

I promise you with that.
(I promise to do (that))
(Here an explicit performative verb is used in the simple present tense, same as in English).

- *wa-Allah-i la 'aḫḍuranna*

by Allah emphatic particle I come + emphatic particle.
(I will certainly come).
(Three emphatics are used: a solemn oath + emphatic particle (L) prefixed to the verb (come) + emphatic " anna" suffixed to the same verb.

- *la-ka   ³alayya 'an 'abðula juhdi.*

For you on me to exert effort – my
(I promise you to do my best)
Structure: PP + PP + Particle + simple present + Obj.

- *'i³tabir ðālika 'amran mulziman lī*

Consider (you) that a matter binding to me.
(illocutionary force: I commit myself to this matter)
Structure : (imperative + clause)

2. Informal (colloquial) Commissives:

IJLLALW

- *³ala 'eini w ³ala rāsi*

On my eyes and on my head
(I promise) or (With pleasure!)
Structure : PP and PP (no subject + no verb)

This expression denotes emphasis and strong commitment. The body parts mentioned in the two prepositional phrases are two of the most important organ's of one's body. The connotation is that the speaker strongly, solemnly and respectfully commits himself to keep his promise.

Similarly is the following expression:

- *min-l-³ein hāy la-l-³ein hāy*

From this eye to this eye.

This is uttered with the speaker's finger pointing to each eye. The implication is that the request (the thing wanted by the hearer (interlocutor)) will be granted or done, and that the speaker will not be able to look the hearer in the eye if he (speaker) does not keep his promise.

Structure : (PP + PP)
- *³ala ha-l-kašim*

On this nose.
(I promise)

Again a body part is referred to make a promise. In Arabic, the nose as a body part connotes honour and pride; therefore, when someone makes a promise touching his nose with his finger, his promise is to be taken very seriously. Hence, we find an Arab who says:

Qawmun humu-l-'anfu wa-l-'aðnābu gayruhumu   wa man yusawwi bi 'anfi-n-nāqati-ð-ðanabā
(My) People are the nose; others are the tails. Who equalizes the she-camel's head with the tail?
Structure : (PP ⟶ P + NP)

- *'amrak ya sīdi*

Your order master – my.
Your order my master.
(I promise to grant your request)

This promise is made to someone who enjoys high respect for being a dignitary or a close friend.
Structure : Nominal clause ⟶ GP + vocative

- *wa law ! 'ana maḫsū bak*

a particle of exclamation I am yours.

(I promise, with pleasure !)

This is also a promise made to someone who is thought of highly by the speaker making the promise.

Structure : Exclamatory particle + nominal clause.

- *'ayy ka̱ṭa' raji³nī*

If you find any defect, I am responsible.
This is said during a transactional exchange. It is a pledge made by the speaker to emphasize the good quality of his services (goods) and that he will be responsible for any defect discovered when the consignment is delivered to the hearer.

Structure : Conditional sentence (utterance)

- *ra̱h yiwasalak La̱had ³indak*

Will reach you to your place.
It will reach you to your place.
(It will be delivered direct to you)

This is an implicit promise: future tense.
- *'ana ma̱hsub šawārbak*

I am for your moustache.
(I promise)

This is another promise which refers to a bodypart i.e. the hearer's moustache. The reference connotes high respect, and, therefore, it will be taken as a solemn promise and commitment on the part of the speaker.

Structure : a declarative statement

- *w ra̱hmit 'abūy fi trābu gir 'azūrkum*
And grace father-my in soil-his will I visit you.
(I swear on my father's grave to visit you)

This is a very solemn promise made by a swear on the speaker's father's grave to fulfill the visit to the hearer. The speaker cannot but do so.

Structure : (a swear (on something) + an emphatic word (*gir* which is equivalent to will)+ verb.

- *tawakkal ³ala Allah*

Depend on Allah
(Trust in God)

(I promise)

" This is a promise which is made implicity, but it denotes the speaker's good intention to fulfill his promise using a religious expression. "
Structure: Imperative clause which has positive religious assurances.

Informal expressions of gratitude in Arabic:
El-Sayed (1990), as cited in Eli Hinkel (1994) points out that thanking and responses to it in Arabic culture are utilized as a way to establish closer social relationships. "Expressing thanks establishes social reciprocity and group belonging between the speaker and the addressee". The following occasions or situations were selected as is the case with the English part of the study.

-        Expressions of gratitude for a gift

- *šukran*
(Thank you)

- *šukran jazilan*

Thanks a lot.
Many thanks!

- *rabbna ydīmak fouq rāsi*

Allah-our keep you above (on) head-my
" May God protect you for me! "

This is uttered by wife to husband, or sister to brother in return for a gift, usually in a village or a rural area.

- *ykaƟƟir ḵirak 'afḏālak ³alina kƟīra*
Increase (Allah) bounty-your, favours-your on us many
(may Allah (God) increase your bounty; you always overwhelm us by your favours.)

This is uttered to someone who is superior to the speaker because the hearer repeatedly gives generously.

The following expression functions in the same way:

- *gamartna bkaramak w lutfak*

You overwhelmed us by your generosity and kindness.

- *min yadd ma ni³damhāš*

From a hand that we do not miss

May Allah save your hand.

234

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

(May Allah protect you for us)

(very often said by a mother to son; or sister to brother)

- *Allah ywassi³ha ³alik*

Allah enlarge it upon you.
" May Allah give you more and more! "

(Very often said by a needy person when offered a gift or charity from a friend or a relative).

- Expressions of gratitude when receiving favours, assistance or help:

    - *hāða ma³rūf ma bansā ṯū l ³umri*

This is a favour that I will never forget all my life.
(This is said when someone does a great favour to the speaker)

    - *yislamu 'idik, gallabtak ma³āy*
    Save hands- yours, bothered I you with me

May Allah save your hands; I have bothered you.

(said when someone gives a hand to someone else (the speaker), usually said by a female)

    - *ykiff ³annak šarraha*

Drive away (Allah) from you evil-its.
May (Allah) protect you against its evil (the fire).

This is said when the speaker gets his cigarette lit by the hearer.
Usually the hearer reciprocates by saying.
- *wa la tqāsi ḥarrha*
You no suffer heat – its.
(May you never suffer its burns)

    - *Allah yiqaf ma³ak*
    Allah stand with you.

May Allah be with you.
(May Allah (God) help you)

(Usually said by a female)

- *Allah yirḏa ³alik w yiḥmīk*
Allah be pleased on you and protect you.
(May Allah be pleased with you and protect you!)
(Usually said by a female)
- *Allah yib³id a z-zālmīn ³annak*
Allah drive away oppressors from you.
(May Allah keep oppressors away from you)

(Usually said by a female)

- *Allah yinišlak min kull ḏīq wa yij'allak fi kull ṭarīq sdīq*
Allah save you from every distress and make for you in every road a friend.
(May Allah save you from every distress and give you a good company wherever you go!)

(Usually said by a female in return for a big favour)

- *Allah yṯawwil ³ūmrak*
Allah extend your life-span
(May Allah let you live long!) (May you enjoy longevity!)

- *Yisqik min zamzam*
Drink you from zamzam
(May Allah enable you to drink from the water of Zamzam (at the Holy Mosque of Meccaa in Saudi Arabia). (said by the speaker when offered a drink of water)

Expressions of gratitude after a visit to ask after someone's health:

The most common expressions heard in our area and dialect are the ones in these exchanges:
Visitor to patient + when leaving: *biruḥ aš – šarr in ša'a Allah*
                                          Go the evil, if Allah wills.
                                          Get better, Allah willing
                                          (May you get better soon)
                                          (Get better soon)

The patient usually reciprocates: *Allah la ywarrīk šarr*

                                          May God not show you evil.
                                          (May Allah bestow health upon you)
                                          (May Allah protect you against evils)

Visitor when leaving: *mšafa wi m³āfa 'inša'a Allah*

                                          May you recover, God willing!
                                          (May you recover soon!)

Patient reciprocates: *šukran, Allah yib³id-l-maraḏ ³annak*

236

Thanks, may Allah keep off disease from you.
(Thanks! May you remain healthy and sound)

It is clear from most of the expressions of gratitude used by Palestinians in their daily interactions that the most frequent expressions used are of the supplicant form. This comes to confirm the findings of El-Zeini (2001: 172). These supplications include the mention of Allah (God), commonly at the beginning, or in an invocative expression at the end of the supplication. In case this mention is not explicit, it is implicitly understood. Usually, in addition, those supplications include a simple present tense.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION
Declaratory (Performative) Speech Acts
Declaratory (performative) speech acts in English can have the following characterisitics:

a) Explicit performative in which there is a performative verb in the present tense (simple or progressive, active or passive. The subject can be first speaker (I, we) or an institution, a body, a group, a court … etc, acting as the agent.

b) There is no evidence of implicit declaratory acts, i.e. in which there is no preformative verb;

c) A particle alone can be used (with the subject and verb ellipted);

d) The adverb ' hereby ' is optionally inserted between the speaker an the verb in explicit performative acts;

e) The emphatic ' do ' can be used with the performative verb, in which case it must precede the verb.

In contrast, Arabic declaratory (performative) speech acts are characterized by the following;

a. Explicit performative verbs can be either simple present (imperfect) or simple past (perfect);

b. Declaratory acts can come void of verbs, i.e. they can be nominal clauses which include no verbs at all;

c. Subjects of explicit verbs are implicitly understood as ' I ' or   ' we ';

d. Declaratory acts can have explicit performative verbs in the passive form. It is understood that the speaker is the agent who has the authority or empowerment to do so, i.e. to perform the act.

e. A particle alone does not function as a performative speech act in Arabic.

IJLLALW

Commissives

Commissives in English can be either explicit or implicit speech acts. In case of explicit speech acts a commissive verb (simple present or progressive, active or passive) is used. In implicit speech acts, we find (will + verb) instead of explicit verbs. An emphatic ' do ' can precede the commissive verbs in English.

In Arabic, on the other hand, commissives vary in structure from a prepositional phrase, a nominal clause, a conditional clause to utterances which start with a performative verb as in English. The performative verb can be explicit (simple present) like 'a'id' (I promise), 'ata'ahhad (I pledge) or a future tense (with sawfa (will) + verb (will + verb). Sometimes the dividing line between commissives and assertives in Arabic tends to disappear, as in the following speech act laka 'alyy 'an 'að ul juhdi (I promise to exert all effort) see this example above). Moreover, in Arabic commissives, there is reference to body-parts such as head, eye, nose, and neck, for these refer to and connote honour, pride and strong commitment.

In addition, double emphasis can be prefixed and suffixed to the performative verb as *la'aḫduranna* (I will certainly come), in which the emphatic *lām* (L) is prefixed to the verb, and the emphatic (*nnạ* is suffixed to the verb itself, but this is a case of a formal commissive speech act, which we do not hear in layman's daily interactions; even we can have the same example in a triple emphatic form in which the verb is preceded by the oath " *wa-llāhi* (I swear by God).

Thanking

Thanking as a speech act in English informal exchange, varies from one word to many. It can come as a plural noun alone (thanks!), or as a noun phrase (Many thanks, or a verb clause (Thank you) + an adverbial qualifier (so/very much). Sometimes, an expression of gratitude can be followed by a comment to acknowledge the importance or vitality of the hearer's effort, help, gift or favour.

In Arabic, however, the speech act of thanking in informal situations, i.e., in daily social interactions or transactions which occur in the colloquial dialect, we find completely different expressions than in English. In most cases, religious formulae are found which take the form of a supplication with an explicit mention of the name of Allah (God) at the beginning. In cases, where the name of Allah is not mentioned, it is implicitly understood or taken for granted, and can be recovered very easily.

In all cases of thanking, the expressions show politeness, acknowledge the hearer's help, favour or gift, and express deep indebtedness to him. In most cases as well, supplications are uttered with verbs after God's name. Thanking in colloquial Arabic expresses strong positive feelings and sentiments toward the addressee, and they are face threatening on the part of the speaker.

The data has shown that in informal or colloquial Arabic speech acts people rarely, if at all, use performative verbs. In fact, performative verbs more often than not, are used in the standard dialect (variety) of Arabic. They are used as such in formal situations, and as Stubss (1983: 157) puts it, though not in connection with Arabic speech acts, " At the very least they differ in style and emphasis. In other words, the actual use of explicit performative verbs depends on the formality of the context, on the emphasis expressed or on the functions of an utterance in denying a preceding utterance ."

To conclude, this paper has attempted to examine how both English and Arabic realize certain speech acts, mainly authoritative speech acts, promising and thanking. For the sake of the study, the researcher collected some data which consisted of declaratory speech acts, commissives, and thanking in both English and Arabic. As for speech acts of thanking, these were confined to informal expressions (expressions we hear in everyday social use of either language). But these have also been specified in terms of occasions on which they are used: receiving gifts, help, favours and showing interest in someone's health. Structures of speech acts were analyzed in a way that could serve the purpose of the study. Finally, a contrast (pointing out the differences) between English and Arabic was made.

Arabic dialects (colloquial, social and regional) are full of speech acts which have to be explored by researcher. It seems that this area is still fresh ground for research. Cross-cultural and pragmalinguistic characteristics of these speech acts contrasted with their counterparts in English are of paramount importance for sociolinguistic, contrastive, semantic and translation studies.

REFERENCES
Allan, K. (1986). *Linguistic Meaning*, Vol. 2. London: Routledge.
El-Zeini, N. (2001, June). Expressions of Gratitude in Cairene Arabic: Pragma Linguistic Study. In: *IJAES*., 2 (1 & 2), 171-214.
Gass, S., & Neu, J. (2006). *Speech acts across cultures: challenges to communication in a second language*, Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.
Gass, S., & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second Language Acquisition: An introductory course*. Routledge.
Grundy, P. (2000). *Doing Pragmatics*. London: Arnold
Halliday, M.A.K. (1973). *Explorations in the functions of language*. London: Arnold.
Hinkel, E. (1994**).** Pragmatics of interaction: Expressing thanks in a second language. *Applied Language Learning, 5,* 73-91.
Holmes, J. (1992). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. Harlow Essex: Longman Group UK Limited.
Hudson, R.A.(1980). *Sociolinguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Hurford, J., Brenden, H., & Michael, S. (1983). *Semantics, a coursebook. Cambridge*. Cambridge University Press.
Khalil, A., & McCarus, E. (1999). *Arabic Performative Verbs*. Zeitschrift für Arabische Linguistik, Vol. 36.
Kempson, R. M. (1977). *Semantic Theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Morsi, R. (2010). *The speech act of thanking in Egyptian Arabic*. M.A. Thesis.
Searle, J. R. (1969). *Speech Acts: An essay in the philosophy of language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Sperber, D., & Wilson, D. (1986). *Relevance.* Oxford: Basil Blackwell Ltd.
Stubbs, M. (1983). *Discourse Analysis.* Oxford; Basil Blackwell Ltd.
Tillitt, B., & Bruder, M. N. (1985). *Speaking Naturally*. Cambridge University Press.
Wolfson, N. (1986). Compliments in Cross-Cutlural Perspective. In Valdes, J. M. *Culture bound: Bridging the Cultural Gap in Language Teaching, (112- 123)* Cambridge*:* Cambridge University Press.

IJLLALW

Appendix I

Transliteration of Arabic Letters
  A. **Consonants**

Arabic Letter	Symbol
ء	'
ب	b
ت	t
ث	t̲
ج	j
ح	h
خ	k
د	d
ذ	d̲
ر	r
ز	z
س	s
ش	š
ص	ṣ
ض	ḍ
ط	ṭ
ظ	z̲
ع	ᵌ
غ	g
ف	f
ق	q
ك	k
ل	l
م	m
ن	n
ه	h
و	w
ي	y

B. **Vowels:**
Short Vowels   Long Vowels
ََ   fatha   a   ا   ā
ُ   damma   u   و   ū
ِ   kasra   i   ي   ī

Abbreviations
  Modern Standard Arabic   MSA
  Arabic Genitive Construct   AGC
  English Genitival Constructions   EGC
  Compounding   COMP

LEARNING DISTRACTIONS AND MISERIES THROUGH PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION IN ESL CLASSROOMS

Parastoo Babashamsi
Faculty of education, University Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

ABSTRACT
Classroom observation is a significant part of educational measurement in teacher evaluation system across the country. The purpose of the study is to investigate the feeling and anxiety of learners in participant observation and what is expressed in the questioner's sheet. Our goal is to identify physical and emotional behaviors that are linked to students learning. We explored the effect of observation modes on inferences about the level or ranking of teaching in similar levels or in classrooms for one term. A qualitative research method is being employed in the study. Sampling is purposive in selecting the classes for observation and answering the questioner's and all the informants are aware of the effect feeling of an observing when they answer the questions. This topic is very specific and never mentioned in any previous study.

KEY WORDS: learning distractions, miseries, ESL classrooms

INTRODUCTION
Classroom observations are useful exploratory strategies because human observations can intuitively discern the high level of behavior and make appropriate judgment on limited information that may be difficult to automatically be decided from row sensor data.

Participant observation refers to a form of sociological research methodology in which the researcher takes on a role in the social situations under observation. Covert observation involves the researcher fully participating in the activities of the social group without informing them, thus the research is carried out secretly, and share in the lives and activities of those being studied by learning their language and interpreting their behavior (Becker, 1985).

The researcher could gain access into the group through contact with a gate keeper who would introduce him or her to the group. Overt participation on the other hand is when the researcher is open about the purpose of his presence and is given permission to perform this research by the person in the highest state of authority. Participant observation involves examining social behavior as it occurs rather than as it is reported through interviews and questionnaires (Encyclopedia).

Much has been written on the roles used by the participant observer (Adams & Preiss, 1960; Bryman & Burges, 1999; Gans, 1999). Gold (1958) extended the idea of participant observation into four major roles: (1) the complete participant, (2) the participant as observer, (3) the observer as participant, and (4) the complete observer.

IJLLALW

As mentioned in International Encyclopedia of the social science (2008); the *complete participant* rarely reveals that research is being conducted; however, in this circumstance it is difficult for the participant observer to pose questions. The *participant as observer* role involves researcher and researched being aware that their relationship stems from research activity. The *observer as participant* consists of the observer making the research purpose clear from the start of investigation. Finally, the *complete observer* role entirely removes the researcher from any form of participation so that the purposes of the research are not revealed. Major goal of observation in this study is to understand whether and how teacher's instructional practices changed overtime. Specifically to what extent teachers increased their use of instructional strategies that enhance students learning. We need to know how a teacher taught the materials in his/her style, approach, method and rapport with the students. We need to know how receptive the students were and what was going besides those things we expected.

Student's emotion toward learning can have a drastic effect on their learning experience. (Ivon Arroyo). Students evaluate the effective inferences agents on both affective and emotional outcomes. Previous projects have produced computational tutors that recognized and responded to models of emotion. Projects have tackled the sensing and modeling of emotion in learning and educational gaming environments. A dynamic decision network was used to measure student emotional state based on variable such as heart rate, skin conductance and eyebrow position. Studies have evaluated the impact of affective interface agents on both affective and motivational outcomes based factors (gender, ethnicity).Lack of engagement was shown empirically to correlate with a decrease in learning (Hoda Eydgahi).

Researchers can maximize their abilities to grasp motives, beliefs, customs and such. (Rothe, 1993) The most widely used procedure or research method has been the systematic classroom observation based on interactive coding system. That you can apply what you learn from observation to modify your program in order to adapt your environment and teaching strategies (Dr. Peter j. Dirr). There are different observation methods; checklist, inventories, internal rating, holistic rating, narrative descriptions, questionnaires, models, open ended questions.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION

Bernard (1994) lists five reasons for including participant observation studies all of which increase the study's validity:

1. It makes it possible to collect different types of data. Being on a site over a time familiarizes the researcher to the community, thereby facilitating involvement in sensitive activities to which he/she generally would not be invited.
2. It reduces the incidence of reactivity" or people acting a certain way when they are aware of being observed.
3. It helps the researcher to develop questions that make sense in the native language or are culturally relevant.
4. It gives the researcher a better understanding of what is happening in the culture and lends credence to one's interpretations of the observation. Participant observation also enables the researcher to collect both quantitative and qualitative data through surveys and interviews.
5. It is sometimes the only way to collect the right data for one's study.

However class observations cause problems for teachers and trainers;
-They tend to be judgmental, relying, on trainers subjective judgment rather than developing.

  -Participant observation cause considerable stress and upset on part of instructor.
  -Teachers don't like it; they think it is threatening, frightening.
  -The checklist focused on too much at once.
  -There was no continuity from the first to second observation and visits are not linked.
  -As Barbara B. Kawalich (2005) illustrates, different researchers, understanding of what they observe based on representation of events and the subsequent of what occur.

PROBLEM STATEMENT
Several problems have been identified when conducting participant observation. Researcher must always remember that they are located in a social setting for the purpose of social science. They are involved and detached. This will help them to overcome the risks of over identifying with other participants and" going native" in the setting b no longer questioning the actions and activities that are observed (Encyclopedia ,2008). The researcher needs to collect data that are reliable and valid (Shaffir & Stebbins, 1991). Ethical problems are also frequently raised for the researcher through being placed in a marginal role with the result that stress and anxiety have to be managed throughout a study. This is frequently the case in covert studies where the researcher is unable to take notes or to use a range of other methods of research and often violates principles of informed consent, privacy, and confidentiality (Burgess, 1989; Lauder, 2003). The participant observer therefore needs to manage the study by being aware of the problems encountered in the research process by engaging in critical self- reflection of the research experience (Bourdieu, 2003) and by bringing the study to a successful close.

It is evident that language learners at different stages have problem with observers. In one hand observation increase the amount of teacher new strategy usage. On the other hand it increases learner's anxiety decrease their concentration during the class However numerous studies have been done on learner's anxiety and teacher's dissatisfaction; Marrian and Caffarella (1999, p.139), Edgar Schein, As Adler (1994, p.380), Johnson and Sackett (1998).
In contrast to previous studies we want to use this factor in qualitative method. In attempt to end this study duty to see how this element is perceived by the learners and to what extend it affects the student's concentration.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
_Will the participant observation distract student's attention hence attending in classroom?
_Will participant observation infer scores due to this model of observation?

IJLLALW

METHODOLOGY
Participants study design
For the purpose of this research a purposive sampling is used, and to elaborate on details more, a qualitative study is used. Our participants Four classes in pre-intermediate and four in intermediate levels of Zabansara English Institute (120 students) where chosen purposively , to be able to speak English and answer perfectly, to be observed so later they can answer the interview questions in more details. Eight part time English educated teachers were selected because of their experience and knowledge in teaching English. The teaching team was informed about the TTC and observation would focus on TTC framework of the institute. Furthermore, the teachers were asked not to change their teaching behaviors during the observed classes.

Instrument
This study tries to understand students through their reaction to participant observer and by answering interview questions that is done after observation. The reason for this is to understand students real feeling by entering the observer into the classroom and its side effects on learning process. Because participant observation is one of the rules of evaluating the instructors obeying TTC framework of the institutes this observations are necessary, on the other hand If these observations are going to have a negative effect on learning process the supervisors must think of it and find a solution. Data for different students and teachers can be summed after the interviews.

Procedure
The observations for the study were done by the supervisor, who visited the classes twice a term, a total of 16 observations (20-30 minutes each) were recorded. This study is based on semi-structure in-depth interview from twenty four informants. The data are transcribed and the coded for analysis. In- depth interview is to receive adequate information besides to express their feeling, opinions, views, and thoughts. Meanwhile the researcher gets to the point rapidly and the vogue responses are made clear. In order to gain the validity, interview questions were examined by two PhD teaching English field and their comments were taken into account. The informants in the interview confirmed to transcribe comments of their own.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The observations revealed that usually all classes in different levels were somehow disturbed and confused by the entrance of the observer. But in higher level classes it was obvious that they adapted to the new environment more quickly than the lower levels. They found themselves and became calm after five minutes and try to concentrate on their study and to the instructor. In lower levels this adaptation took around 10-15 minutes and still they more concentrated on observer rather than their instructor. While speaking they just looked at observer, couldn't complete their sentences completely and they were somehow confused. Although higher level students were not so, and either they tried to do their best toward the participant observer.

The questionnaires' were analyzed in relation to the purpose of the study and to analyze data, comparative method is applied in this study. Dick (2005) highlighted that constant comparison is the heart of process qualitative research. The comparison was done between the ideas of informants and concepts as they emerged. Analysis of informants is as follow;

1. Describe your feeling about your English class.

First and foremost, all respondents state that they have a good feeling toward their English class. They like it first because they are enthusiastic in learning new subjects and usually they like their teachers that attracts them toward the class. Likewise, some as a sample stated that;

-I have good feeling to my English class and I like it very much.
-I really like it, it's enjoyable.
-All the classes in zabansara are perfect and I enjoy them.
-They are enjoyable and useful.
It is clear that every one of informants really have a good feeling toward their English class and enjoy it.
　　　2.　What you like best about your English class?

Most of the respondent's state that they like their teacher, either emotionally or technically.
-Being with good teacher like Mr. Firoozkoohi.
-My friend and my teacher, they are very important to me.
-My class is very good and my teacher makes me relax.
-Our teacher is very good.
On the other hand some of them said they like discussions and speaking parts in the class.
As a sample they some higher level students said;
-I feel very good and nice about free discussions.
-Free discussions; because I think it improve our speaking.
-Interesting discussions are the best part.

　　　3. What disturbs you in your English class?
All of the respondents stated that nothing usually disturb them in their classroom.
-Nothing bothering me in the class.
-Nothing, but other class's noise and voice of the TV.
-Nothing, because I come here with love.
All of them clearly stated that no disturbance happened to them during their classroom and that can reveal that everything physically and emotionally is appropriate in the classroom and if there be a disturbance is very small.

　　　4. Does the presence of your observer disturb you in your English class?

What we can see understand from the answers of the questionnaire's, we can see that most of the students have positive attitude to this question. That mean more or less they have stress by the presence of the observer in their classes. As some of them mentioned:
-I was stressful.
-So, so.
-Yes I have stress.
But in higher levels this disturbance conditions is reduced. And as the questionnaire's mentioned they have less stress or disturbance less than the lower levels, because they have more self confidence and can speak better than the lower levels.
Of course these students were few but usually they could speak English perfect. From these reactions we can conclude that one of the reasons of having stress during the presence of the

participant observer can be the amount of self concept or self confidence that the students have toward themselves.

5. What are the effects of the presence of observer on you and your classroom?

As we analyzed question four, lower level informants have been more disturbed than the higher level classes, and this is directly stated in this answers;
-I think class is better in these situations.
-Every student tries to become better.
-I try to speak correct.
They usually have stress and the effect of this stress can directly be on the student's concentration and learning process.
Stress can disrupt learning process and memory development (long term potentiating, LTP) as it forces the brain to revert to more primitive survival needs.

6. When you find yourself in stressful situations, do you primarily worry or do you actively seek a solution?

As we analyze the responses of the questionnaires, the higher levels usually stated that:
-When I find myself in stressful situations, I try to solve it.
-I try to seek a solution.
-I usually seek a solution because there isn't any problem that we cannot solve it.
Lower levels stated that:
-I get sad.
-When I have stress, I usually cry.
-I get confused.
Again we can conclude that the higher level students with higher self steam can with the problems better and earlier than the lower levels, so the presence of participant observer can have a more disturbance effect on the students who have lower self steam.

7. How your instructor does play a role your feeling when an observer comes to your classroom?

Most of the informant stated that they feel better when they have friendly instructors that could make them relax. Regarding to the first research question we can conclude that almost all the students who come to the institute usually like their English classes and they have good feeling toward them. THE best thing they like about their classes in the second question is that they first like their teachers and the class environment, and their goal is to speak better. By the third question, nothing special disturbs their concentration while they were in their classroom. In question number four we concluded that usually all the students have a kind of stress and anxiety when observer comes to the classroom, but in question five as we stated, higher level students were less disturbed although they have stress by the presence of the observer, moreover by question six we can see that they can adapt to the new environment sooner because they have higher self confidence.

CONCLUSION
Although this study is a small scale study due to the limitations of time and number of informants and their short answers to the questions, it provides a glimpse into how students feel by the

entrance of participant observers into class environment. It is argued that this problem may originate from their self confidence, environment or teachers. Thus, finding of this study suggest further research on self concepts. Moreover, results show that great number of factors can affect the class disturbance but why participant observer has the most. Finally, it is worth mentioning that there is no mismatch between what is observed and gained by the observer during the class and what they wrote as the answers to their questionnaires sheet. It is hoped that adopting different research designs, efficient ways of observations be established to avoid the class distractions or learning disturbance.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study has some limitations related to sample of classrooms that may limit the generalization of findings. First the number of the level of the classes needed for observation. Second, though English is a critical course for long-term success, the generalizability of our results remains unknown. Third, the study use a single method of observation and so, how these findings can generalize to other protocols is not known.

REFERENCES

Adams, Richard N., & Jack J. Press, eds., (1960).*Human organization Research:* A site based Approach to Community Research in Complex Societies. Human Organization 58(2):128-13.

As Adler. (1994). Observation techniques. In Norman K. Denzin and Yvonna S. Linkoln(Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research (pp.377-392).*

Barbara, B., & Kawalich. (2005).Participant observation as a data collection method**.** *Forum: Qualitative social research, 6 (2).*

Becker, H. S. (1958). Problem of Inference and Proof in Participant Observation. *American Sociological Review, 23(6),* 652-660.

Bernard, M. (1994) Research methods in anthropology*: Qualitative and quantitative approaches (2ⁿᵈ Ed.).*

Bourdieu, P. (2003).Participant Objectivation**.** *Journal of the Royal Anthropological Institute, 9,* 281-294.

Bryman, A., & Robert, G. B, eds. (1999). *Qualitative research.4 vols. London:Sage.*

Dewalt (2002). Participant's observation**.** *In H. Russell**.**

Edgar, S. (1994). Organizational Skultur Og ledelse**.** *2. Udgave 1994,378 sider.*

Gans, H. J. (1999). Participant observation in the Era of "Ethnography". *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography, 28(5),* 540-548.

Gold, R. (1958). Roles in Sociological Field Observation**.** *Social force, 36(3),* 217-223.

Johnson., & Sackett. (1998). Direct systematic observation of behavior**.** In H. Russell Bernald **(Ed***). Handbook of methods on cultural anthropology (pp.301-332). Walnot creek . Altamira Press.*

Lauder, M. A. (2003).Covert Participant Observation of a Deviant Community: Justifying the Use of Deception. *Journal of Contemporary Religion, 18(2),* 185-196.

Merriam, S. B., & Cafferella, R. S. (1999).Learning in adulthood: A comprehensive guide (2nd ed.) *Sanfrancisco: Jossey-Bass publisher*.

Rothe, J. (1993). Qualitative research: A practical guide, Ontario**:** *RCL Publication*.

Shaffir, W. B., & Robert A. S, eds. (1991). Experiencing Fieldwork: An Inside View of Qualitative Research. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

THE EFFECT OF CONVERSATIONAL SHADOWING ON TEACHING AND LEARNING CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

Marziyeh Nekoueizadeh (Corresponding author)
Department of English Language, Sepidan Branch, Islamic Azad University, Sepidan,Iran
Email:693mnekooei@gmail.com

Taher Bahrani
Department of English, Islamic Azad University, Mahshahr Branch, Mahshahr, Iran
Email: taherbahrani@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT
As a matter of fact, conditional constructions easily replicate the human intelligent to anticipate various circumstances and to suppose consequences on the basis of known or imaginary conditions. The main purpose of the current study is to consider whether or not conversational shadowing has any impact on the acquisition of English conditional sentences. This study has pedagogical implications for English instructors aiming at educating learners. To fulfill the purpose of this study, 60 English learners at intermediate level from five intact classes in one language institute were chosen. The participants were homogenized in terms of their language proficiency by a standardized proficiency Nelson English test. The standardized proficiency pretest signified that the selected groups were unfamiliar with the target structures prior to the posttest. During the study, the experimental group metacognitively centralizing their attention to language form and meaning of conditional sentences by shadowing everything that their instructor says during interaction and communication. The paired sample t-test computed between the means of the pre-test and post-test showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the performances of the selected group on the post-test. Thus, the analysis of the students' answers in the post-test showed that conversational shadowing had positive impact on teaching and learning the conditional sentences.

KEYWORDS: conversational shadowing, pre-test, post-test, conditional sentences

INTRODUCTION
There are so many languages used in the world, but people all over the world use English as the international language. Bloomfield (1995) noted that English, as the international language, is used in almost every country in the world. English is an essential language for every activity like trading, education or even in science and technology. On the other hand, Hall (1993) assumed that grammar is a description of certain organizing aspects of a particular language. Thus, for using English language, people should be familiar with grammar, as basic part of language, to communicate with each other and improve the ability in understanding many kinds of knowledge.

In view of the above, conditional sentences are one of the important parts of English grammar. Conditional sentences are often used to describe unreal situations, i.e., situations that are the

IJLLALW

opposites of the fact. Conditionals are different from other structures as they have two clauses: a subordinate clause (if-clause or 'protasis'), which states the condition of reasoning and a main clause (or 'apodosis'), which features the outcome of inferences (Traugott et al., 1986). Conditional sentences, as intricate syntactic and semantic structure in the international language, have attracted the attention of a lot of language acquisition researchers. Second language learners are engaged in difficulties to produce, comprehend and imitate of this structure. By the way, second language scholars such as Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) reported that learners of English as a second language (ESL) have difficulties in acquiring English conditionals due to the syntactic and semantic complexities embedded in conditional constructions. In fact, Celce-Murcia, and Larsen-Freeman. (1999) cited a survey done by Covitt (1976), stating that conditional sentences ranked fifth1 among the serious teaching problems encountered by ESL teachers in the Los Angeles area. With all the problems associated with the difficulties of teaching and learning conditionals, this study, by considering that conversational shadowing is an important second language teaching method in the field of language teaching, mainly attempts to demonstrate the tangible its effect on learners' oral performance for using conditional sentences. According to Murphey (2001), shadowing is a technique in which learner wishing to learn a skill by selecting only certain words and phrases through communicate and interaction with another (mentor), while that person is employing their expertise on a value-producing assignment.

THEORETICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES
Conditionals in English have been one of the focuses of study not only in linguistics but also in psychology and philosophy. In linguistics, it has been analyzed from different perspectives, for example, functional grammar (Dik, 1990; Cuvalay, 1996), and semantic and pragmatic analysis (Beck, 1997; Fintel, 1997). There has been a lack of agreement over the meanings and uses of conditionals (Werth, 1992).

Among the most difficult grammatical structures for ESL learners, conditionals stand fifth after articles, prepositions, phrasal verbs, and verbals (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999). Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) cite a survey conducted by Covitt (1976) that found conditionals ranked fifth (behind articles, prepositions, phrasal verbs, and verbals) among the most serious teaching problems encountered by ESL teachers in the Los Angeles area. The main difficulties lie in the following aspects:

a. Form
b. Meaning
c. Oversimplified explanations
d. Time-tense relationships

The learners usually find problems with form and meaning. The form causes problems because conditional sentences consist of two clauses (i.e., if and result clauses), which can switch places. The if-clause (If-C) is the antecedent, in which the speaker states the condition of reasoning, and the then-clause (result-C) is the consequent in which the speaker states the outcome of inferences (Traugott et al., 1986:5). English conditional sentences can be divided into sentences of real conditions and sentences of unreal conditions. The real conditionals can be further divided into those that express some type of factual relationship and those that present a predictive relationship. The unreal conditionals are used to express extremely unlikely or hypothetical situations and situations that are assumed to be contrary to known facts or counterfactual (Zhang, 2005).

The conditional or rather the dependent clause can start with words such as *if, unless, provided (that), providing (that), even though, even if, whether or not, as long as,* and *on condition that*. Conditional sentences directly reflect the language user's ability to reason about alternatives, uncertainties, and unrealized contingencies. An understanding of the conceptual and behavioral organization involved in the construction and interpretation of these kinds of sentences provides fundamental insights into the inferential strategies and the cognitive and linguistic processes of human beings. (Traugott, 2009) Conditional sentences, which are used for a variety discourse functions, from cognitively and linguistically dimensions are intricate structures make big problems for teachers and learners. Until now, much research has been down on conditionals but it is not easy to suggest how conditional sentences should be taught practically. This part of the paper has an attempt to consider previous researches that have been done about difficulties inherent in the teaching and learning of conditionals.

Conditional sentences are common syntactic configurations, which express causal relationships, potentialities, possibilities, and evidence relationships in discourse concerned with explanation and argumentation. In English, a conditional sentence is often expressed in the form of 'If A, then C.' (Li, 1995). The typical English conditional construction is *if p, then q*. The *if*-clause is the *antecedent*, in which the speaker states the condition of reasoning and the *then*-clause is the *consequent* in which a speaker states the outcome of inferences (Traugott, as cited in Chou, 2000). The word *then* can be omitted without distorting the meaning of a conditional sentence.

There are four main conditional types that they differ distinctly from each other with respect to their time reference (present, past and future) and in relation with the actual world (factual, possible and counterfactual). It should be mentioned that each type of conditionals is functionally distinctive and distinguishable. The Present Factual expresses a true and unchanging relationship that is not bounded in time. A Future Predictive expresses future plans or contingencies. Present and Past Counterfactuals refer to impossibilities with reference to the present or the past (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman,1999).

Norris (2003) assumed that verb forms in conditional sentences often do not retain their normal references to time (p.43).Consider these examples:

(a) If it rains, we will stay at home.
(Future reference: it is only a prediction)
(b) If it rained, we would cancel the game.
(Present reference: But it is not raining / Future reference: Raining is not strongly negated; there is still a chance that it will rain.)
(c) If it was / were to rain, we would have to go inside.
(Future reference: But it is highly unlikely that it is going to rain.)
(d) If it had rained, they would all have got wet.
(Past reference: But it did not rain, so they did not get wet.)

Maule (1988) believes the simplistic approach of introducing only type 1, 2, and 3 conditionals does more harm than good. If students are taught only a few simplified forms, they will be

unequipped to encounter or express the variety of forms that exist in the English language. Ur (1989), in reply to Maule's (1988) article, says that she teaches the traditional three types because although they do form the minority in actual usage, they do "occur frequently enough to be considered useful" and because "they are difficult." Consequently, this study attempts to consider fundamental types of conditional sentences as below:

Zero Conditional: This conditional form is used to describe universal statements like facts, rules and certainties. In a zero conditional, both the condition and consequent clauses are in the simple present tense. An example of such sentences is: *If you heat water, it boils*.

First Conditional: Conditional sentences of this type are also called potential or indicative conditionals. They are used to express a hypothetical situation that is probably true, but the truth of which is unverified. In the first conditional, the condition is in the simple present tense, and the consequent can be either in past tense or present tense, usually with a modal auxiliary verb preceding the main verb, e.g., *If the acceleration is good, I will buy it.*

Second Conditional: This is usually used to describe less probable situations, for stating preferences and imaginary events. The condition clause of a second conditional sentence is in the past subjunctive (past tense), and the consequent clause contains a conditional verb modifier (like *would*, *should*, *might*), in addition to the main verb, e.g., *If the cell phone was robust, I would consider buying it.*

Third conditional: This is usually used to describe contrary-to-fact (impossible) past events. The past perfect tense is used in the condition clause, and the consequent clause is in the present perfect tense, e.g., *If I had bought the a767, I would have hated it.*

By the way, Ur (1989) explains that the conditional type 1 is not just non-past: the present tense after 'If' actually refers to the future and the past form in type 2 refers to unreal present or at least non-past time, and finally type 3 deals with past time. The students need to know about the oddities of these particular types of conditionals. Present factual and future predictive (conditionals zero and one conditionals) take fewer grammatical features than present counterfactual and past counterfactual (two and three conditionals). Apart from the various conditional forms, the second language learners have problems with the time-tense relationship with if-clause and main-clause. In a study, Covitt (as cited in Norris, 2003) proved that oversimplified explanations, form, meaning, and time-tense relationship are the serious problems relevant to learning the conditional sentences.

Likewise, Nayef and Hajjaj (1997) summarize three points in teaching conditionals: "forms of the verbs, the time reference of the verbs, and the meaning of the condition in each of the patterns"(p.140). They assert that in conditional sentences the agreement of the forms of the two verbs in the two clauses is the source of difficulty for the learners.

According to the study conducted by Ford and Thompson (1986), if-clauses account for nearly 80% of conditional sentences in their corpora, encompassing four functions in both oral and written discourses: offering options for future follow-up activities, introducing contrasts, providing examples for generalizations and making inferences. As social functions, initial if-clauses can also be used to give directives, speak humorously and sarcastically, and offer apologies, commands, advice, and instructions (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999). In spoken discourse, Ford (1997) examined conditionals and their functions based on 55 conditionals

from casual conversations of adult native speakers of English, coming up with several social discourse functions of conditionals:

1. Initial If-clauses may connect a comment to the statements said earlier, so it plays a connective role.
2. Conditionals introduce new understanding to the previously spoken stuff which focused on a single idea.
3. If-clauses usually moderate the tone of the message, moving it away from disagreement toward being less confrontational by using softening hypothetical information.
4. If-clauses usually express requests and suggestions rather than commands. They can be used after directives, proposals and offers to bring about effective actions. Conditional sentences can also express desirability. According to Mayes's (1994), findings, conditionals help us explore the relationship between language and the human mind reflecting the psychological thoughts and the state of the speaker (e.g., sorrow, regret, disbelief, cynicism).

Berent (1985) worked on the order of acquisition of conditionals to predict learners' difficulties. Two experiments were conducted to compare the production and comprehension of real, unreal, and past unreal (i.e., types 1, 2 and 3) conditional sentences for 55 advanced and low-advanced adult ESL learners. The findings showed that despite the complexity of structure in type 3, the learners had less difficulty in comprehension than in production.

Therefore, these theoretical and methodological problems show that instructors and learners are confronted with a problem in how to teach and learn conditionals properly and practicality. Thus, this intent study aims to reflect the efficiency of conversational shadowing in learning and teaching conditional sentences. In fact, Shadowing defines as the act or task of listening in which the learner tracks heard speech and vocalize it as clearly as possible, while listening attentively to the incoming information (Tamai, 1997). Learners repeat what they hear after a brief time to shadow and monitor what they shadow simultaneously. This process engages not only the language areas but various other large portions of listener's brain (Kadota, 2007). Shadowing trains the rehearsing process, allowing them to hold the phonological information longer in the phonological loop (Kadota, 2007).

The effectiveness of shadowing in classrooms has been investigated throughout the field on second language acquisition (Kuramoto & Matsuura, 2002), Lambert (1992), Murphey (2001), Mochizuki (2006), Toda and Liu (2007), Tamai, (1992, 1997, 2001, 2005), Suzuki (2007). For example, Tamai (1997) compared shadowing and dictation, and concluded shadowing improved learners' listening proficiency faster than dictation.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
-To what extent does teaching through conversational shadowing improve the language learners' performance in term of using conditional sentences?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
The participants of this study were 60 English learners from five intact classes in one language institute whose English knowledge was determined to be at the intermediate level based on the placement test given to them by the institute. However, in order to make sure that the participants were at the intermediate level prior to the main data collection, a Nelson proficiency test was given to them. After the scores were obtained, 30 0f them whose scores were one standard deviation above or below the mean were selected as intermediate level.

Instrument
The first instrument of this study was a proficiency test that was used to confirm that there was no significant difference between the language knowledge of the selected group as participants. The designed test consisted of three sections: grammar, vocabulary, and reading comprehension questions (10 multiple choice items in each section). Before administrating the proficiency designed test, it was piloted with another group of learners in another language institute to assure its reliability ($r = 0.80$).

The second instrument was a 30-item proficiency test in the form of multiple-choice questions was used to check the learners' knowledge of the use of English conditional sentences, which was administered to the participants after the treatment. It worth mentioning that an item analysis was done and some items were modified, deleted, or replaced by some new ones. Its face and content validity was proven through the expert opinion of the supervisor and English instructors and for ensuring that the post-test is reliable, we used Cronbach's Alpha reliability that its reliability was significantly high and equaled to 0.88.

Procedure
To achieve the objectives of the study, the following processes were done:

Pre test
In order to check the homogeneity of the selected group as participants of this study a proficiency test (Nelson) was administered and the results showed that participants were homogeneous in terms of their language proficiency.

Treatment
Based on conversational shadowing as teaching method, a lot of conversations in the form of English conditionals were taught in the classroom context. In fact, conversational shadowing makes an opportunity for learners by exposing to a lot of conversations as ESL context and engaging them actively in conversation. Interactive shadowing, which includes selective shadowing, adds questions and comments from the listener into the conversation making it more natural and showing more involvement on the part of the listener (Murphey, 2001).

Post test
When the treatment was over, a proficiency test was administered to assess the participants' knowledge on the four types of conditional sentences. The purpose was to examine whether there has been any significant difference in the scores of the learners after the treatment.

RESULTS

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

The Nelson test, pre- and post-test were piloted for four types of conditional sentences in order to reflect the purpose of this paper, which is to investigate the effect of conversational shadowing on enhancing learner oral performance in terms of the use of conditionals.

In order to ensure the reliability of the pre-test and post-test, we used Cronbach's Alpha reliability. According this test, pre-test reliability was 0.80 and post-test reliability was 0.88, which highly significant.

Table1: Reliability Statistics (pre-test)

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.806	30

Table2: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.881	30

The process of data analysis began with analyzing the data obtained from pre and post-tests. A paired sample t-test was run to compare the scores on pre-zero conditional to post-zero conditional session in order to show the efficiency use of conversational shadowing on teaching conditionals. As displayed in Table 3 the mean scores for pre-test and post-test of conditionals through conversational shadowing are 3.60 and 4.87 respectively but their correlation is .006 and low.

Table3: Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pre-zero conditional	3.60	30	1.545	.282
	Post-zero conditional	4.87	30	1.525	.278

Table4: Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Pre zero conditional & Post zero conditional	30	.006	.976

The results of the paired sample t-test of zero-conditional (T-value= 3.205, P-value= 003<.05) revealed a significant difference from pre-zero conditional to post-zero conditional session. Thus, it can be concluded that the conversational shadowing method has positive impact on teaching and learning zero-conditional.

Table5. Paired Samples Test

			Paired Differences						
				Std. Err	95% Confidenc Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Devia	Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Pair 1	Pre zero conditional - Post zero conditional	-1.26	2.164	.395	-2.07	-.458	-3.205	29	.003
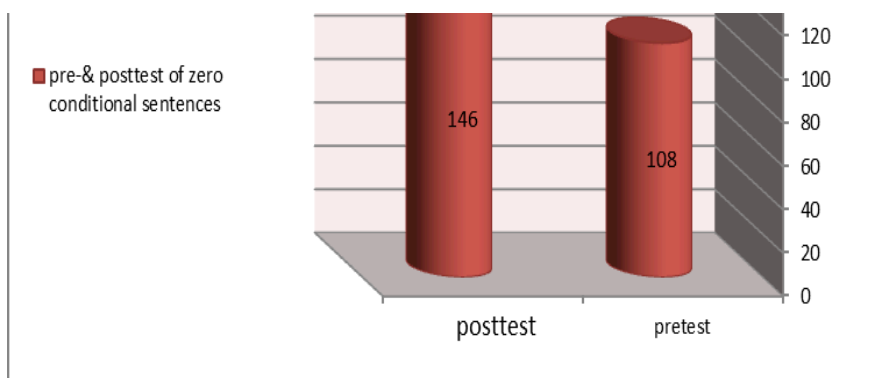
Figure1:The comparison between pre-& posttest of zero-conditional sentences

For answering the research questions raised before, data were analyzed and the following tables were elicited. From Table 7, paired sample t-test revealed a significant difference from pre-first conditional to post-first conditional session, where T-value=2.188 and P-value=.009<.05). In table 8 we showed mean of pre-test (=5.73) and post-test (=4.50). Their correlation is .284.

It should be mentioned that the comparison between pre-& posttest of first conditional sentences shows the efficiency of conversational shadowing method on teaching and learning conditionals.

Table 6: Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 2	Pre-first conditional	4.50	30	2.097	.383
	Post-first conditional	5.73	30	1.911	.349

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

Table 7: Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 2	Pre-first conditional & Post first conditional	30	.284	.128

Table 8: Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 2 Pre-first conditional - Post-first conditional	-1.233	2.402	.439	-2.130	-.336	-2.812	29	.009
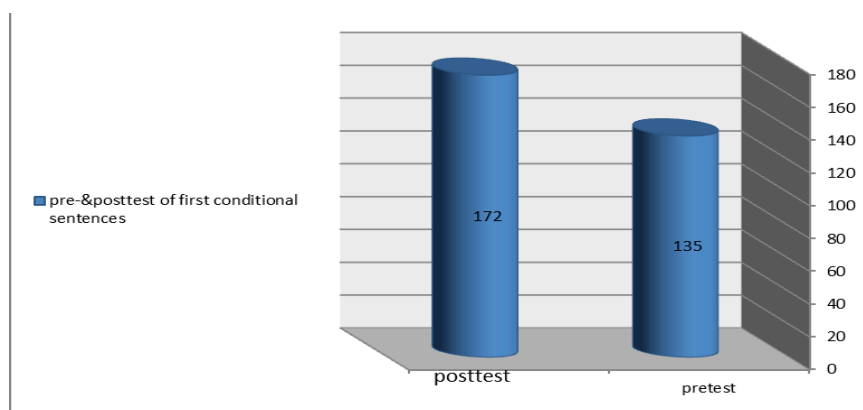
Figure 2: The comparison between pre-& posttest of first conditional sentences

In order to answer the research question raised before, data were analyzed and the following tables were elicited. From Table 11, paired sample t-test revealed a significant difference from pre-second conditional to post-second conditional session, where T-value=5.253 and P-value=.028<.05. In table 9 we showed mean of pretest (=6.50) and post-test (=4.57). Their correlation is .401.

IJLLALW

Table 9: Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 3	Pre- second conditional	4.57	30	1.977	.361
	Post-second conditional	6.50	30	1.676	.306

Table 10: Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 3	Pre-second conditional & Post-second conditional	30	.401	.028

Table 11: Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences								
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Devia	Std. Erro Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 3	Pre- second conditional sPost-second conditional	-1.933	2.016	.368	-2.686	-1.181	-5.253	29	.000
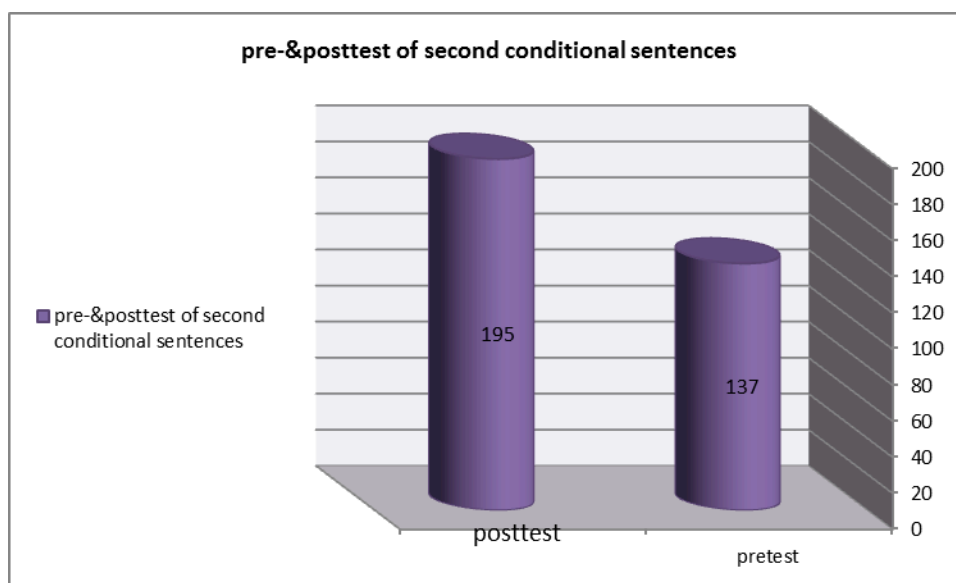
Figure 3: The comparison between pre-& posttest of second conditional sentences

From Table 13, paired sample t-test reveal a significant difference from pre-third conditional to post-third conditional session, because T-value=1.233 and P-value=.231(>.05). In table 11 we showed mean of pretest (=5.20) and posttest (=4.70). Their correlation is .081.

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013 **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org **ISSN: 2289-3245**

Table 12: Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 4	Pre third conditional	4.70	30	1.878	.343
	Post third conditional	5.20	30	1.972	.360

Table 13: Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 4	Pre third conditional & Post third conditional	30	.324	.081

Table 14: Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences							
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	d	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 4	Pre third conditional- Post third conditional	-.500	2.240	.409	-1.336	.336	-1.223	29	.231

Figure 4: The comparison between pre-& posttest of third conditional sentences

IJLLALW

DISCUSSION
As it can be deduced from the above-mentioned data, the post-test group which was being taught four type conditional sentences through using conversational shadowing has performed better. Thus, it can be concluded that the treatment (taught through conversational shadowing) was effective method. The finding of the study answered the research questions by improving conversational shadowing in teaching and learning procedure. In fact, conversational shadowing make sufficient environment in which learners exposed to the different types of conditional sentences as ESL contexts where English is spoken as the media of daily communication or education. All the details related to the results of pre-test and post-test proved the effectiveness using conversational shadowing in teaching and learning.

CONCLUSION
This paper, by elaborating the impede issues involved in the teaching and learning English conditionals, was provided to consider that conversational shadowing as an method has positive eff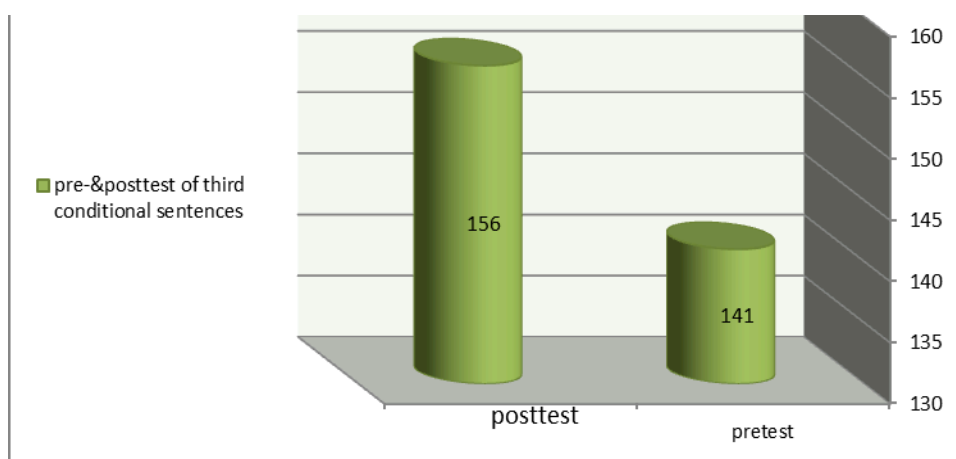ect on enhancing learners' oral performance in terms of the use of relative clause. The results reflected an insight that conversational shadowing supports learning of learners. The findings provided some pedagogical implications for teaching conditionals in developing and improving conversational shadowing. In real, conversational shadowing, as an important second language teaching method in the field of language teaching has tangible effect on learners' performance by engaging them in their own learning.

LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH
Like any other research, this study may be confronted with some unavoidable limitations:
1-Regarding to limitation of time, the current study was performed during a semester
 2-The findings of this study cannot be generalized to other groups due to the small sample size
 3-Affective independent variables such as age and personal variables are not taken into account due to the limited number of the available participants
 4-Limited this study to learners from intermediate level of education and to only one English structure

It would be worthwhile to replicate this study with bigger sample of participants include learners from different levels of education and from different social groups with longer-term research design for improving external validity and generalizability of this research.
This study only investigated the impact of conversational shadowing on oral performance of conditional sentences therefore; other studies can focus on the impacts of conversational shadowing on other skills including listening, reading and writing and other English structures.

REFERENCES
Beck, S. (1997). On the semantics of comparative conditionals. *Linguistics and Philosophy*, *20(3)*, 229-271.
Berent, G. P. (1985). Markedness considerations in the acquisition of conditional sentences. *Language Learning, 35(3)*, 337-372.
Bloomfield, L. (1995). *Language*. Jakarta: Gramedia.
Celce-Murcia, M. & Larsen-Freeman, D. (1999). *The grammar book: An ESL/EFL teacher's course (2nd ed)*. New York: Heinle and Heinle.

Chou, Ch. L. (2000). Chinese speakers' acquisition of English conditionals: Acquisition order and L1 transfer effects. *Second Language Studies*, *19(1)*, 57-98.

Covitt, R.I. (1976). *Some problematic grammar areas for ESL teache*rs. M.A. thesis in TESL, UCLA.

Cuvalay-Haak, M. (1996). *The Arabic verb-A functional grammar approach to verbal expressions in classical and modern Arabic*. University of Amsterdam.

Dik, S. C. (1990). *How to build a natural language user*. In: M. Hannay & E. Vester (Eds.), Working with Functional Grammar*:* Descriptive and Computational Applications (pp. 203-215). Dordrecht and Providence RI, Foris.

Fintel, K. (1997). *The presupposition of subjunctive conditionals*. In O. Percus & U. Sauerland (Eds.), The interpretive tract (MIT working papers in linguistics 25), (pp. 29-44). Cambridge: MIT Working Papers in Linguistics.

Ford, C. E., & Thompson, S. A. (1986). *Conditionals in discourse: A text-based study from English*. In E. Trangott, et al. (Eds.), On Conditionals, (pp. 353-372). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ford, C. E. (1997). *Speaking conditionally: Some contexts of if-clauses in conversation*. In A. Athanasiadou, & R. Dirven (Eds.), On Conditionals Again (pp. 387-413). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Hall, J. E. (1993). *Grammar for use*. Jakarta: Bina Rupa Aksara.

Kadota, S. (2007). *Science of shadowing and oral reading*. Tokyo: Cosmopier.

Kuramoto, A. & Matsuura, Y. (2002). The effects of oral reading-while-listening on listening comprehension.『視聴覚教育』, *23(1),* 関西大学外国語研究機構.

Lambert, S. (1992). Shadowing. *Méta*, *37*(2), 263-273.

Li, B. (1995). *Counterfactual sentences in Chinese and the Interpretation of their counter factuality*. M.A. Thesis in Michigan State University.

Maule, D. (1988). Sorry, but if he comes, I go: Teaching conditionals. *ELT Journal, 42(2)*, 117-123.

Mayes, P. (1994). Conditionals and the logic of desirability: An interview with Noriko Akatsuka. *Issues in Applied Linguistics, 5(2)*, 449-461.

Mochizuki, M. (2006). Nihongo shido ni okerun shadowing no yukosei [Exploring the application of shadowing to Japanese education]. *Shichokaku Kyoiku* [*Audio-Visual Education*] *6*, 37-53.

Murphey, T. (2001). Exploring conversational shadowing. *Language Teaching Research*, *5(2)*, 128-155.

Nayef, K., & Hajjaj, A. (1997). *Errors in English among Arabic speakers: Analysis and remedy*. Beirut, Lebanon: York Press and Librainie du Liban.

Norris, R. W. (2003). How do we overcome the difficulties of teaching conditionals? *Bullentin of Fukuoka International University, 9*, 39-50.

Suzuki, K. (2007). Shadoing wo moichita Eigo choryoku kojo no shido ni tuite no kensho [Investigation on the instruction for listening comprehension through shadowing]. *STEP Bulletin, 19,* 112-124.

Tamai, K. (1992). *The effect of "shadowing" on listening comprehension*. M.A. thesis, School of International Training, Brattleboro, Vermont.

Tamai, K. (1997). Shadowing no koka to chokai process niokeru ichizuke. [The effectiveness of shadowing and listening process]. *Current English Studies, 36,* 105-116.

IJLLALW

Tamai, K. (2005). *Listening shidoho to shite no shadowing no koka ni kansuru kenkyu* [*Research on the effect of shadowing as a listening instruction metho*d]. Tokyo: Kazama.

Toda, T., & Liu, J. (2007). Shadoingukosu kaisetsu ni mukete no kisokenkyu [Basic research for the establishment of a shadowing course]. *Nihongo Kyoiku Hoho Kenkyukaishi* [*Japanese language education methods*]*, 14(1),* 8-9.

Traugott, E. C., Meulen, A., Reilly, J. S., & Ferguson, C. A. (1986). *Conditionals: A typology*. In E. C. Traugott, A. Meulen, J. S. Reilly, & C. A. Ferguson (Eds.), On conditionals (pp. 77-99). Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Traugott, E. C., Meulen, A., Reilly, J. S., & Ferguson, C. A. (2009) *On conditionals*. Cambridge University Press.

Ur, P. (1989). Letter in response to Maule. *ELT Journal, 43(1)*, 73-74.

Werth, P. (1992). The English conditional: tense, aspect or mood? In R. Tracy (Ed.), Who Climbs the Grammar Tree? (pp.307-336). Tübingen: Max Niemeyer Verlag.

Zhang, B. (2005). *A study of the acquisition of English If-conditional sentences by Chinese learners*. M.A. Thesis. PLA University.

BIODATA:

TAHER BAHRANI is a Ph.D. holder in TEFL. He has published 4 ISI-indexed papers and many peer-reviewed ones. His field of interest is mainly related to the use of technology and second language acquisition. He has recently been selected as the international examiner for an M.A thesis from the University of Newcastle, Australia (2013).

Marziyeh Nekoueizadeh is Adjunct Professor of TEFL at Islamic Azad University. She has published several papers in international academic journals. She is as editorial member of some journals. She is specifically interested in research areas related to use of technology and learning styles.

THE OBSTACLES ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF WEB-BASED TRAINING IN THE AGRICULTURAL HIGHER EDUCATION: FACULTY MEMBERS' PERSPECTIVE

Heshmatollah Saadi
Ph.D., Agricultural Extension and Education Dept., Buali Sina University, Hamedan, Iran
[hsaadi48@yahoo.com]

Khalil Mirzayi (Corresponding Author)
MS, Agricultural Extension and Education Dept., Buali Sina University, Hamedan, Iran
[khalilmirzayi@yahoo.com]

Reza Movahedi
Ph.D., Agricultural Education Dept., Buali Sina University, Hamedan, Iran
[r.movahedi@basu.ac.ir]

ABSTRACT
Recently, higher education systems seek to use network-based and Internet-based information technologies in education, teaching and learning. This type of education is presented through electronic means such as the Internet, intranet, extranet, and hypertext. Although e-learning has been increasingly accepted in developed countries, in developing countries there are still many obstacles for web-based training. E-learning in Iran higher education system has been started since 2003, however, its development has been very slow. The present study is a survey research. The participants of the study are faculty members, graduates and PhD students in Agriculture in Bu Ali Sina University. Total number of participants were analyzed. The accuracy of indicators and items in the questionnaire (Face Validity) has been confirmed by specialists. A questionnaire was used to collect data. Reliability was calculated by using Cronbach Alpha. In this study, Factor analysis is used to achieve the key factors. The results show that deficiency of executives, Lack of learners' motivation, infrastructural barriers, restriction of credit, and software and hardware limitations are the main problems in the development of web-based training. At the end of the article, some recommendations are presented aiming to accelerate electronic training in Iran's higher education system.

KEY WORDS: Higher Education, Faculty of Agriculture, E-Learning, Web, Iran

INTRODUCTION

Electronic learning, another term for distance learning, is any learning system where teaching behaviors are separated from learning behaviors. The learner works alone or in a group, whom is guided by study material arranged by the instructor in a location apart from students. Students have the opportunity to communicate with an instructor with the aid of a range of media (such as text, telephone, audio, video, computing and Internet technology, etc). Electronic learning may be

IJLLALW

combined with various forms of face-to-face meetings.

These guidelines define distance learning as all learning situations where learners and instructors are not together as they would be in a traditional setting. Thus, distance learning can occur in many configurations. It can be synchronous (instruction delivered and received simultaneously), or it may be asynchronous (instruction delivered and received at different times). Students may receive distance learning privately, or they may gather in groups/classes to receive it.

Electronic learning, also is named distance learning, has become a pervasive and growing phenomenon. Innovative uses of technologies create more effective techniques to distribute learning in non-traditional ways. As a result, new organizational structures and learning arrangements are appearing throughout higher education. Many traditional institutions have added distance learning programs. Educators are forming new institutions that deliver distance learning exclusively. Academic institutions and corporations are combining resources to bring electronic learning to workplaces. Academic institutions are pooling course offerings through distance learning so students have opportunities to create a degree program that uses course offerings from multiple schools. All of these emerging delivery structures bring questions about the quality of the education being delivered.

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).

These guidelines highlight quality issues specific to distance learning. Since electronic learning has become more prevalent, it is difficult to distinguish it from campus-based learning. Remote access to learning materials, databases and libraries, electronic communication, computer-connected workgroups, archived lectures, and other features of distance learning increasingly are used in campus-based instruction.

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).

Accordingly, the Educational Management Information System and simulated period are all aspects of electronic learning. So, the most comprehensive definition of e-learning can be provided is: The use of information technology to manage, design, present, select, communicate, navigate, guide, support and develop learning (Beneke, 2001). E-learning is any targeted web-based technology program to teaching people by which we can learn any interesting thing anytime and anywhere. E-learning is the confluence of distance education, computer-based training and Internet technologies. Since 1998 that Web Pages Show was developed, this type of training improved much (Beneke, 2001).

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).

Greater numbers of students on traditional campuses encounter and choose non-traditional learning methods. "Technology-delivered education" often describes learning on today's campus, as well as distance learning. Therefore, many of those issues are relevant for technology-delivered education of all sorts, whether or not it is distance learning.

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).

Virtual education system is not limited to any specified courses, expertise, time and age and due to extent of their activity can activate training in all stages and levels. This is why it is not limited by space and time and can invited all those interested in learning to the options easier than ever in education, public institutions, universities and industry. This type of training has been welcomed not only in formal education, but also in all institutions requiring education (Mayer, 2005).

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).

E-learning is raised as an alternative way to enhance the traditional training approach and in this learning type more varied experiences are given to students and more teaching facilities are provided for faculty members (Wilson, 2003). 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.

Electronic learning is as an individual patient education in which learners are able to achieve educational goals due to their talents. In fact, they learn how to learn that one of its educational goals (Hewitt-Taylor, 2003). E-learning should be considered as a method for providing more flexible learning and creating more opportunities for students which facilitates tracking progress for learners and their activities and it can provide an opportunity creating new effective learning environments (Yaghoubi, 1391).

ICT can serve as a tools for designing new learning environments (Donovan & Nakhleh, 2001),

IJLLALW

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.

Because enabling technologies present many opportunities as well as challenges in the realizing of e-learning, it is imperative that educators and institutions planning to embark on the development of e-learning systems, have a clear and accurate understanding of the capabilities, limitations and influences of these technologies (Cloete, 2000). Creative approaches and competent strategies to manage these limitations at the instructional design, the user levels as well as integration to other systems, need to be established and understood in order to ensure a degree of quality comparable to that of traditional learning. Without the integration of well-established methods and techniques, many of the e-learning efforts may be futile, leaving frustrated facilitators and badly educated students in their make (Cloete, 1999).

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).

Faculty resources and faculty management should be consistent with the school's stated mission. A mission-directed commitment to distance learning may require the addition of new faculty with the requisite skills and experience. Whether through the hiring of new faculty or through developing extant faculty, distance learning technologies and pedagogies must be incorporated into the institution's capabilities.

Gaining faculty commitment is vital to successful implementation of a program. It often is helpful to begin with the involvement and development of a small cadre of faculty who are highly respected by their peers. These early-entry faculty members then can become resources to assist the development of additional faculty.
The roles faculty will perform should be determined first. Individual faculty members may have roles that are different from, and more specific than, their traditional, on-campus roles. In some cases, distance learning providers have unbundled the traditional faculty role to create specialists in such tasks as creation of course goals and structure, creation of learning materials and experiences, delivery of instruction, or learning assessment. When such unbundling occurs, appropriate faculty management processes must be put in place, including processes that help people in these separate roles to interact with each other. Faculty management must be tailored to the specific performance demands of learning situations, pedagogy, technology, institutional culture, etc.

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

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.

Implementing distance learning programs requires new technical and pedagogical skills. The school must provide resources to expand and develop these skills in the faculty. Distance learning demands on faculty in terms of planning and administrative assignments also may differ from traditional practice. Distance learning modules may not fit neatly into standard units the institution uses to manage faculty workloads and assignments. The school's reward system should recognize the demands placed upon the faculty involved in distance learning activities.

The faculty's composition and qualifications are essential components to creating high-quality distance learning programs. The school's faculty should understand and embrace the change from a teaching-centered to a learning-centered environment; with learners, rather than students, and with facilitators and designers of learning experiences, rather than teachers. The former concentrates on achievement of learning goals and seeks the most effective means to accomplish them. The latter focuses on the organization and delivery of information.

Reporting on successful initiatives and interventions is common, often alongside obstacles and problems that must be 'overcome' in order to expand access or enhance the adoption of ICTs (Banwell et al., 2004; Dexter, Seashore, & Anderson, 2002; Duggleby et al., 2004; Granger et al., 2002; Hennessy, Ruthven, & Brindley, 2005; McCarney, 2004; Rogers, 2000; Ruthven et al., 2005). Rarely front-and-center is that ICTs in education might create the conditions of possibility for the expansion of existing problems, or for the development of entirely new challenges in the work–life of university educators. As noted by Nichol, Watson, and Waites (2003) in their editorial introduction to their special issue of the British Journal of Educational Technology, there is a significant gap between the ''optimistic rhetoric'' that dominates discussion about ICTs in education, and the rather more problematic reality (see also Reynolds, Treharne, & Tripp, 2003). This led to the central issue addressed here, namely what experiences and impacts do ''Teaching Assistants'' report with regard to email in the context of their work at the university?

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, and Warshaw (1992); Finneran and Zhang (2005) and Sanchez-Franco and Roldan (2005) for a review).

Other limitations in the use of computers in Iran higher education are: lack of proper understanding of virtual learning environments, lack of proper infrastructure and telecommunication, lack of enough bandwidth to transmit and receive information. Moniee (2004) in his article argued that system of supply and demand for higher education still does not have an accurate understanding of virtual spaces and it is not well acquainted with the features and functions; and, basic IT skills are not still well known (Moniee, 2004). In this system, the success of learner is associated with technical skills in the use of computers and networks (Shuster, 2003).

Distance learning requires significant financial resources for technology and support. Faculty members and administrators require assistance to manage the logistics of distance learning and support systems must be developed for the distance learning delivery system. An integrated team of computer service technicians, counselors, site administrators, distribution clerks and information resource (library) personnel should support distance learning faculty. The magnitude of these costs often is underestimated by people initiating distance learning programs. There is a significant relationship between attitude and familiarity, and knowledge of the use of information technology. It is believed that proficiency in Internet services, and researchers' attitudes toward distance learning through the Internet causes this type of education to be highly appreciated. It is stated that the most important students' problems to access to information resources are lack of library with the relevant information and not having enough time for extra reading. Therefore, the barriers to the development of web-based education in third world countries can be found in Table 1.

Table 1: Influencing factors of the barriers and limitations in the creation, implementation and development of e-learning

Influencing factors of the barriers and limitations in the creation, implementation and development of e-learning	Author/organization and the date of studies	Results of the study
Barriers, constrains and issues (Technical, human, educational, cultural, infrastructure, credit, pedagogical, social and executive)	Sadri Arhami (1382)	Technical, infrastructure and executive limitations
	Salajeghe (1377)	Technical limitations and telecommunication barriers
	Musa Khani (1380)	Technical limitations and telecommunication barriers
	Chizari (1380)	Technical limitations and telecommunication barriers
	Ghaedi et al (1382)	Technical limitations and telecommunication barriers
	Howard (2008)	telecommunication barriers
	Cahill (2008)	Credit constraints
	Caponen (2008)	Human, Cultural and social constraints
	Salim (2007)	Technical and infrastructure limitations
	Barak and Rafaeli (2003)	Cultural and educational constraints
Barriers, constrains and issues (Technical, human, educational, cultural,	Light et al (2000)	Cultural and educational constraints
	Ward (1998)	Cultural and educational constraints
	Venkatesh (2000)	Cultural constraints

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

	Davis et al (2000)	Cultural constraints
infrastructure, credit, pedagogical, social and executive)	Fineran and Zhang (2005)	Cultural constraints
	Sanchez Francho (2004)	Cultural constraints
	Hinmann (2003)	Technical limitations
	Farahani (1380)	Technical and infrastructure limitations
	Panitz (2008)	Credit constraints
	Chao (2010)	Cultural and motivational constraints
	Li (2007)	Cultural constraints
	Gamble (2009)	Cultural constraints
	Freisen (2006)	Executive, educational, human and technical limitations
	Oliver (2001)	The educational and executive limitations
	Soltani (1383)	human limitations
	Naghavi (1386)	human limitations
	Yaghubi (1387)	Technical and educational limitations
	Mohamadi (1388)	Technical and infrastructural constraints
	Martines (1997)	Technical and infrastructural constraints
	Ozkan (2009)	The educational and executive constraints
	Galanouli (2009)	The educational and executive constraints
	Jara (2008)	The educational and executive constraints
	Mc Donald (2003)	The educational and executive constraints
Barriers, constrains and issues (Technical, human, educational, cultural, infrastructure, credit, pedagogical, social and executive)	Albarini (2009)	Cultural constraints
	Chang (2002)	Cultural constraints
	Razzaghi (1385)	Executive, credit, infrastructure, technical limitations and pedagogical challenges
	Salim Abadi (1385)	The educational, credit, infrastructure, cultural and technical limitations
	Jafari (1386)	Technical and infrastructural constraints
	Jokar (1386)	Technical and educational limitations
	Lynch (1999)	human limitations
	Sepehri (1389)	Executive, credit, infrastructure, cultural, educational and technical limitations
	Bagheri Majd (1391)	Pedagogical barriers of education
	Razzaghi (1385)	Technical and infrastructural constraints
	Jahangard (1382)	Executive, credit, infrastructure, technical limitations and pedagogical challenges
	Lorgani (1387)	Executive, credit, infrastructure, cultural and technical limitations
Barriers, constrains and issues (Technical, human, educational, cultural, infrastructure, credit, pedagogical, social and executive)	Shea (2005)	Executive, credit, infrastructure and political constraints
	Anstead (2005)	Executive, educational, infrastructure, cultural, motivational and technical limitations
	Kramer (2000)	Technical limitations
	Anstead et al (2008)	The educational limitations
	Gulati (2008)	Executive, educational, infrastructure, cultural, motivational and technical limitations
	Hitz (1995)	Technical limitations

269

IJLLALW

	Gholozade (1385)	human and Credit constraints
	Fazeli (1383)	Lack of enough funds
	Feizi (1386)	Issues of Iran telecommunications infrastructures
	Rose (2001)	Technical and executive limitations
	Sharma (2001)	Technical, infrastructure and credit limitations
	Zhang et al (1999)	Technical, infrastructure and credit limitations
	Wilson and More (2005)	Technical, infrastructure and credit limitations
	Murphy and Dooley (2000)	Technical, infrastructure and credit limitations
	Grant (2004)	Technical, infrastructure and credit limitations
	Kurtus (2004)	Cultural and social constraints
	Beneke (2001)	Cultural and social constraints
	Alston et al (2003)	The educational limitations
	Kelsey (2005)	The educational limitations
	Dilon and Walsh (1992)	The educational limitations
	Sung et al (2004)	human and educational limitations
	Liblian (2004)	human and educational limitations
	Wilson (2003)	The educational limitations
	El-Deghaidy and Duby (2008)	Technical and credit constraints
	Amhug (2009)	Technical and credit constraints
	So and Brush (2008)	Technical and credit constraints
	Willer (2008)	Technical and credit constraints
	Rezaee (1388)	Technical, infrastructure, credit and executive
	Arbaugh (2002)	Technical and infrastructural constraints
	Sharma (2004)	executive and educational limitations
	Siritongthaworn (2006)	Technical and educational limitations
	Granger (2001)	Teaching-learning and pedagogical barriers
	Hoseini (2007)	Teaching-learning and pedagogical barriers
	Marbakh (2001)	Teaching-learning and pedagogical barriers
	Marbakh (2002)	Teaching-learning and pedagogical barriers
Barriers, constrains and issues (Technical, human, educational, cultural, infrastructure, credit, pedagogical, social and executive)	Mazolini and Madison (2004)	Teaching-learning and pedagogical barriers
	Ruthven et al (2005)	Teaching-learning and pedagogical barriers
	Donovan and Nakhleh (2001)	Technical and executive limitations
	Dori et al (2003)	Technical and executive limitations
	Gordin (1997)	Technical and executive limitations
	Rafaeli (2004)	Technical and executive limitations
	Gilbert (2007)	Credit and economic constraints
	Hew and Chung (2008)	cultural and motivational limitations
	Hyeoncheol and Injin (2007)	Technical and motivational limitations
	Inoue (2007)	Technical and motivational limitations
	Doris (2010)	Technical and motivational limitations

In the educational system of Iran, the use of ICT to increase the access to learning is one of the changes that is slowly being created. Nowadays, despite many problems e-learning is increasingly growing in Iran, and every year more and more universities are taking advantage of these methods in education and teaching. In 1382, the first web-based training began at Shiraz University for some engineering majors. Subsequently, some of the top universities decided to

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

hold their e-learning courses. We can say that there is a growing wave of e-learning is shaping; and, it seems that in the next few years some courses will be offered through e-learning. Present study analyzes the problems of web-based training in agricultural colleges of Iran. This study has three purposes:

1 - Identification of different (technical, human, administrative) barriers of development of e-learning in the College of Agriculture
2 – Identification of the different (technical, human, administrative) solutions of development of e-learning in the College of Agriculture
3 - Assessing the educational needs of students and teachers for the optimal use of e-learning in teaching and learning

METHODOLOGY
The present study is a survey research.

Participants
The participants of the study are faculty members, graduates and PhD students in Agriculture in Bu Ali Sina University. Total number of participants were analyzed. The University is located in West of Iran, in the province, and it is one of the oldest universities of Iran. The university currently has 13 colleges 56 Departments of Education 14,000 students and 424 Faculty members (University Website: http://www.basu.ac.ir). This university is ranked 12th in University Rankings of Iran. In this study, frequency, distribution and relationships among the variables are reviewed and evaluated by selecting and studying samples chosen from the community.

Research Instrument
A questionnaire was used to collect data; but beside it, interviews, observation and documentary studies have also been operated. The accuracy of indicators and items in the questionnaire (Face Validity) has been confirmed by specialists. To evaluate the reliability of the study, questionnaire was distributed among a number of training scholars and computer software experts and web scientists.

Data Analysis
The results were reviewed and Cronbach Alpha was obtained 0.78 which is an acceptable figure. Due to the nature of the research the data were described and analyzed. In describing the data, descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentage, median, mode, standard deviation, variance, means and other items were used. In the data analysis, factorial analysis was used to obtain the key factors. Furthermore, a number of hypotheses have been tested.

DATA DESCRIPTION
Based on the collected data, 74.6 percent of faculty members were male and the rest (25.4 %) were female. The mean age and SD was 39.06 years and 5.942, respectively. They are all instructing in different fields of agriculture. Also, 3.2 percent of the respondents are full professors, 12.7 percent of them are associate professors, 82.5 percent are assistant professor and

271

the rest (1.6 percent) are instructors. Note that they have the average of 7.43 years of teaching experience. Faculty members largely used computer in their house than university, workplace, college and the department. They had an average of 6 hours and 10 minutes per day of computer use. According to the results, only 33.3 percent of faculty members prefer to use the written and printed texts (books, reports, journals and magazines), and the rest (66.7 %) were interested in the use of electronic text (e-journals, CD, DVD, etc).

Table 2: Faculty members' familiarity with four language skills, Computer software, various programs internet and the level of internet access

	Familiarity with the four English language skills (percent)					
Four skills	**Very low**	**Low**	**moderate**	**high**	**Very high**	**Ordinal average**
Reading	0	3.2	23.8	39.7	33.3	4.03
Writing	0	7.9	41.3	44.4	6.3	3.49
Listening	3.2	15.9	44.4	31.7	4.8	3.19
Speaking	7.9	14.3	55.6	15.9	6.3	2.98
Computer software	**Faculty members' familiarity with each of the computer software**					
word processors such as Microsoft Word	0	1.6	11.1	46.0	41.3	4.27
Presentation program such as Corel Presentation and Power Point	1.6	4.8	11.1	49.2	33.3	4.08
Operating system software like Windows, Linux	7.9	7.9	34.9	31.7	17.5	3.43
Spreadsheet programs like Excel, Lotus, Pro, Quarto	14.3	15.9	33.3	27.0	9.5	3.02
Statistical software packages like Minitab, MSTAT, SAS, SPSS	11.1	28.6	23.8	33.3	3.2	2.89
Graphics software like AutoCAD, Corel, Photo Shop	14.3	41.3	27.0	12.7	4.8	2.52
Databases like Clipper, FaxPro, Access, Oracle	36.5	31.7	17.5	12.7	1.6	2.11
Various internet programs	**Faculty members' familiarity with each of the internet programs**					
E-Mail	0	4.8	9.5	30.2	55.6	4.37
WWW	3.2	4.8	20.6	38.1	33.3	3.94
Chat	20.6	19.0	20.6	27.0	12.7	2.92
FTP	28.6	25.4	23.8	17.5	4.8	2.44
Discussion Group	47.6	23.8	20.6	6.3	1.6	1.90
USENET	52.4	28.6	12.7	3.2	3.2	1.76
GOPHER	50.8	36.5	6.3	4.8	1.6	1.70
Location of student access to computers and the internet	**Faculty members' access to computers and the internet**					
House	1.6	6.3	14.3	22.2	55.6	4.24
university	4.8	6.3	22.2	41.3	25.4	3.76
Workplace	4.8	6.3	25.4	36.5	27.0	3.75
college	6.3	4.8	34.9	30.2	23.8	3.60
department	11.1	7.9	28.6	34.9	17.5	3.40

1= very low,   2 = low,   3 = moderate, 4 = high,   5 = very high

Knowledge of English language is a necessity factor for the use of the Web in education. Unfortunately, English language teaching in Iran is not favorable. Many faculty members are unable to take advantage of English sources. However, research findings show faculty members' reading skills is at upper intermediate level (4.03 out of 5), writing skill is moderate (3.49 out of

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

5), listening skill is moderate (3.19 out of 5) and speaking skill is poor (2.98 out of 5). The faculty members also participated in internet application courses. So that 20.6 % of the faculty members have passed training courses such ICDL, Catia, Minitab, Lingo, Photoshop, ARC, GIS, and PC user. Many faculty members in Iran are familiar enough with the software. Their highest rate of familiarity is with Microsoft Word (4.27 out of 5). Then, the faculty members are familiar with the following software respectively; software like Corel Presentation and Power Point (4.08 out of 5); operating systems like Windows and Linux (3.43 out of 5); statistical software packages such as Minitab, MSTAT, SAS and SPSS (3.02 out of 5); spreadsheet programs such as Excel, Lotus, Pro and Quatro (2.89 out of 5); graphics software such as AutoCAD, Corel and Photo Shop (2.52 out of 5); databases such as Clipper, FoxPro, Access and Oracle (2.11 out of 5). In fact, the faculty members in Iran have relative dominance to their required software. The results show that the faculty members use average of the Internet applications is at an acceptable level. Based on the average correlation, the faculty members make most use of the followings, respectively; E-Mail (4.37 out of 5); WWW (3.944 out of 5); Chat Programs (2.92 out of 5); FTP (2.44 out of 5); Discussion Group (1.90 out of 5); USENET (1.76 out of 5); and, GOPHER (1.70 out of 5). The results are shown in Table 2.

Barriers and restrictions of creation, operation and development of e-learning in the College of Agriculture

Table (3) shows the barriers and restrictions of creation, operation and development of e-learning in the College of Agriculture in Bu-Ali Sina University. However, the main problems and limitations of e-learning in Iran are: lack of technical and administrative support to maintain e-learning equipments (4.60 out of 5 0.133), old computer system (4.63 out of 5 and coefficient of variation = 0.136), inability of faculty to change the order of presentation of the course (4.38 out of 5 and coefficient of variation = 0.156), low ability of learners to perform individual operations which finally leads to spending more time with the faculty (4.30 out of 5 and coefficient of variation = 0.160), fluctuation in Internet speed and lack of real speed (3.95 out of 5 and coefficient of variation = 0.225). In the contrary, the following items are in the lowest priority: low speed internet and the actual bandwidth (ordinal average of 3.71 out of 5 and coefficient of variation of 0.319), lack of faculty access to individuals to solve problems in the field of e-learning (ordinal average of 3.17 out of 5 and coefficient of variation of 0.317), excessive dependence students' learning on computers and neglecting from teachers' guidance (ordinal average of 3.11 out of 5 and coefficient of variation of 0.323), limited access to computers and online communication with faculty members (ordinal average of 3.03 out of 5 and coefficient of variation of 0.435).

Table 3: Barriers and limitations in the creation, implementation and development of e-learning (Percent)

Num .	Item	mean	SD	CV	prior .
1	Lack of administrators attempt for culture-building in the field of e-learning	4.60	0.610	0.133	1
2	Old computer system	4.63	0.630	0.133	2
3	inability of faculty to change the order of presentation of the course	4.38	0.682	0.156	2
4	low ability of learners to perform individual operations which finally leads to spending more time with the faculty	0.430	0.687	0.160	3
5	fluctuation in Internet speed and lack of real speed	3.95	0.888	0.225	4
6	lack of giving priority to the e-learning in the comprehensive program of ICT development in the country	3.38	0.851	0.252	5
7	lack of coverage of optic fiber in the entire country	3.81	0.965	0.253	5
8	low potential for evaluating progress in learning courses	3.41	0.891	0.261	6
9	poor time management tools and planning for individual students	3.49	0.914	0.262	7
10	lack of attempt of administrators for culture-building in developing e-learning in the countries	3.52	0.948	0.262	8
11	low e-learning system for the continuity of learning activities by faculty members	3.57	0.946	0.265	9
12	lack of faculty interest for e-learning	3.65	0.970	0.266	10
13	the low proportion of structure with the needs of individuals or groups in the e-learning system	3.14	0.840	0.268	10
14	lack of funds for the development of e-learning in universities	3.57	0.962	0.269	11
15	low rates of encourage for e-learning system in the relationship between the learner and teacher	3.30	0.891	0.270	12
16	deficiency or absence of local manufacturing facilities, and components required for e-learning	3.22	0.870	0.270	13
17	lack of development of e-learning at high management level and those involved in educational planning	3.46	0.947	0.274	13
18	low e-learning system in terms of providing feedback by the faculty members	3.57	0.979	0.274	13
19	lack of experienced faculty on the e-learning and e-teaching units	3.44	0.947	0.275	14
20	high cost of setting up an educational technology equipment	3.37	0.938	0.278	15
21	lack of policy for the implementation and appropriate strategic management of the development of educational technology in universities	3.35	0936	0.279	15
22	lack of full cooperation of the Ministry of Science and the Ministry of Communications and Information Technology regarding the development of electronic learning	3.43	0.979	0.285	16
23	unfamiliarity of faculty with methods of communicating with students using e-learning	3.54	1.013	0.286	16
24	less compatibility applications with a network of e-learning	3.41	0.978	0.287	17
25	absence or lack of incentives for virtual teaching	3.27	0.937	0.287	18
26	possible limitations of laboratory sessions through e-learning	3.48	0.998	0.287	19
27	lack of necessary policy to certify or endorse the content, quality and structure of electronic courses in universities	3.41	0.978	0.287	20
28	unfamiliarity of planners and administrators with the concept of e-learning applications	3.48	1.014	0.291	21
29	lack of transparency in e -learning goals	3.54	1.029	0.291	22
30	high cost of the electronic library in the universities	3.40	1.009	0.297	23
31	the low level devices for e-learning system to express ideas for teachers and learners	3.27	0.971	0.297	23
32	lack of (user friendly) software and non-dynamic in the e-learning courses	3.25	0.967	0.298	24
33	high cost of Internet service	3.32	0.997	0.300	24
34	the low level of the learner or instructor permission to change the presentation of the course	3.29	0.991	0.301	25
35	lack of a comprehensive program for network security in e-learning	3.41	1.026	0.301	26
36	lack of enough training in the field of educational technology for the faculty	3.43	1.043	0.304	27
37	lack of investment and credit for the development of the needed infrastructure for e-learning	3.62	1.099	0.304	28
38	insufficient faculty expert regarding the new educational technologies	3.52	1.075	0.305	28
39	requiring a lot of time preparing the students	2.90	0.911	0.314	29
40	faculty resistance to change and their worries regarding electronic technology	3.37	1.067	0.317	30
41	the high costs preparation and production of material for the content of e-learning and	3.25	1.031	0.317	31

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

	updating them				
42	low speed internet and the actual bandwidth	3.71	1.184	0.319	31
43	stakeholders' opposition with e-learning methods	3.32	1.060	0.319	32
44	lack of faculty access to individuals to solve problems in the field of e-learning	3.17	1.025	0.323	33
45	excessive dependence students' learning on computers and neglecting from teachers' guidance	3.11	1.193	0.384	34
46	limited access to computers and online communication with faculty members	3.03	1.319	0.435	35

Factor analysis of barriers and constraints, operation and development of e-learning in the College of Agriculture

Due to the high number of obstacles and constraints and the need to reduce it to a few key factors, in the present study, the exploratory factorial analysis was used. In this method, the researchers have no prior plan to predict or identify the number and nature of hidden elements beyond the variables. So, the researchers assume that each variable can be covered with any other variable under a specific agent. Despite the strength of this technique for data analysis, it is not possible to use in any situation. Only the qualified data can be used for factorial analysis. KMO and Bartlett's test coefficient should be used for this purpose. If the value of KMO is greater than 0.5, certainly, factorial analysis can be used. In the present study, the coefficient of KMO is 0.710 that is an appropriate figure and Bartlett's test is significant at 99% level (sig = 0.000). (Table 6)

Table 4: The KMO coefficient and the Bartlett test for students

Test Name	Value
KMO	0.710
Bartlett	3.726
Sig	0.000

After ensuring the data is proper to perform the factorial analysis, the rotation varimax norm is used to achieve the significant factors. The extracted factors are indicated in table 5 Collectively, these factors explains 60.077 % of the variance related to affecting variables on the barriers and constraints on the development of e-learning in the College of Agriculture, Bu-Ali University. In simple terms, considering these seven factors could explain 60.077 percent of the effective factors in the creation of obstacles and limitations in the launch and development of e-learning in the department of Agriculture.

Table 5: The number of extracted factors with eigenvalues, percentage of variance and cumulative percentage

Number	Agent Name	Eigenvalue	Percent of the variance of Eigenvalue	cumulative percentage
1	Deficiency of executive factor	27.429	21.814	21.814
2	Credit constraints	38.923	10.254	32.068
3	infrastructure constraints	47.728	8.382	40450
4	Cultural constraints	52.325	6.266	46.716
5	The educational limitations	57.228	4.827	51.543
6	human limitations	60.623	4.705	56.248
7	Technical limitations	64.124	3.829	60.077

Loading status of factors is presented in table 6.

275

Table 6: Variables related to each of the factors influencing barriers of the development of e-learning and factor loadings obtained from the rotated matrix

Priority	Factors Name	Variables	Factor loading
1	Deficiency of executive factor	low potential for evaluating progress in learning courses	0.681
		low e-learning system for the continuity of learning activities by faculty members	0.536
		low e-learning system in terms of providing feedback by the faculty members	0.679
		the low level of the learner or instructor permission to change the presentation of the course	0.547
		low rates of encourage for e-learning system in the relationship between the learner and teacher	0.664
		lack of full cooperation of the Ministry of Science and the Ministry of Communications and Information Technology	0.573
		insufficient faculty expert regarding the new educational technologies	0.557
2	Credit constraints	the high costs preparation and production of material for the content of e-learning and updating them	0.732
		high cost of Internet service	0.710
		lack of funds for the development of e-learning in universities	0.750
		deficiency or absence of local manufacturing facilities, and components required for e-learning	0.836
3	Infrastructure barriers	limited access to computers and online communication with faculty members	0.554
		low speed internet and the actual bandwidth	0.797
		lack of coverage of optic fiber in the entire country	0.669
		fluctuation in Internet speed and lack of real speed	0.808
4	Cultural constraints	lack of development of e-learning at high management level and those involved in educational planning	0.545
		lack of necessary policy to certify or endorse the content, quality and structure of electronic courses in universities	0.662
		lack of giving priority to the e-learning in the comprehensive program of ICT development in the country	0.707
		lack of attempt of administrators for culture-building in developing e-learning in the countries	0.703
5	The educational limitations	lack of enough training in the field of educational technology for the faculty	0.545
		unfamiliarity of planners and administrators with the concept of e-learning applications	0.554
		stakeholders' opposition with e-learning methods	0.673
		unfamiliarity of faculty with methods of communicating with students using e-learning	0.677
6	human limitations	requiring a lot of time preparing the students	0.686
		faculty resistance to change and their worries regarding electronic technology	0.673
		lack of experienced faculty on the e-learning and e-teaching units	0.556
7	Technical limitations	lack of technical and administrative support to maintain e-learning equipments	0.591
		possible limitations of laboratory sessions through e-learning	0.515
		lack of policy for the implementation and appropriate strategic management of the development of educational technology in universities	0.507

As it can be seen, 7 key factors cause barriers and limitations in the development of e-learning in the College of Agriculture.

First factor (Deficiency of executives): This factor alone explains 21.814 percent of total variance of barriers and constraints in the implementation and development of e-learning in the College of Agriculture and it is the top priority. There are 7 factors with the loading factor greater than 0.5 which are presented below: low potential for evaluating progress in learning courses; low e-learning system for the continuity of learning activities by faculty members; low e-learning system in terms of providing feedback by the faculty members; the low level of the learner or

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

instructor permission to change the presentation of the course; low rates of encourage for e-learning system in the relationship between the learner and teacher; lack of full cooperation of the Ministry of Science and the Ministry of Communications and Information Technology regarding the development of electronic learning; and finally, insufficient faculty expert regarding the new educational technologies.

Second factor (Restriction of credit): This factor explains alone 10.254percent of total variance of barriers and constraints in the implementation and development of e-learning in the College of Agriculture and it is the second priority. There are 4 factors with the loading factor greater than 0.5 which are presented below: the high costs preparation and production of material for the content of e-learning and updating them; high cost of Internet service; lack of funds for the development of e-learning in universities; deficiency or absence of local manufacturing facilities, and components required for e-learning.

Third factor (infrastructural barriers): This factor explains alone 8.382 percent of total variance of barriers and constraints in the implementation and development of e-learning in the College of Agriculture and it is the third priority. There are 4 factors with the loading factor greater than 0.5 which are presented below: limited access to computers and online communication with faculty members; fluctuation in Internet speed and lack of real speed; lack of coverage of optic fiber in the entire country; low speed internet and the actual bandwidth.

Forth factor (cultural barriers): This factor explains alone 6.266 percent of total variance of barriers and constraints in the implementation and development of e-learning in the College of Agriculture and it is the forth priority. There are 4 factors with the loading factor greater than 0.5 which are presented below: lack of development of e-learning at high management level and those involved in educational planning; lack of necessary policy to certify or endorse the content, quality and structure of electronic courses in universities; lack of giving priority to the e-learning in the comprehensive program of ICT development in the country; lack of attempt of administrators for culture-building in developing e-learning in the countries.

Fifth factor (educational barriers): This factor explains alone 4.827 percent of total variance of barriers and constraints in the implementation and development of e-learning in the College of Agriculture and it is the fifth priority. There are 4 factors with the loading factor greater than 0.5 which are presented below: unfamiliarity of faculty with methods of communicating with students using e-learning; unfamiliarity of planners and administrators with the concept of e-learning applications; lack of enough training in the field of educational technology for the faculty; stakeholders' opposition with e-learning methods.

Sixth factor (human barriers): This factor explains alone 4.705 percent of total variance of barriers and constraints in the implementation and development of e-learning in the College of Agriculture and it is the sixth priority. There are 3 factors with the loading factor greater than 0.5 which are presented below: requiring a lot of time preparing the students; faculty resistance to change and their worries regarding electronic technology; lack of experienced faculty on the e-learning and e-teaching units.

Seventh factor (technical barriers): This factor explains alone 3.829 percent of total variance of barriers and constraints in the implementation and development of e-learning in the College of Agriculture and it is the seventh priority. There are 3 factors with the loading factor greater than 0.5 which are presented below: lack of technical and administrative support to maintain e-learning equipments; possible limitations of laboratory sessions through e-learning; lack of policy for the implementation and appropriate strategic management of the development of educational technology in universities.

As it can be seen, 7 key factors cause barriers and limitations in the development of e-learning in the College of Agriculture. These factors are depicted in figure 1. As the table shows, on the whole, 7 key barriers and constraints are effective in the implementation and development of e-learning in the College of Agriculture University of Bu Ali Sina University. These factors are shown in Figure 1.

CONCLUSION

New technologies have great potential to transform and shape teaching and learning activities to all higher education institutions and they provide tools to design modern scientific environments which it has never been possible before. For this reason, many universities in Iran want to set up e-courses using information technology capabilities in the form of e-learning or online learning. However, the review of literature shows that the development of e-learning in educational systems is faced with many problems which unfamiliarity of policymakers and educational planners with such problems can impose heavy costs on educational institutions.

This paper aims to familiarize planners, policy makers, students and faculty members with the e-learning issues in agricultural higher education. It was found that strengthening and developing telecommunication infrastructures in educational institutions and providing access to information networks in such institutions is one of the important steps in the development of e-learning; because effectiveness of e-learning depends on the reliability and accessibility of hardware and software. And, lack of good telecommunication infrastructures severely affects the relationship between the learner and the educational system. Therefore, funding for facilities and e-learning tools for universities is a serious necessity. Many researchers have cited lack of hardware and software as one of the major challenges in the development of e-learning (Anstead et al. 2004; Shea et al. 2005; Zhang et al. 2002; Usun, 2006).

Investments in human resources training and training of skilled manpower are another important issue in the development of e-learning. Because development of e-learning will fail without a skilled and capable workforce and resistance of traditional training will be increased and finally, the way of approaching information technology to higher education will be harder. In addition, the nature of academic courses must be considered carefully before e-learning implementation. E-learning cannot be replaced by traditional training. E-learning should be focused on courses and subjects that traditional education system is unable to respond to them. Finally, we can say that to overcome the barriers of e-learning development in universities and educational institutions a holistic and integrated approach is needed. The policies to orient and provide the necessary resources to facilitate the development of long process of e-learning should be determined.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

1. The users' skills and technical knowledge of the English language and mastering of software, hardware and networking are necessary factors for the development of web-based training in Iran. Before planning for the development of e-learning, students' familiarity and mastery of computer skills and attending in workshops will be indispensible.

2. Since the shortage of qualified, proficient and competent teachers and experts in the field of e-learning and electronic content production is obvious, it seems training interested teachers and experts is essential.

3. Now, software and educational content and material for the development of e-learning in many academic disciplines have not been developed yet. Necessary steps should be taken in this regard.

4. Based on the research findings, low speed and inappropriate connection are the main problems in the development of e-learning. Accordingly, improved communication infrastructures in Iran to increase internet speed are essential in Iran. Although effective actions have been done in this regard, it's not enough for the development of e-learning and investment is need.

5. In Iran, training the teachers for optimal use of e-learning software is a must. Many professors are both distrustful of e-learning and novice of the necessary software.

6. Given the practical nature of Agricultural fields, holding troubleshooting classes alongside electronic-training sessions is a necessity.

7. Strengthening the Internet Security Systems Network to increase safety and protect the content, material and tests is a necessity in the E-learning network. Currently, e-learning applications and software can easily be penetrated.

8. Currently, many of the students do not have access to high speed Internet at home. It is necessary to provide facilities to access electronic education.
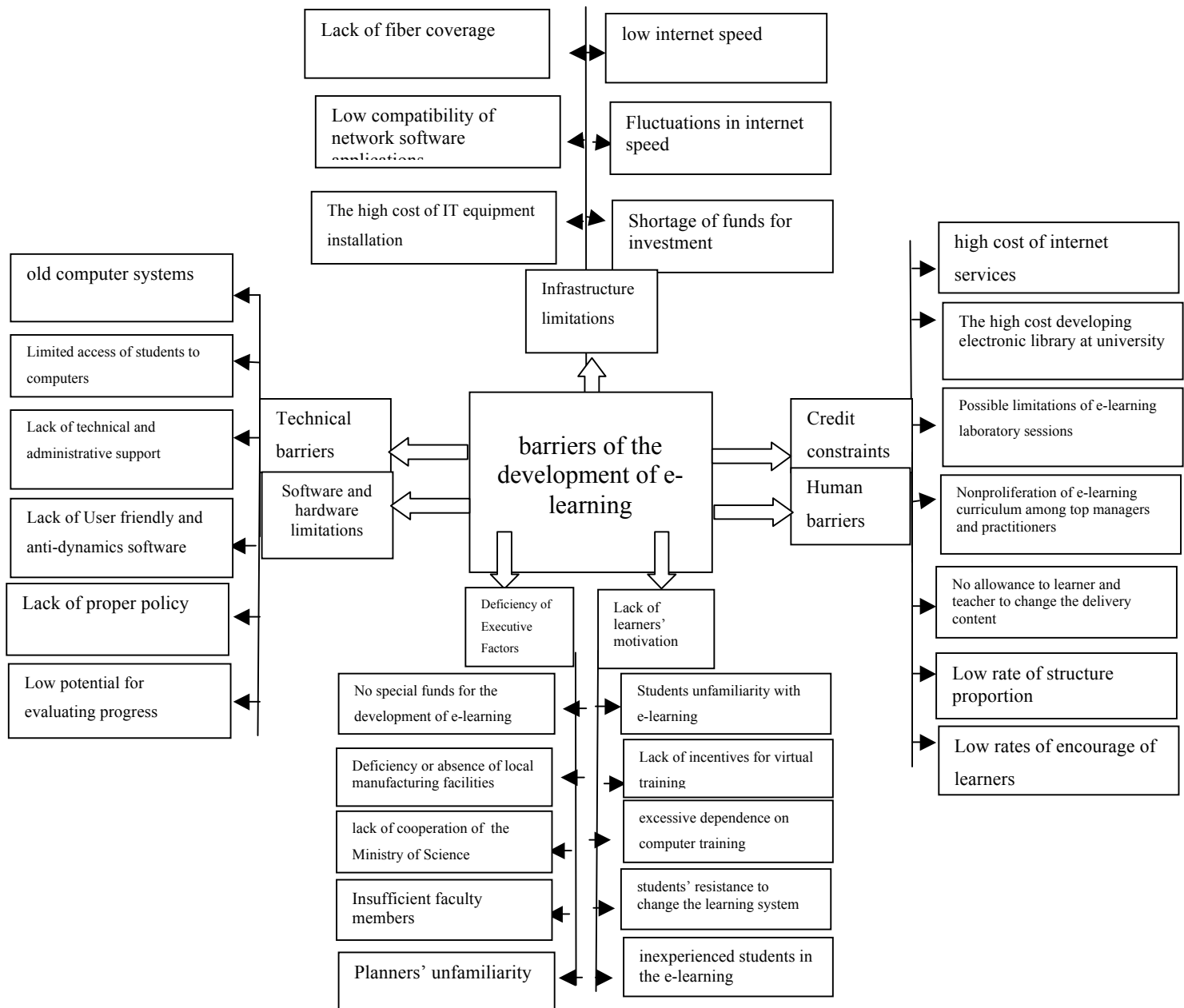
Figure 1: factors influencing barriers of the development of e-learning

REFERENCE

Albarini, A. (2006). Cultural perceptions: The missing element in the implementation of ICT in developing countries. *International Journal of Education and Development using* ICT, *2(1),* 49–65.

Amhag, L., & Jakobsson, A. (2009). Collaborative learning as a collective competence when students use the potential of meaning in asynchronous dialogues. Computers & Education, *52(3),* 656–667.

Arbaugh, J. B. (2002). Managing the on-line classroom: a study of technological and behavioral characteristics of web-based MBA courses. *Journal of High Technology Management Research, 13(2),* 203–223.

Banwell, L., Ray, K., Coulson, G., Urquhart, C., Lonsdale, R., & Armstrong, C., et al. (2004).

Providing access, 35(5), 607–616.

Barak, M., & Rafaeli, S. (2004). Online question-posing and peer-assessment as means for Web-based knowledge sharing. *International Journal of Human–Computer Studies, 61(1),* 84–103.

Beneke. A. (2001). *E-Learning.* www.unil-hildesheimide/tzieoob2/DownLaod/ELeraning.pdf (accessed May 4, 2007).

Chang, T., & Lim, J. (2002). Cross-cultural communication and social presence in asynchronous learning processes. *E-Service Journal*, *1(3),* 83–105.

Chao, I. T., Saj, T., & Hamilton, D. (2010). Using collaborative course development to achieve online course quality standards. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning, 11(3),* 106–126.

Cloete, E. (1999). *Some perspectives on network centric distance learning and software engineering.* In: Proceedings: future trends in distributed computing systems'99. Cape Town, South Africa, December 1999.

Cloete, E. (2000). *Quality issues in system engineering a ecting virtual distance learning systems.* To appear in Proceedings. COMPSAC'2000. Taiwan, October 2000. to electronic information resources in further education. British Journal of Educational Technology,

Davis, F. D., Bagozzi, R. P., & Warshaw, P. R. (1992). Extrinsic and intrinsic motivation to use computers in the workplace. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *22 (14),* 1111–1132.

Dexter, S., Seashore, K. R., & Anderson, R. E. (2002). Contributions of professional community to exemplary use of ICT. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning, 18(4),* 489–497.

Donovan, W. J., & Nakhleh, M. B. (2001). StudentsÕ use of Web-based tutorial materials and their understanding of chemistry concepts. *Journal of Chemical Education, 78,* 975–980.

Dori, Y. J., Barak, M., & Adir, N. (2003). A Web-based chemistry course as a means to foster freshmen learning. *Journal of Chemical Education, 80 (9),* 1084–1092.

Doris, U. B., Supawan, S., & Christine, B. (2010). Impact of podcasting on student motivation in the online learning environment. *Computers & Education, 55,* 714–722.

Duggleby, J., Jennings, D., Pickering, F., Schmoller, S., Bola, F., Stone, R., et al. (2004). Innovative practice in the use of ICT in education and training: *Learning from the winners. Education + Training, 46 (5),* 269–277.

EL-Deghaidy, H., & Nouby, A. (2008). Effectiveness of a blended e-learning cooperative approach in an Egyptian teacher education programme. *Computers & Education, 51 (3),* 988–1006.

Finneran, Ch., & Zhang, P. (2005). Flow in computer-mediated environments: Promises and challenges. *Communications of AIS (CAIS), 15(4),* 82–101.

Galanouli, D., Murphy, C., & Gardner, J. (2004). Teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of ICT-competence training. *Computers & Education, 43,* 63–79.

Gilbert, J., Morton, S., & Rowley, J. (2007). e-learning: the student experience. *British Journal of Educational Technology, 38(4),* 560–573.

Gordin, D. N., Gomez, L. M., Pea, R. D., & Fishman, B. J. (1997). Using the World Wide Web to build learning communities in K-12. *Journal of Computer Mediated Communication (JCMC), 2 (3).*

Granger, C. A., Morbey, M. L., Lotherington, H., Owston, R. D., & Wideman, H. H. (2002). Factors contributing to teachers' successful implementation of IT. *Journal of Computer*

281

IJLLALW

Assisted Learning, 18 (4), 480–488.

Hassini, E. (2006). Student-instructor communication: The role of email. *Computers & Education, 47 (1),* 29–40.

Hennessy, S., Ruthven, K., & Brindley, S. (2005). Teacher perspectives on integrating ICT into subject teaching: Commitment, constraints, caution, and change. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 37 (2),* 155–192.

Hew, K. F., & Cheung, W. S. (2008). Attracting student participation in asynchronous online discussions: a case study of peer facilitation. *Computers & Education, 51 (3),* 1111–1124.

Hiltz, S. R. (1995). Teaching in a virtual classroom. In *Proceedings: International conference on computer assisted instruction. (ICCAI'95),* Taiwan. March 1995.

Hyeoncheol, K., & Injin, C. (2007). Research and analysis on effectiveness of cyber Home learning 2007. Korea Education Research & Information Service.

Inoue, Y. (2007). Online education for lifelong learning: a silent revolution. In Y. Inoue (Ed.), *Online education for lifelong learning (pp. 1–28).* Hershey, PA: Information Science Publishing.

Jara, C. A., Candelas, F. A., Torres, F., Dormido, S., Esquembre, F., & Reinoso, O. (2009). Real-time collaboration of virtual laboratories through the Internet. *Computers & Education, 52 (1),* 126–140.

Krämer, B. J. (2000). Forming a federated virtual university through course broker middleware. In *Proceedings: LearnTec 2000.* Heidelberg, Germany, 2000.

Li, N., & Kirkup, G. (2007). Gender and cultural differences in Internet use: A study of China and the UK. *Computers and Education,* 48(2), 301–317.

Light, P., Nesbitt, E., Light, V., & White, S. (2000). Variety is the spice of life: student use of CMC in the context of campus based study. *Computers & Education, 34,* 257–267.

Liaw, S.-S., Huang, H.-M., & Chen, G.-D. (2007). Surveying instructor and learner attitudes toward E-learning. *Computers & Education, 49(4),* 1066–1080.

Macdonald, J. (2003). Assessing online collaborative learning: process and product. *Computers & Education, 40 (4),* 377–391.

Mayer, R. (2005). *It for Education.* Oxford, Oxford.

McCarney, J. (2004). Effective models of staff development in ICT. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 27 (1),* 61–72.

Marbach-Ad, G., & Sokolove, P. G. (2002). The use of E-mail and in-class writing to facilitate student-instructor interaction in large-enrollment traditional and active learning classes. *Journal of Science Education and Technology, 11 (2),* 109–119.

Mazzolini, M., & Maddison, S. (2007). When to jump in: The role of the instructor in online discussion forums. *Computers & Education, 49 (2),* 193–213.

Moniee R. [Developing of distance education in higher education: challenge & opportunism]. *Journal of Rahyaft. 2004, 31(1),* 43. (Persian)

Nichol, J., Watson, K., & Waites, G. (2003). Rhetoric and reality: Using ICT to enhance pupil learning – Harry Potter and the Warley Woods Mystery – Case study 2. *British Journal of Educational Technology, 34 (2),* 201–213.

Ozkan, S., & Koseler, R. (2009). Multi-dimensional students' evaluation of e-learning systems in the higher education context: an empirical investigation. *Computers & Education, 53 (4),* 1285–1296.

Rafaeli, S., Barak, M., Dan-Gur, Y., & Toch, E. (2004). QSIA – a Web-based environment for learning, assessing and knowledge sharing in communities. *Computers & Education, 43 (3),* 273–289.

Reynolds, D., Treharne, D., & Tripp, H. (2003). ICT-The hopes and the reality. *British Journal of Educational Technology, 34 (2),* 151–167.

Rogers, P. L. (2000). Barriers to adopting emerging technologies in education. *Journal of Educational Computing Research, 22 (4),* 455–472.

Ruthven, K., Hennessy, S., & Deaney, R. (2005). Incorporating Internet resources into classroom practice. pedagogical perspectives and strategies of secondary-school subject teachers. *Computers & Education, 44 (1),* 1–34.

Sanchez-Franco, M. J., & Roldan, J. L. (2005). Web acceptance and usage model: A comparison between goal-directed and experiential web users. *Internet Research-Electronic Networking Applications and Policy*, *15 (1),* 21–48.

Selim, H. M. (2007). Critical success factors for e-learning acceptance: confirmatory factor models. *Computers & Education, 49 (2),* 396–413.

Sharma, S. K., & Kitchens, F. L. (2004). Web services architecture for e-learning. *Electronic Journal on e-learning, 2 (1),* 203–216.

Siritongthaworn, S., Krairit, D., Dimmitt, N. J., & Paul, H. (2006). The study of e-learning technology implementation: a preliminary investigation of universities in Thailand. *Education and Information Technologies, 11 (2),* 137–160.

Shuster, G., Learn, C. and Duncan, R. (2003). A survey for involving on-campus and distance students in a nursing research course. *J Contin Educ Nurs. 34 (3),* 108-115.

So, H. J., & Brush, T. A. (2008). Student perceptions of collaborative learning, social presence and satisfaction in a blended learning environment: relationships and critical factors. *Computers & Education, 51 (1),* 318–336.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind and society: The development of higher mental processes.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Venkatesh, V. (2000). Determinants of perceived ease of use: Integrating perceived behavioural control, computer anxiety and enjoyment into the technology acceptance model. *Information Systems Research*, *11,* 342–365.

Ward, M., & Newlands, D. (1998). Use of the Web in undergraduate teaching. Computers & Education, 31, 171–184.

Wheeler, S., Yeomans, P., & Wheeler, D. (2008). The good, the bad and the wiki: evaluating student generated content for collaborative learning. *British Journal of Educational Technology, 39 (6),* 987–995.

Wilson, R. 2003. E-education in the UK. *Journal of digital information*, 3 (4), 1-6.

Yaghoubi, J. (2008). *E-learning in the field of design education and agricultural extension and education.* Thesis of Agricultural Extension and Education, College of Agriculture and Natural Resources, Tehran University.

ESP FOR HELICOPTER PILOTING TEXTBOOK EVALUATION:
MEETING STUDENTS' NEEDS, OBJECTIVES, AND WANTS

Hassan Soleimani
Department of Applied Linguistics, Payame Noor University, Iran
PO box 19395-3697 Tehran
E-mail: arshia.soleimani@gmail.com

Amir Khosroabadi (Corresponding author)
Payame Noor University, Tehran, Iran
E-mail: Amir.karafarin@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

On the basis of the importance of textbooks as one of the elements in curriculum which will guarantee effective teaching and learning in English as a foreign language (EFL)/English as a second language (ESL) courses and the necessity of textbook evaluation for selecting appropriate textbooks, this study tried to evaluate an English for Specific Purposes(ESP) book taught in Imam Ali Military Academy, Faculty of Aviation to indicate if ESP students of Helicopter Piloting are satisfied with their textbook in terms of their objectives, needs, and wants in addition to format and design of the textbook. The participants were a group of 70 male students, their age varied from 22 to 24. The materials to be evaluated included the ESP textbook *English for Pilot Students* prepared for the third year pilot students. The data collection instrument utilized was a 38-item questionnaire in a five-scale Likert categorized into 4 options as 1-objectives, 2-needs, 3-wants, and 4-format and design. The researchers also observed the ESP class and an interview was done with some students and teachers to get their ideas as well. The result indicated that ESP students of Helicopter Piloting were satisfied with their textbook in terms of their objectives and needs while they were not satisfied with their textbook in terms of their wants and format and design of the book. Findings of this study may offer insights for those involved in educational administrations, syllabus design, curriculum planning, and materials development to do their best to improve the quality and appropriateness of ESP textbooks, materials, and instructional objectives.

KEY WORDS: Needs Analysis, Evaluation, Curriculum, Selection, ESP

INTRODUCTION

In every teaching context, textbooks play an important role in imparting learning and assisting teachers to fulfill their responsibility. According to Riazi (2003), "textbooks play a very crucial role in the realm of language teaching and learning and are considered the next important factor in the second/foreign language classroom after the teacher" (p. 52). Likewise, as Hutchinson and Torres (1994) put it, "The textbook is an almost universal element of [English language] teaching. Millions of copies are sold every year, and numerous aid projects have been set up to produce them in [various] countries…. No teaching-learning situation, it seems, is complete until it has its relevant textbook (p. 315).

Arguments have encompassed both the potential and the limitations of materials for 'guiding' students through the learning process and curriculum as well as the needs and preferences of

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

teachers who are using textbooks. Other issues that have arisen in recent years include textbook design and practicality, methodological validity, the role of textbooks in innovation, the authenticity of materials in terms of their representation of language, and the appropriateness of gender representation, subject matter, and cultural components. Whether believe it or not, when one accepts the value of textbooks, it must surely be with the qualification that they are of an acceptable standard or level of quality and appropriate to the learners for whom they are being used (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994). It is absolutely essential, therefore, that policy makers establish and apply a wide variety of relevant and contextually appropriate criteria for the evaluation of the textbooks that are used in language classrooms (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994).

Textbook as a teaching material usually receives a special attention in English courses. It has always been suggested that the textbook is an almost universal element of English language teaching (Hutchinson &Torres, 1994). Sheldon (1988) agrees with this observation and suggests that textbooks not only represent the visible heart of any English Language Teaching (ELT) program but also offer considerable advantages for both the student and the teacher.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Textbooks play a pivotal role in language classrooms in all types of educational institutions – state schools, colleges, language schools – all over the world (Lamie, 1999). According to Lamie (1999), that is why despite the development of new technologies that allow for higher quality teacher-generated materials, demand for textbooks continues to grow, and the publishing industry responds with new series and textbooks every year. According to Razmjoo (2007) many students working with a textbook feel secure and have a sense of progress and achievement. According to Cunningsworth (1995), Textbooks are an effective resource for self-directed learning, an effective resource for presenting materials by the teachers, a source of ideas and activities, a reference source for students, a syllabus that reflects pre-determined learning objectives, and support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence (p. 113).

In fact, information on textbook selection is useful since it is sometimes part of the ESL/EFL teacher's responsibility to select the textbook she/he will use in a given class. Such a decision should be made carefully and systematically, not arbitrarily (Daoud & Celce Murcia, 1979, p. 193). They add that even in countries where the choice of the textbook does not directly involve the teacher, teachers may be asked to submit reports on the usefulness of the textbooks they are already making use of in their teaching programs. Several possible criteria and procedures for carrying out a sound selection of appropriate textbooks have been suggested. However, selecting an appropriate textbook is not a wholly objective process. While many guidelines are suggested, the individual subjective judgments of the teachers are central to it.

Tomlinson (2001) contends that textbook evaluation, on the other hand, is an applied linguistic activity through which teachers, supervisors, administrators and materials developers can make sound judgments about the efficiency of the materials for the people using them. It is also believed that textbook evaluation helps teachers move beyond impressionistic assessments and it helps them to acquire useful, accurate, systematic, and contextual insights into the overall nature of textbook material.

The importance of textbooks in English courses is now widely recognized (O'Neill, 1982; Torres, 1994; Haycroft, 1998). Haycroft (1998) believes that one of the primary advantages of using textbooks is that they are psychologically essential for students since their progress and achievement can be measured concretely when we use them (Haycroft, 1998). Secondly, as Sheldon (1988) points, students often harbor expectations about using a textbook in their particular language classroom and program. A third advantage, as O'Neill (1982) and Ur (1996) indicate, is that textbooks are generally sensitive to students' needs. However, because of the vast array of textbooks to choose from, the textbook selection process poses problems on English courses. According to Hycroft (1998), the critical issue in any language course is textbook selection. The magnitude of the problem becomes more curtail when there are numerous textbooks in the same area written by authors from different fields of study.

This can be clearly shown in Iranian ESP textbooks which are frequently written by either field specialists or Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) expert. To this end, textbook evaluation seems to be an inevitable part of any syllabus. The evaluation of textbook has a significant influence on the ability of students to meet their language learning objectives and affects both the process of learning and outcomes (Nunan, 1985).

According to Smoak (1996) with the growth of English for specific purposes (ESP), a large number of textbooks have been published for different areas of specialization by different publishers. Therefore, on the basis of the importance of textbooks as one of the elements in curriculum which will guarantee effective teaching and learning in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second language (ESL) courses and the necessity of textbook evaluation for selecting appropriate textbook, this study tried to evaluate an ESP textbook on "Helicopter Piloting" which has been written by a field specialist and an EFL expert. As Tomlinson (2001) believes, while the quality of EFL textbooks has improved dramatically in recent years, the process of selecting an appropriate text has not become any easier for most teachers and administrators. Program directors and classroom teachers are under pressure to adopt new reading textbooks on a fairly regular basis, and often on a short notice. While publishers' representatives may provide some informed assistance, their need to sell new products clearly influences their recommendations. (p. 224)

English language instruction has many important components but the essential constituents to many ESL/EFL classrooms and programs are the textbooks and instruction materials that are often used by language instructors. As Hutchinson and Torres (1994) suggest, the textbook is an almost universal element of [English language] teaching. Millions of copies are sold every year, and numerous aid projects have been set up to produce them in [various] countries…No teaching-learning situation, it seems, is complete until it has its relevant textbook (p. 315). Other theorists such as Sheldon (1988) agree with this observation and suggest that textbooks not only "represent the visible heart of any ELT program" (p. 237), but also offer considerable advantages - for both the student and the teacher - when they are being used in the ESL/EFL classroom.

Haycroft (1998), for example, suggests that one of the primary advantages of using textbooks is that they are psychologically essential for students since their progress and achievement can be measured concretely when we use them.

Second, as Sheldon (1988) has pointed out, students often harbor expectations about using a textbook in their particular language classroom and program and believe that published materials have more credibility than teacher-generated or "in-house" materials.

Third, as O'Neill (1982) has indicated, textbooks are generally sensitive to students' needs, even if they are not designed specifically for them, they are efficient in terms of time and money, and they can and should allow for adaptation and improvisation.

Fourth, textbooks yield a respectable return on investment, are relatively inexpensive and involve low lesson preparation time, whereas teacher-generated materials can be time, cost and quality defective. In this way, textbooks can reduce potential occupational overload and allow teachers the opportunity to spend their time undertaking more worthwhile pursuits (O'Neill, 1982; Sheldon, 1988).

A fifth advantage identified by Cunningsworth (1995) is the potential which textbooks have for serving several additional roles in the ELT curriculum. He argues that they are an effective resource for self-directed learning, an effective resource for presentation material, a source of ideas and activities, and a reference source for students, a syllabus where they reflect pre-determined learning objectives, and support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence. Although some theorists have alluded to the inherent danger of the inexperienced teacher who may use a textbook as a pedagogic crutch, such an overreliance may actually have the opposite effect of saving students from a teacher's deficiencies (O'Neill, 1982; Williams, 1983; Kitao&Kitao, 1997).

Finally, Hutchinson and Torres (1994) have pointed out that textbooks may play a pivotal role in innovation. They suggest that textbooks can support teachers through potentially disturbing and threatening change processes, demonstrate new and/or untried methodologies, introduce change gradually, and create scaffolding upon which teachers can build a more creative methodology of their own. Thus, EFL textbooks can play an important role in the success of language programs. In fact, they are the realization of the processes of means/ends specification in the curriculum planning. Sheldon (1988) suggests that "textbooks represent the visible heart of any ELT program" (p. 237). They provide the objectives of language learning; they function as a lesson plan and working agenda for teachers and learners. Cunningsworth (1995) argues that textbooks are an effective resource for self-directed learning, an effective resource for presentation material, a source of ideas and activities, and a reference source for students, a syllabus where they reflect pre-determined learning objectives, and support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence. He also contends that we should also ensure "that careful selection is made, and that the materials selected closely reflect [the needs of the learners and] the aims, methods, and values of the teaching program" (p. 7).

Textbooks are among the most important resources utilized to achieve the aims of a course which are based on the learners' needs. However, they should not become the aim of the course themselves and set those aims (Brown, 1995). Regarding the importance of the textbooks, one should make sure that those books meet appropriate criteria. In Cunningsworth's (1995) words, we should ascertain that "careful selection is made, and that the materials selected closely reflect the aims, methods, and values of the teaching program" (p. 7).

IJLLALW

SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

According to what Tomlinson believes the process of materials evaluation can be seen as a way of developing our understanding of the ways in which it works and, in doing so, of contributing to both acquisition theory and pedagogic practices. It can also be seen as one way of carrying out action research (Tomlinson, 2001). Textbooks play a very crucial role and it has generally been agreed that selecting textbooks is the most controversial and challenging issue for teachers and administrators which shows the importance of evaluation (Haycroft, 1998). However, there is little research focused on the differences among textbooks which is written in the same area by different authors from different fields such as ESP textbooks. Therefore, the current study aims at contrasting an ESP textbook for the students of Helicopter Piloting. The findings of this research can largely assist the researchers, material designers, and teachers to suitably select textbooks. Firstly, this study seeks to evaluate the Iranian military academy students' textbook in the field of Helicopter Piloting based on current trends in ELT, curriculum design, and materials development to find out if they conform to the EFL universal characteristics and recent pedagogical principles. Secondly, the study will highlight the main shortcomings of the textbook and offer suggestions to improve both the structure of the course and the design of the textbook.

In Iran, all decisions regarding curriculum, materials and instruction are determined by the Curriculum Development Center of the Ministry of Education and teachers are expected to strictly follow the guidelines created for them by the national government. This book has not been properly revised since it was introduced. Moreover, neither at the stage of introducing this book nor at any other stage was any Need Analysis survey carried out. Therefore, there is an urgent need for updating and evaluating the materials according to recent findings in applied linguistics and curriculum design. But it should be remembered that the implications of evaluation in a nation-wide educational context of university departments are of crucial sensitivity and consequences. (Jahangard, 2007; Razmjoo, 2007; Azizfar, Koosha&Lotfi, 2010). Hence, it is necessary to choose and define the relevant criteria by which the merits and drawbacks which are shown in the textbook are going to be examined. The textbook evaluation criteria developed by the researcher for this study are based on a set of universal characteristics of EFL textbook evaluation which not only correspond to the local needs, but also are flexible enough to be used worldwide.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Decisions related to textbook selection and evaluation are of great importance. It is a fact that selecting and evaluating textbooks in EFL context is of utmost importance. However in Iran, there is limited research conducted to evaluate the textbooks that are already in use or those that are intended for use in future In most of these studies, the researchers have themselves evaluated different textbooks by means of the checklists and questionnaires suggested by other scholars (Jahangard, 2007; Razmjoo, 2007; Azizfar, Koosha&Lotfi, 2010). However, the primary users of textbooks are the teachers. So, a comprehensive evaluation can only be carried out while the teachers and their view points are also taken into consideration.

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987),when we evaluate a textbook with an intention of adoption, we try to match what is offered by the book with the needs of our language program. However, this is no easyjob for the teachers. For one thing, teachers may be overwhelmed by the rich contents of the book, which usually has several volumes. For another, teachers do not always have a clear awareness of what their students need. (p. 49)

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following two research questions are posed for the purpose of this study:

Q1**:** Are ESP learners in Helicopter Piloting satisfied with their textbook in terms of their objectives, needs and wants?

Q2**:** Are ESP learners in Helicopter Piloting satisfied with their textbook in terms of format and design?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The population for this study consisted of a group of students passing their 7th semester of Helicopter Piloting at Imam Ali Military Academy, Tehran, Iran. The sample included 70 male students, their age varied from 22 to 24, and all were going to pass their ESP courses related to their above-mentioned major. They were asked to answer a questionnaire including 38 questions related to their needs, wants and objectives in addition to their textbook format and design.

Instruments

The data collection instrument utilized in this study was a questionnaire prepared by the researcher. In order to do so, several questionnaires suggested by different scholars and adapted, with the addition of new items and a new scoring system on the basis of the objectives, needs and wants of the learners and format and design of the book were scrutinized and the items relevant to the textbooks under study were selected. Finally, a 38-item questionnaire in a five-scale Likert (Strongly Agree. Agree, No Opinion, Disagree and Strongly Disagree) and based on four groups of questions related to objectives, needs, wants, and format and design was prepared and edited with the help of some professors of the field to assure if participants are satisfied with their textbook in terms of their objectives, needs and wants in addition to the format and design of their Textbook. What's more, to get more information the researcher observed the ESP class according to environmental qualifications, and students' qualifications and as the second data collection tool the researcher also prepared teachers' interviews and students' interviews according to some professors' ideas of the field to get enough information about students and teachers of the ESP book. In order to assure the reliability of the test the researcher gave the questionnaire again to a group of 27 to do the same test for the retest process and the questionnaire was given to them to read the questions carefully and select the best option out of the five options.

Procedure

The aim of this research was to present the main developments of textbook evaluation and needs analysis as related to English for Students of Helicopter Piloting, and to realize the main weaknesses and pitfalls encountered by Military Academy students and to look for the best policies and methods in which most of their expectations, needs and course materials are prepared in the best convincing ways. So, the researcher was decided to evaluate the ESP textbook "*English for Pilot students*" taught at Imam Ali Military academy. To carry out the research the following measures were taken to conduct the study:

IJLLALW

First of all, the researcher analyzed the general and specific books related to students of Helicopter Piloting in details and elaborated on the most important positive and negative points. This time-consuming work not only helped the researcher have a good informative view about the books, but also could help the researcher assure the validity of the data collected since it made it possible to compare different comments of students with his own ideas about the books.

In addition, a 38-item questionnaire in a five-scale Likert (Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree and Strongly Disagree) was prepared and edited with the help of some professors of the field to assure if ESP Students of Helicopter Piloting are satisfied with their textbook in terms of their objectives, needs and wants in addition to the format and design of their Textbook. The questionnaire was given to a group of 70 students to read the questions carefully and select the best option out of the five options considered (Strongly Agree. Agree, No Opinion, Disagree and Strongly Disagree). In order to assure the reliability of the questionnaire, the researcher retested the questionnaire among learners. What's more, it must be mentioned that to assure the "Internal Validity" (the extent to which the result of a study are a function of the factor that the researcher intends) and the "Content Validity" (the representativeness of measurement regarding the phenomenon about which we want information) (Mackey&Gass, 2005, pp. 107-109) the researcher finalized the questionnaire based on experts' comments of the field and edited the questionnaire based on the research questions and hypotheses. The use of a five-scale Likert helped the researcher to assure the "Face Validity" (the familiarity of our instrument and how it is to convince others that there is content validity to it) (Mackey &Gass, 2005, p. 107).

Finally, the researcher observed the ESP class to touch and feel the situation according to environmental qualifications, teachers' qualifications and students' qualifications and did the interview with some of the students and extracted their own and free ideas about their course, textbooks and the other materials of the field. On the whole, the researcher made the best use of both qualitative and quantitative data collection tools.

In order to analyze the data, the researcher considered frequencies and percentages for students' answers given in the questionnaire and used chi-square test to indicate whether differences are statistically significant or not and the null hypotheses about objectives, needs, wants, format and design of the textbook are supported or rejected.

RESULTS
This part of the study includes a complete analysis of the results obtained from the statistics of data collection process about the research questions of the study. The statistics are shown completely in figures and tables and the results obtained from the data are explained in details to prove the researcher's agreements or disagreements on research questions and hypothesis.

Research question one
The first research question of the study was as follows:
Q1: Are ESP learners in Helicopter Piloting satisfied with their textbook in terms of their objectives, needs, and wants?

Analysis of questions related to objectives
Table 1 displays the frequencies and percentages of the participants responses to the items related to the objectives of Helicopter Piloting students. Based on these results it can be claimed that

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

about 19 percent of the students believe that the textbook meets their objectives. Another 33.4 percent agree with this idea, i.e. 52.7 percent of the responses show agreement with the idea that the Helicopter Piloting textbook meets their objectives. On the other hand about 38 percent strongly disagree (15.6 %) or disagree (22.9%) with the idea that the textbook meets their objectives. 8.9 percent of students have taken a neutral position.

Table 1:Objectives of Helicopter Piloting Textbook

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Disagree	109	15.6
Disagree	160	22.9
No Opinion	62	8.9
Agree	234	33.4
Strongly Agree	135	19.3
Total	700	100.0

Results: The results of the chi-square test (x^2 (4) = 116.47, p = .000 < .05) (Table 2) indicate that the above mentioned differences are statistically significant. In other words, the Helicopter Piloting students significantly believe that the textbook meets their educational objectives. Thus, the null hypothesis as ESP learners in Helicopter Piloting are not satisfied with their textbook in terms of their objectives is rejected.

Table 2: Chi-Square Objectives of Helicopter Piloting Textbook

	Choices
Chi-Square	116.471[a]
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 140.0.	

IJLLALW

Analysis of questions related to needs
Majority of the respondents, i.e. 44.3 percent strongly agree (25.5%) and agree (19.8%) (Table 3) that the Helicopter Piloting textbook meets their needs. On the other hand, 42.5 percent believe that the textbook does not meet their educational needs. About 13 percent of the respondents have taken a neutral position.

Table 3: Needs of Helicopter Piloting Textbook

		Frequency	Percent
	Strongly Disagree	127	22.7
	Disagree	111	19.8
Valid	**No Opinion**	74	13.2
	Agree	105	18.8
	Strongly Agree	143	25.5
	Total	560	100.0

Results: The results of the chi-square test (x^2 (4) = 23.92, p = .000 < .05) (Table 4) indicate that the above mentioned differences are statistically significant. In other words, the Helicopter Piloting students significantly believe that the textbook meets their educational needs. Thus, the null hypothesis as ESP learners in Helicopter Piloting are not satisfied with their textbook in terms of their needs is rejected.

Table 4: Chi-Square Needs of Helicopter Piloting Textbook

	Choices
Chi-Square	23.929[a]
Df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 112.	

Analysis of questions related to wants
Table 5 displays the frequencies and percentages of the participants responses to the items related to the Wants of Helicopter Piloting students. Based on these results it can be claimed that about 9 percent of the students believe that the textbook does not meet their Wants. Another 31.9

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

percent agree with this idea, i.e. 40.9 percent of the responses show disagreement with the idea that the Helicopter Piloting textbook meets their Wants. On the other hand, about 40.6 percent strongly agree (11.9 %) or agree (28.7%) with the idea that the textbook meets their Wants. 18.4 percent of students have taken a neutral position.

Table 5:Wants of Helicopter Piloting Textbook

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	**Strongly Disagree**	57	9.0
	Disagree	201	31.9
	No Opinion	116	18.4
	Agree	181	28.7
	Strongly Agree	75	11.9
	Total	630	100.0

Results: The results of the chi-square test (x^2 (4) = 127.873, p = .000 < .05) (Table 6) indicate that the above mentioned differences are statistically significant. In other words, the Helicopter Piloting students significantly believe that the textbook does not meet their educational Wants. Thus, the null hypothesis as ESP learners in Helicopter Piloting are not satisfied with their textbook in terms of their wants is supported.

Table 6: Chi-Square Wants of Helicopter Piloting Textbook

	Choices
Chi-Square	127.873[a]
Df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 126.0.	

Research question two
The second research question of the study was as follows:
Q2: Are ESP learners in Helicopter Piloting satisfied with their textbook in terms of format and design?

Analysis of questions related to format and design

*Analysis:*Majority of the respondents, i.e. 46.2 percent strongly disagree (18.3%) and disagree (27.9%) (Table 7) that they are satisfied with the format and design of the Helicopter Piloting textbook. On the other hand, 38.9 percent are satisfied with the format and design of their textbook. About 14.8 percent of the respondents have taken a neutral position.

Table 7: Format and Design of Helicopter Piloting Textbook

		Frequency	Percent
	Strongly Disagree	141	18.3
	Disagree	215	27.9
Valid	**No Opinion**	114	14.8
	Agree	158	20.5
	Strongly Agree	142	18.4
	Total	770	100.0

Results: The results of the chi-square test (x^2 (4) = 36.688, p = .000 < .05) (Table 8) indicate that the above mentioned differences are statistically significant. In other words, the Helicopter Piloting students significantly are not satisfied with the format and design of their textbook. Thus, the null hypothesis as ESP learners in Helicopter Piloting are not satisfied with their textbook in terms of their format and design is supported.

Table 8: Chi-Square Format and Design of Helicopter Piloting Textbook

	Choices
Chi-Square	**36.688[a]**
Df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 154.	

DISSCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

ESP students of Helicopter Piloting are satisfied with their textbooks in terms of their objectives based on the results obtained from the study. Thus, the null hypothesis as ESP learners in Helicopter Piloting are not satisfied with their textbook in terms of their objectives is rejected. This is because of the fact that the discipline-specific content of the book that is completely related to the students' field of study is really helpful to improve their knowledge of their specificity in English. The book has a consistent pattern; so, it can serve as a good learning support. The textbook of Helicopter Piloting includes concepts and knowledge that are familiar to students of this field and also offers something new to make the students involved through

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 4 (1), September 2013   EISSN: 2289-2737
www.ijllalw.org   ISSN: 2289-3245

thinking about the subjects in English. Considering this research area, most of the instructors and students believed that there was a proper match between the objectives of the book and objectives of the course. The two parties were also satisfied with the suitability of the textbook. The results of this study were consistent with Garinger's (2002) beliefs in this regard. According to Garinger (2002), the objectives of certain textbooks need to be parallel with the objectives of the course. Moreover, he suggests that the textbook should meet the needs of the learners and also need to be appropriate to the intended audience. In fact, ESP is usually stated to be goal-directed. Students study English for study or work purposes. "This has implications for the kind of activities and topics on the course" (Robinson, 1991, p.2). So, there is a good parallel between the findings of this study and the other related ones in this case.

ESP students of Helicopter Piloting are mostly satisfied with their textbooks in terms of their needs according the results obtained from the study. Thus, the null hypothesis as ESP learners in Helicopter Piloting are not satisfied with their textbook in terms of their needs is rejected. The reason for this satisfaction is that the textbook which is being taught is in accordance with students' needs and can cover their expectations. It has a task-based syllabus that lets the students experience and learn through doing different tasks and activities. The content of the reading passages are in accordance with the content of their course of studies. The course book can provide enough information about their field of study and most of the discussion they have during the class can help them to match what they learn here with the other points covered in their other Persian courses and the points are in a good harmony. The book is certainly a good and unique source for this course being in hand. Most of the subjects a student of Helicopter Piloting needs to know about are covered in this book. As the author of the book has been both a helicopter pilot and an ELT expert, the book seems to have taken into account both disciplines throughout its various parts. Plenty of exercises following each section provide the students with enough practice in related fields and despite lack of enough time to review them all, most of the exercises can be considered as a self-study activity possible to be practiced out of class.In this respect, most of the students and also teachers were of the opinions that the content of the textbook was motivating and ordering of materials by topics was in a logical fashion. Regarding the appropriateness of the content to the students' needs, background knowledge, major, and their level of proficiency, both parties were positive on the mentioned Helicopter piloting textbook. The results of this category were consistent with the findings of Ghalandari and Talebinejad (2012) that the subject matter of ESP textbooks is compatible to the students' needs and achievement.

ESP students of Helicopter Piloting are not satisfied with their textbooks in terms of their wants since the results obtained from the data indicate it exactly. Thus, the null hypothesis as ESP learners in Helicopter Piloting are not satisfied with their textbook in terms of their wants is supported. To answer why the results obtained in this way it is good to pay attention that although the students may come to university with high motivation and interest, but in classes where no attention is paid to communication skills and practical issues, students have no opportunity to express themselves and ideas and this fact results in losing their motivation and interest. Generally speaking, students do not show any motivation toward learning English. The reason is that the course presented at the university cannot satisfy the students' wants and interests not only because students are in a low level of English proficiency, but also because

these ESP presented courses cannot give them whatever they need for their future jobs. This ESP textbook does not provide the students with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes. So, it is important for the book to recycle instruction and to provide frequent and ample exposure to the instructed language features in communicative use. Unfortunately, the book does not consider that the nature of language teaching and learning is based on communication and interaction. Consequently, it requires students' involvement and participation in class activities and discussions.

In addition, in such ESP classes, because of the shortage of time, interaction between students and teachers and especially students and students and pair work is very little or almost impossible. The literature on ESP mostly puts emphasis on the communicative language methodology. For example, Farhady (1995) did not believe that reading ability is the only skill that Iranian students need to improve. He also puts emphasis on the communicative aspect of teaching in the ESP context. Similarly, Grant (1987) points to the communicative aspects of the textbook and believes that as a result of using the textbook, the students should be able to communicate a language. According to Dahmardeh (2009), new words in the textbooks under analysis are presented out of a plausible context as isolated sentences. Sarhady (2009) contends that language functions presented in the textbooks are so context-limited that it is too difficult for students to visualize the situation in which communication has happened. And finally, Azizfar et al (2010) have stated that the materials designers have just focused on the mechanical drills. They believe textbooks are limited to substitution and repetition drills, and students are required to produce simple sentences, and that they are not provided with the opportunity to practice communicatively the language they are learning. However, the findings of this study were not in line with these views.

ESP students of Helicopter Piloting are not satisfied with their textbooks in terms of format and design owing to the obtained results of the study. Thus, the null hypothesis as ESP learners in Helicopter Piloting are not satisfied with their textbook in terms of their format and design is supported. The reason for this dissatisfaction could be based on the reality that when a textbook does not have a good format and design, it affects both students' and teachers' motivation and interest to learn or teach that book. In the field of ELT specifically for ESP classes of pilot students it is important to use colorful, attractive and pleasurable course books. Pictures and illustrations in most cases help the students' visual memory to retain more information. If a course book has enough space on each page and between the lines, the students can take notes and write the important points during the lesson. Unfortunately, in the book for pilot students one of the most important problems is that the sentences of the book are written with no suitable space between the lines and it bothers the readers while reading the text since the page is really crowded by the words. It shows that how a perfect book in terms of format and design can boost the quality of language learning and students' motivation for learning. So, the educational department must increase the students' interest to improve their learning which would be really impossible without a well-designed textbook.

What's more, analyzing the format and design of the Helicopter Piloting textbook, most of the participants were of the opinions that the textbook was not attractive and its illustrations and photographs were not motivating enough to encourage the learners to read about the subject. The students said that their ESP course book should be colorful in order to be understandable. If their textbook did not have a good layout and design, it would affect their motivation and interest to read that book. It is clear that physical appearance of a textbook is very important. McDonough and Shaw (2003) believed that clarity of layout is an important criterion for textbook evaluation.

The pictures and illustrations help the students' visual memory to retain information. Visual materials such as photograph, chart, and diagram not only should have cosmetic value but also instructive value and learning purpose (McDonough & Shaw, 2003). Similarly, Garinger (2002) suggests that both students and instructors want visually stimulated material that is well organized and easy to follow. Therefore, layout, design, and organization should be considered. Thus, the results of this study were not in line with these views and previous studies done in this regard.

There were some limitations in this study and the researcher could not control the following factors:

- ✓ Although ESP students of Helicopter Piloting cooperated well in answering the questionnaire, many of them were not willing enough to answer the interviews questions and only 6 students helped the researcher in this regard.
- ✓ Since the special course for the students of Helicopter Piloting is just held in their 7th semester and it is just possible to collect the data in even semesters (second term of the year), it made the researcher miss so much time until the beginning of the term to make it possible distribute the questionnaire, observe the class, collect the data, and do the interviews.
- ✓ As Imam Ali Military Academy is based on a perfect discipline and it has its standard and specific rules, it was only possible for the researcher to observe 1 class and more important, it was a difficult task to retest the questionnaire for the second time since professors of the course were decided to cover most parts of the book due to the time limitation. In addition, it was to some extend difficult to gather learners and some participants were not eager enough to cooperate with the researcher for the retest process as well.

PEDOGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Findings of this study may offer insights for those involved in educational administrations, syllabus design, curriculum planning, and materials development. Different sections of the textbook can be modified by the committee of textbook developers and policy makers of Imam Ali Military Academy in order to improve its attraction and quality. Teachers may also get insights from the findings and employ different strategies to compensate for the weak points of the textbook. However, there are some significant points help course designers and authorities to improve the whole framework of ESP classes in this regard which are as follows:

The method of teaching by the professors is not satisfactory by some students. This can be due to the kinds of reading books in which all students are concerned with a vocabulary list and a passage to read without having enough time to communicate in the class. This limits their capabilities in using their innovation for making new sentences with different words in different situations. Lack of time is a disaster in their field of study for their English classes.

In all classes a traditional approach to teaching was applied by the professors that can be due to the lack of time or the overall structure of the book that were designed for a reading course. It can be investigated if it is possible to apply a more communicative approach for teaching the same material or new material needed in order to improve all four skills of the students to match their future needs more than before.

Another noticeable implication is derivable from the result of text analysis; that is, the texts require modifications and refinements to be according to learners' needs and to be functioning as incentive of efficiency which lead students to reach their goals. Besides, texts can be modified to include more fascinating and more motivating topics to refresh learners' views toward their own ESP courses.This study may provide a good basis for developing comprehensible materials for students in different ESP courses. As a result, in the case of selecting passages for a course, syllabus designers should consider the learners' interests in reading comprehension. They can design appropriate textbooks on the basis of different skills needed for students and based on short-term and long-term goals. It can cause a great development in English teaching in Iranian universities. They can enhance the attractiveness of the books and students' motivation to read technical texts and make the best use of the books.

It is an undeniable fact that there must be clear objectives in ESP courses, and then based on those objectives relevant and perfect materials should be designed and developed to meet learners' objectives. The time allocated to Military Academy ESP courses especially in the field of Helicopter Piloting must be increased since professors are faced with many problems for covering all units of the books.

REFERENCES

Azizfar, A., Koosha, M., &Lotfi, A. R. (2010). An analytical evaluation of Iranian high school ELT textbooks from 1970 to the present. *Procedia Social and Beheavioral Sciences*, 3, (pp. 36-44). http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.07.010

Brown, J. (1995). *The elements of language curriculum*: *A systematic approach to program development*. New York: Heinle&Heinle Publishers.

Clarke, J., & Clarke., M. (1990).*Stereotyping in TESOL materials'*. In B. Harrison (ed.), *Culture and the Language Classroom*. London: Macmillan and Modern English Publications / British Council.

Cunningsworth, A. (1995).*Choosing your textbook*. Oxford: Macmillan Heinemann.

Dahmardeh, M. (2009). Communicative textbooks: English language textbooks in Iranian secondary high schools.*Linguistik*, *40*(4), (pp. 45-61).

Daoud, A.M., & Celce-Murcia, M. (1979).*Selecting and evaluating textbooks*. In Celce-Murcia, -M. & McIntosh, L. (Eds.) *Teaching English as a second or foreignlanguage.*New York: Newbury House.

Farhady, H. (1995). On the specificity of purpose in ESP. pp. 575-586.Rahnama press.

Garinger, D. (2002). *Textbook Selection for the ESL Classroom.ELT Journal*, *4*(6) ,21-28.

Ghalandari, S., & Talebinejad, M. R. (2012). Medical ESP Textbook Evaluation In Shiraz Medical College. *Education Research Journal, 2*(1), 20-29.

Grant, N. (1987). *Making the most of your textbook.*London: Longman Inc.

Haycroft, J. (1998). *An introduction to English language teaching.*Longman.

Hutchinson, T., & Torres, E. (1994).The textbook as agent of change. *ELT Journal 48*(4), 315-328.

Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987).*English for specific purposes: A learning-centered approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Jahangard, A. (2007). Evaluation of EFL materials taught at Iranian Public high schools. *The Asian EFL Journal9*(2),130-150.

Kitao, K., & S. Kitao,(1997). Selecting and developing teaching/learning materials.*The

Internet   TESL   Journal.Vol.   IV,   No.4.   Web-Site:
Http://www.aitech.ac.jp/iteslj/Articles/Kitao- Materials.html.

Lamie, J. M. (1999). Making the textbook more communicative.*The Internal TESL Journal*,
    5 (1), 130-150.

Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M. (2005).*Second language research methodology and design*.
    New Jersey.

McDonough, J., & Shaw, C. (2003).Materials and methods in ELT. Oxford: Blackwell.

Nunan, D. (1985). *Language teaching course design: Trends and issues.* Adelaide: National
    Curriculum Resource Centre.

O'Neill, R. (1982). Why use textbooks? *ELT Journal, 36 (2)*, 104-111.

Razmjoo, S.A. (2007). High schools or private institutes textbooks? Which fulfill communicative
    language teaching principles in the Iranian context? *Asian EFL Journal*, *9*(4), 126-140.

Riazi, A. M. (2003). *What textbook evaluation schemes tell us?* A study of the textbook
    evaluation schemes of three decades.In W. A. Renandya. (Ed.), *Methodology and
    materials design in language teaching* (pp. 52-68). Singapore: SEAMEO Regional
    Center.

Robinson, P. C. (1991). *ESP Today: A practitioner's guide*. New York: Prentice Hall
    International Group.

Sarhady, T. (2009). A critical approach to English material development and language
    planning in Iran. *Indian Journal ofApplied Linguistics*, *35*(2), 143-153.

Sheldon, L. (1988).Evaluating ELT textbooks and materials.*ELT Journal*, *42*(4), 237- 246.

Smoak,R. (1996). What is English for Specific Purposes? Bureau of educational and cultural
    affairs.English teaching forum, *41* (2), 22-30.

Tomlinson, B. (2001). Materials development. In R. Carter, & D. Nunan (Ed.), *The Cambridge
    guide to teaching. English to speakers of other languages*. Cambridge: Cambridge
    University Press.http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511667206.010

Ur, P. (1996). A course in language teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Williams, D. (1983). Developing criteria for textbook evaluation.*ELT Journal*, *37*(2), 251-255.

IJLLALW

The next issue to be published in October 2013