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Intonation in Spanish Classroom-style Didactic Speech

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***Abstract*—Work on intonation, especially related to Spanish, has not focused extensively on second language acquisition in general. Within this context, little to no research has addressed how language instructors use rhythm and melody to facilitate the oral comprehension of language learners. This study begins to enter this space by analyzing recordings of Spanish language instructors reading passages directed at first year language students. The main results reveal that the these language instructors indeed employ intonational strategies such as pitch range expansion, early peak alignment, increased time and extent of pitch rises, less pitch reduction, and stress addition. All of these characteristics corroborate and expand upon previous literature on narrow focus and emphatic speech styles in Spanish. In this case, phonetic cues are produced to create special emphasis on words that are of particular interest to students when answering oral comprehension questions on a written exam. The concluding remarks hope to spark future perceptual studies that will help us gain a more complete picture of how didactic speech benefits learners with low levels of proficiency.**

***Index Terms*—Spanish, intonation, didactic, stress, teacher talk, prosody**

I. Introduction

The study of Spanish intonation has shown significant growth in the past two decades, in large part due to the Autosegmental-Metrical (AM) model (Ladd, 1996, 2008; Pierrehumbert, 1980; Pierrehumbert and Beckman, 1988). This approach has been implemented in many studies that describe the function of intonation and its phonetic and phonological properties in a wide variety of contexts in both laboratory and spontaneous speech, such as declaratives with different focus types, absolute and pronominal interrogatives, imperatives, and the chunking of discourse into phrases (Beckman et al., 2002; Face, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2006, among others; Hualde, 2002, 2003; Nibert, 2000; Prieto et al., 1995, 1996, 1998; O'Rourke, 2005, 2006; Sosa, 1999; Willis, 2003; among many others). These aforementioned studies mainly revolve around native speakers of various dialects, with studies involving the connection between second language (L2) learners and intonation being much less common. Those that do exist, such as Henrikson, Geeslin, and Willis (forthcoming), focus on production issues related to the learners themselves. Additionally, those such as Chun (2002) have discussed the theory and practice of teaching intonation in the classroom. We must also consider the role of instructors, who regularly utilize prosodic strategies to accommodate the perceptual needs of beginning level students in an L2 context. This involves a type of *didactic* speech style specifically geared toward teaching and pedagogical situations (Šlédrová, 2000). One of the few studies that examine instructors' use of prosody in didactic speech is Faraco et al. (2002), whose work on Italian demonstrates a connection between cues such as initial and final pauses, higher intensity, and slower tempo, and better note-taking among L2 learners. In another study on didactic speech, Gerard and Dahan (1995) find durational changes to be crucial to the identification of target words. Therefore, we see that prosodic strategies may help alleviated the cognitive demands of L2 comprehension. On a related note, Kijak (2009) points out that speech processing of the prosodic correlates of stress is much more difficult in the L2 when stress information is not as crucial to communication in the first language (L1). Overall, while such studies outline the importance of prosody in L2 situations, previous work has yet to shed much light on ways in which Spanish (or any language) language instructors use prosodic correlates such as duration, fundamental frequency (F0) movement, and intensity in pedagogically oriented didactic speech.

Tailoring speech based on other interlocutors involved in interactions is seen as crucial in sociolinguistic approaches like Speech Accommodation Theory (Giles, 1980), as well as in cases of child-directed (namely infant-directed) speech and 'teacher talk' in L2 classes. Concerning adult-to-child versus adult-to-adult speech, previous work has uncovered that adults tend to produce the following when speaking to children: exaggerated F0 movement, especially at the ends of utterances, and F0 as the most salient indicator of stress (Fernald, 1989; Fernald and Mazzie, 1991; Papoušek et al., 1991; Trainor and Desjardins, 2002; Uther et al., 2007). These tendencies appear to be more or less common, regardless of language or culture. Specifically, Uther et al. (2007) finds pitch excursions and positive affect to be significantly higher in speech to infants when compared to speech directed at second language learners of British English. In general, these phonetic cues aim to be attention-grabbing, phonologically informative, and emotionally charged (Uther et al., 2007). Furthermore, teachers' style of speech toward beginning language students helps the effectiveness of lectures as well as learner outcomes (Yanfen and Yuqin, 2010). According to Chaudron (1988), some of the main aspects of

teacher talk deal with slower and louder speech, increased pause length, vocabulary simplification, use of fewer marked syntactic structures, and higher rates of self-repetition (see Ellis, 1994; Yanfen and Yuqin, 2010 for more recent reviews). However, Chaudron (1988) also mentions that both segmental phonology, in addition to suprasegmental issues such as stress and intonation have received little attention in the realm of teachers' speech to students (for an example, see Mannon, 1986). Due to this apparent research gap, the present study aims to outline some major melodic trends found in the production of classroom-style didactic speech by instructors of first year Spanish classes. The speech samples of three native speaker instructors come from readings of oral comprehension sections of exams. Upon comparing the intonation of didactic speech to normal read speech by the same speakers, we discover that the former variety leads to alterations in overall F0 range, F0 peak alignment, rises, and falls, as well as the presence of secondary stress in pretonic syllables.

Before discussing further specifics of the current investigation, it is necessary to summarize relevant concepts. The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 provides a general overview of issues related to Spanish prosody, Section 3 describes the methods and materials employed in data collection and analysis, Section 4 illustrates the main F0 trends observed, and Section 5 discusses the implications of the findings and motivates future research avenues.

II. Overview of Literature on Spanish Prosody

AM theory was created by Pierrehumbert (1980) and subsequently further explored by those such as Beckman and Pierrehumbert (1986), Gussenhoven (2004), Ladd (1996, 2008), Pierrehumbert and Beckman (1988), and Pierrehumbert and Hirschberg (1990). The model is *autosegmental* because tones are placed on their own phonological level or tier and are seen as units that behave independently while also maintaining association with other phonological units. The *metrical* label comes from the fact that tones are affiliated with metrically strong units, or stressed syllables, which are deemed stronger than unstressed syllables. Tones and syllables are placed on separate phonological tiers. These two entities are autonomous even though their tiers share association in that tones from the tone tier are linked to metrically strong stressed syllables of the syllable tier (Face, 2001).

AM theory interprets any intonation contour by utilizing two phonological tones, a high tone (H) and a low tone (L), with intervening material between tones being the result of phonetic interpolation (Hualde, 2003). Another fundamental aspect is the pitch accent, which is associated to the stressed syllable and has a single tone (H or L) or a two-tone sequence (H+L or L+H). Pitch accents associate in different ways with the stressed syllable. For example, two pitch accents that are H+L tonally can still be phonologically distinct; even though a whole pitch accent is affiliated with a stressed syllable, just one tone is said to be autosegmentally associated with the stressed syllable. The tone that is associated with the stressed syllable is that which establishes the alignment of the pitch accent (Pierrehumbert and Beckman, 1988). As such, *alignment* and *association* are distinguished based on the former being on the phonetic level, related to the timing of F0 and segmental events, while the latter is a more abstract idea pointing to two entities staying unified (Ladd, 1996). However, association does not allow the prediction of alignment. In AM convention, an asterisk (*) is placed next to a tone that is associated with a stressed syllable. As such, some possible pitch accents are as follows: H*, L*, H*+L, H+L*, L*+H, and L+H*. The tone bearing* aligns with the stressed syllable while a tone lacking * manifests itself at a phonetically determined location before or after the starred tone.

Another concept dealing with tonal association is that of phrases, which allows for the parsing of discourse into meaningful units. The phrase boundary is crucial since it represents the part of the phrase with which tones are associated. The highest level of phrasing is *intonational phrasing*, which is present in all languages. Another level of phrasing that is present in English, and is believed to be present in Spanish by those such as Nibert (2000), is that of the *intermediate phrase*. This level is below the intonational phrase because the boundary between intonational phrases is related to a stronger and clearer break in discourse than the boundary between intermediate phrases. An intonational phrase contains one or more intermediate phrases, thus the end of the final intermediate phrase in an intonational phrase is also the end of the entire intonational phrase, meaning two boundary tones will be present at this juncture. A tone (T) (H or L) carrying % marks the ends of an intonational phrase, while T- indicates the conclusion of an intermediate phrase.

In terms of specific intonational patterns, one trend that has been found in most dialects outside of Argentina (see Toledo, 2000) is that F0 peaks in prenuclear (i.e. non-final) sentence or phrase position show displacement past the stressed syllable in *broad focus*, which is when one word or portion of an utterance is not emphasized more than the rest of the utterance. Words in broad focus have F0 movement that normally begins at the beginning of the stressed syllable and culminates in a post-tonic syllable. As such, these items carry an L*+H pitch accent.[1] Declaratives in broad focus generally demonstrate F0 movement at or near stressed syllables, gradual peak decay (i.e. downstepping), and final lowering of F0 (Face, 2000, 2001, 2002; Hualde, 2002; Prieto et al., 1995, 1996; among others). In nuclear sentence position, F0 peaks often align with the stressed syllable due to the presence of an upcoming phrase boundary that blocks displacement. Due to this early alignment, broad focus nuclear pitch accents are often of the L+H* (followed by a boundary tone) variety.

[1] See Face (2010), Face and Prieto (2007), Hualde (2002), Nibert (2000), and Prieto (1998) for alternative analyses of Spanish pitch accents.

Furthermore, *narrow focus*, which is when one word or part of an utterance is highlighted more than other items, can be signaled using syntax or prosody in Spanish (Face, 2001; Zubizarreta, 1998). It is broken down into two types, *contrastive* and *non-contrastive*. Contrastive focus is when one item is contrasted with a set of items and non-contrastive elements possess emphasis without such contrast (Face, 2001). In terms of the prosody of declaratives, previous work finds that early F0 peak alignment, increased peak height, duration, and intensity, all may play a role in conveying narrow focus (de la Mota, 1995, 1997; García Lecumberri, 1995; Face, 2000, 2001, among many others; Toledo, 1989; among others). Earlier peak alignment means that narrowly focused words often contain an L+H* pitch accent. Studies have also found that changes in pitch range occur in both pre- and post-focal peaks. In particular, post-focally, F0 is often suppressed to a flat or absent F0 contour (Face, 2001; O'Rourke, 2005; among others). Figures 1 and 2 provide schematics of broad and narrow focus excursions.

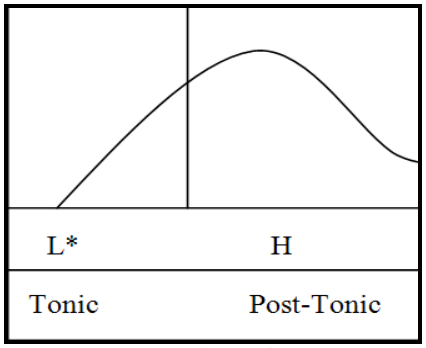

Figure 1: Schematic of broad focus F0 contour

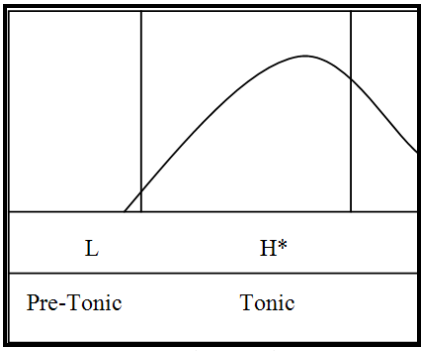

Figure 2: Schematic of narrow focus F0 contour

Another body of research is dedicated to the prosodic correlates of stress in Spanish. Stress is distinguished from accent in that the former is associated with perceived prominence of lexical items, while the latter refers specifically to F0 excursions that serve as one possible cue to said prominence (Ladd, 1996). There is a consensus among many scholars that F0 increases represent the most robust cue to stress in Spanish (Face, 2003; Garrido et al., 1993; Garrido, 1996; Quilis, 1993). These thoughts diverge from older studies that found intensity to be a strong correlate of stress (Contreras, 1964; Navarro Tomás, 1964). Fairly recent work recognizes that duration and F0 may actually both signal prosodic salience (Ortega-Llebaria, 2006). Furthermore, in cases of an absence of observable F0 movement (i.e. deaccenting), duration and intensity can both participate in cuing stress (Ortega-Llebaria et al., 2007). Previous work has also taken interest in the factors that influence deaccenting in different speech styles. For example, Face (2003) discovers this phenomenon to be more common in spontaneous speech rather than lab speech, which could be attributed to increased speech rate. Inspired by Face's (2003) study, Rao's (2009) analysis of spontaneous speech reveals that the odds of deaccenting increase in words that are shorter, commonly used in Spanish, recently repeated in discourse, categorized as verbs or adverbs, and located in non-final phase positions.

Regarding prominence, 'content' words (as opposed to 'grammatical' words such as prepositions and definite pronouns) generally permit one syllable that is lexically specified to receive stress.[2] One exception to this is adverbs that end in *–mente* (the derivational suffix '-ly'), which are generally believed to contain 2 lexically stressed syllables (Quilis, 1993). Hualde's (2007) thorough discussion of Spanish stress states that *post-lexical secondary stress* is a feature present in emphatic speech styles.[3] In such cases, non-lexical stress is added to syllables to the left of the lexically specified stressed slot. He divides secondary stress into two types, *rhythmic* and *emphatic*. The rhythmic type is found in a speech style deemed as 'didactic,' which, within the examples from Hualde (2007), refers to different types of broadcasts. The commonality between this context and earlier references to didactic speech is that both attempt to convey important information to an audience in an attention-capturing manner. In particular, in rhythmic secondary stress, Hualde (2007) (following Kimura, 2006) claims a H(L)H* pitch accent that accounts for the peaks on both the secondarily and lexically stressed syllables. In general, this pattern is common before syntactic boundaries, but not at the conclusion of thoughts, since the tonal sequence is often followed by an H- phrase boundary, which is indicative of the continuation of an idea. A hypothetical example of a word containing this pattern is ***princi**pal*** ('principle') where the final syllable receives primary stress and the first syllable has secondary stress. There would be a peak on each of those syllables and possibly a valley associated with the middle syllable. On the other hand, emphatic secondary stress manifests itself in a distinct fashion. Here, an H tone is present on the first syllable of stressed words, followed by a drastic fall to an L- boundary tone. Such a contour is more likely to occur in turn-final position in discourse. When a word like *principal* undergoes an emphatic reading, the first syllable, *prin*, will be associated with a peak, followed by a decrease in F0 to an L- at the end of *pal*. Hualde (2007) believes that distinguishing between two types of secondary

[2] Different speech styles or communicative functions, such as highly emphatic speech, can lead to grammatical function words carrying stress (see Hualde, 2007, 2009).

[3] As Hualde (2007) notes, secondary stress in English is different because it is a language with unstressed vowel reduction. As such, any syllables other than the lexically stressed one that contain full vowels are seen as secondarily stressed in English. Due to lexical contrasts that can be created between the presence or absence of full vowels, secondary stress is seen as a lexical process in English.

stress is important because each one serves different pragmatic functions. The rhythmic type implies that the listener should continue to stay-tuned for crucial information, while the emphatic type keys in on one specific lexical item.

Inspired by the review of previous literature, the present study aims to address the following research questions about Spanish intonation: i. What are the main F0 features involved in classroom-style didactic speech?; ii. How does this speech style distinguish itself from normal read speech (to a fellow native Spanish speaker)?

III. Methodology

The didactic speech data set comes from three early 30s male speakers of similar dialects of Peninsular Spanish, all of whom have taught elementary and intermediate levels of Spanish language classes in the United States for at least five years.[4] Therefore, they are well versed in tactics that may help students key in on words that are crucial to the understanding of oral language. These three particular speakers also have comparable voice quality, meaning their average F0 lies within a similar range. In order to elicit a didactic speech style, the subjects were instructed to read a series of five passages as if they were reading them to their first year language students. The passages, each containing approximately 100-150 words, were all extracted directly from oral comprehension sections of exams previously administered in first year Spanish language classes at a university in the United States. Each one dealt with vocabulary and main themes of textbook chapters, which led to productions on topics ranging from the role of the mother in Latin America, to a description of a narrator's disastrous day. The instructors had an idea of which pieces of information were most central to the students' understanding of each passage. Although the subjects were not in the natural context of the classroom, this type of data collection methodology, in which non-naïve speakers produce speech that they envision as appropriate for certain situations, has been employed by at least Hualde (2002), Rao (2006), and Rao (2010). Therefore, even though the subjects were in a controlled environment (in a quiet room, wearing a head-mounted microphone connected to a laptop computer), these speech samples can be seen as representative of the didactic speech they would use with students. Furthermore, in order to have an object of comparison, the speakers also read all passages at a 'normal' speech rate, or the manner in which they would read to a native-speaker friend. Here, 'normal' is defined as approximately 5-7 syllables per second, following Martín-Gálvez (1994). It is important to mention that from here on out, our discussion of the labels 'didactic' and 'normal' speech styles implicitly carry the notion of 'read' as well.

Following data collection procedures, the F0 excursions in or around the stressed syllables of 2,445 stressed words were analyzed using the Praat software package (Boersma and Weenink, 2009).[5] Such excursions are crucial to stressed words in Spanish because they are arguably the strongest phonetic signal of prominence (Face, 2003; Hualde, 2002; Navarro Tomás, 1944; Quilis, 1993; among others). Identifying categories of stressed items in Spanish was done by referring to the lists provided in Quilis (1993). Before the detailed look at F0, all words were coded for speech style and speaker. All unstressed items, such as prepositions, definite articles, and conjunctions were excluded from the group of analyzed tokens.[6] A small group of stressed tokens also had to be discarded due to recording issues. Regarding F0 movement, each stressed word in both didactic and normal speech was measured for rise and fall time in milliseconds (ms), peak height, alignment with or displacement from the stressed syllable, and secondary stress. An F0 excursion had to measure at least 7 hertz (Hz) in order to be considered a peak (based on O'Rourke, 2006; Rao, 2009; Willis, 2003). Once all measurements were taken, a series of paired t-tests statistically evaluated the differences between didactic and normal speech styles with regard to the phonetic variables in question. Based on relevant trends cited in earlier work, one could anticipate any of the following in didactic speech, when compared to normal speech: faster rises leading to earlier peak alignment, higher peaks, few to no cases of deaccenting, and the presence of secondary stress in words of at least three syllables. Based on this phonetic evidence, phonological pitch accents were then assigned to words.

IV. Results

This section presents a series of F0 contours illustrating the main trends discovered in both didactic and normal speech. The visual representations of differences between speech styles inform us of phonetic strategies that Spanish language instructors implement when communicating important information to their students. The main objective of this section is to introduce some phonetic and phonological tendencies observed in didactic speech, rather than provide an extremely rigorous statistical analysis of the data. Unless noted, the figures provided occur regularly in the data from all speakers.

An example of a word illustrating narrow focus tendencies in didactic speech is provided in Figure 3. In this case, the word *problemas* ('problems') seems to be emphasized in the phrase *cuando hay problemas* ('when there are problems'). This word is important to the passage because students needed to ascertain the roles of the mother in the household

[4] Due to technical difficulties, we will not consider the normal read speech of one speaker in this study. The main differences cited will rely on the two speakers that successfully produced both normal and didactic samples.

[5] Intensity, which is another potential correlate of stress and/or narrow focus in Spanish, was also measured in the data set. Overall, didactic speech yields significantly higher intensity ($p < .0001$). However, since the present paper focuses on F0, a detailed analysis of intensity, as well as duration, is set aside for future research.

[6] A preliminary glance at function words such as *por* ('by') and *el* ('the,' masculine) shows that such words do possess F0 rises through stressed syllables in several tokens of didactic speech even though they are not lexically specified as being stressed. The prosody of such words surely merits future investigation, as Hualde (2009) also encourages.

during positive and negative times. As such, the instructor uses phonetic strategies to communicate, "this word and the upcoming information is of interest." The initial valley, at 148.2 Hz, is associated with an L tone, while the peak, which occurs 65.5 ms prior to the syllable boundary of *ble*, at 250.2 Hz, after a drastic 102 Hz rise lasting 233 ms, is associated and aligned with this stressed syllable, and is thus labeled with an H* tone. Therefore, we conclude that the pitch accent of this lexical item is L+H*. Another relevant characteristic of this contour is a final fall of 112.6 ms from the H* tone to an L- intermediate boundary tone, manifested around 165.4 Hz. Interestingly, this phrase boundary is present even though the sentence being read does not call for a pause through some sort of punctuation. Finally, we note that a contour similar to this one is observed for the other speakers analyzed. In general, this pattern of early alignment is pervasive throughout the data, though a following boundary may or may not always be present. More examples are given in (1), all of which are words that are crucial to students correctly comprehending the passage and answering questions about what they hear. The stressed syllable evidencing narrow focus through peak alignment is underlined.

(1) Lexical items displaying the L + H* pitch accent

a. *Aqu íles comento el pron ó stico de tiempo* ('Here I provide you with the weather forecast')

b. *Deben estar atentos* ('You all should be alert')

c. …*no ten á plumas* ('it (the bird) didn't have feathers')

d. …*mil novecientos setenta y cinco* ('1975')

e. *Obviamente el padre respeta esta posici ón* ('Obviously the father respects this position')

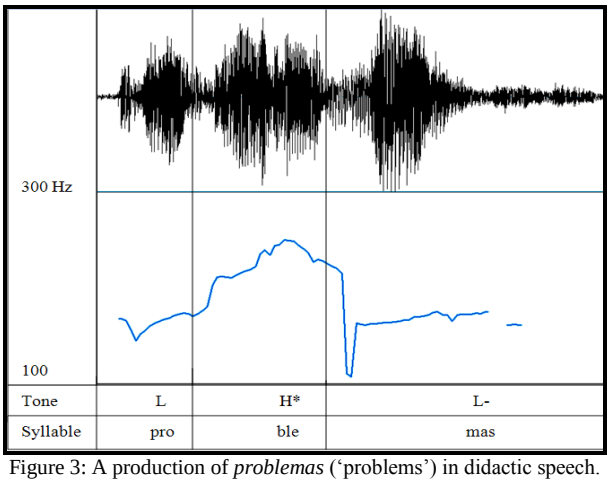

Figure 3: A production of *problemas* ('problems') in didactic speech.

Another way of highlighting an element in discourse, which is distinct from the method in Figure 3, is via the addition of post-lexical secondary stress. Figure 4 provides an example of an F0 contour showing emphatic secondary stress, in which the first syllable of *problemas* possesses an H tone at 181.9 Hz, from which a steep fall of 328 ms occurs, ending in an L- boundary tone at 129.8 Hz. The interesting part of this trend is that the stressed syllable *ble* is not associated with an F0 peak, but rather a decline. This is a rare circumstance for stressed content words in Spanish. Here, the early H tone, a sudden F0 decrease, and the presence of an upcoming boundary combine to highlight this communicatively important item. One key difference between emphatic secondary stress and the early alignment in Figure 3 is that the rise to a peak in the latter case is realized in a much higher pitch range than is the movement in the former. The word with early alignment is also longer in duration. Further examples of emphatic secondary stress with this same pitch accent pattern are listed in (2). The syllable with a peak is underlined, while the lexically stressed syllable is bolded.

(2) Other words produced with emphatic secondary stress

a. …*por alg ún* ***la dr ón*** ('by some burgler').

b. *Era exactamente como conocemos hoy* ('It was exactly as we know it today')

c. …*sus estudios de abogac ía* ('her studies in law')

d. …*la institu**ci ón*** ('the institution')

e. ...*la computadora que **compr é** el mes pasado* ('the computer I bought last month')

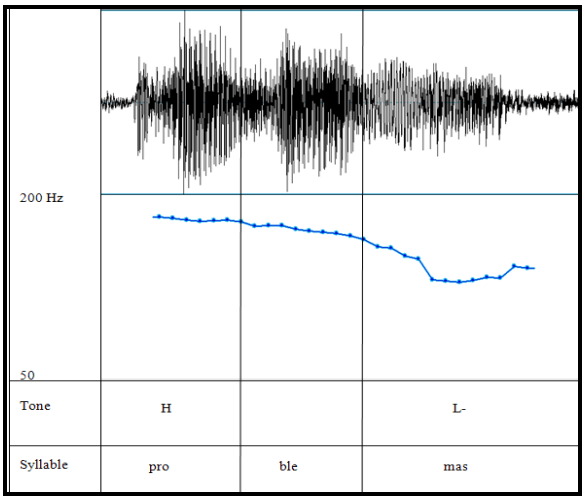

Figure 4: Emphatic secondary stress on *problemas* in didactic speech.

On the other hand, a faster rate of speech leads to a much different F0 contour of *problemas*. Figure 5, showing *problemas* produced in the exact same context, displays an extremely flat F0 trace, which is indicative of deaccenting. The F0 range here is much reduced, occurring around 146.5 Hz, with no movement of over 7 Hz, which points to the lack of any peak, or H tone. In fact, across the data for both speakers that produced both speech styles, pitch range is increased in didactic speech at a significant level ($p < .0001$). When comparing Figure 5 to the previous two, we note an exaggerated difference in F0 rises and falls. However, these two variables are statistically significant in different ways across the data. F0 rises and their duration of rise are increased in didactic speech ($p < .0001$) while F0 falls and fall times are increased in normal speech ($p < .0001$). These results appropriately fit in with the significant findings for pitch range. Furthermore, while extreme pitch reduction is found in both speech styles, Table 1 demonstrates that the normal style is conducive to higher levels of this phenomenon. Additionally, this word in Figure 5 does not demonstrate strong evidence of a following phrase boundary tone. It is worth noting that the other speaker did produce a pitch accent on this word at the normal speech rate, but with a limited pitch excursion (27.5 Hz rise over 184.4 ms) and displacement of the peak to the following syllable (76 ms), both of which correlate more with broad focus rather than prominence. Finally, regardless of emphatic strategy, the word duration is longer in such cases when compared with instances such as that of Figure 5. In fact, across the entire data set, didactic speech is significantly longer, with more pauses, than normal speech.

TABLE 1:
DEACCENTING RATES IN EACH SPEECH STYLE

Speaker	Didactic Speech Deaccenting	Normal Speech Deaccenting
1	21% (100/469)	35% (172/494)
2	29% (146/493)	37% (185/494)
3	19% (95/493)	N/A

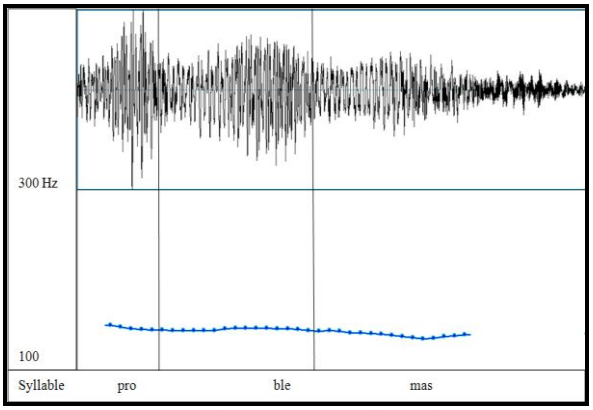

Figure 5: A production of *problemas* ('problems') in normal speech.

Some additional examples of deaccented words from both speech styles are displayed in (3) and (4). The words in (3) are actually commonly deaccented in both speech styles, while those in (4) do not deaccent in didactic speech.

(3) Deaccented words in didactic speech

a. *es* ('it is')

b. *fue* ('it was')

c. *casa* (‘house’)
d. *aqu í*(‘here’)
e. *cenar* (‘to have dinner’)
f. *clase* (‘class’)
g. *familia* (‘family’)
h. *alguien* (‘someone’)
i. *colores* (‘colors’)
j. *tener* (‘to have’)
(4) Additional deaccented words in normal speech
a. *llegu é*(‘I arrived’)
b. *fresco* (‘fresh’)
c. *mediod á* (‘noon’)
d. *apreciado* (‘appreciated’)
e. *comidas* (‘food’)
f. *dominante* (‘dominant’)
g. *aprenden* (‘they learn’)
h. *necesidades* (‘needs’)
i. *volaba* (‘it used to fly’)
j. *plumas* (‘feathers’)

The next set of figures illustrates differences in pitch scaling between the two speech styles. In Figure 6, the phrase *tiene una gran autoridad* (‘she has great authority’) is describing the role of the mother, but without indicating that the information is particularly noteworthy to students taking the exam. As such, we observe downstepping, or gradual F0 decay as F0 progresses through the phrase. The initial valley, at 154.2 Hz, is associated and aligned with the stressed syllable *tie*, followed by a rise to the H tone at 178.1 Hz, which is aligned with the post-tonic syllable (which resyllabifies with the *u* from *una* to produce a falling diphthong). Next, there is a drop from the first peak to the second L* tone, which is manifested at 127.4 Hz and is associated with the stressed syllable *gra*. The second post-tonic peak, on the syllable *nau* (which has also undergone resyllabification) occurs at 145.1 Hz and is followed by the last drop to 118.1 Hz, or the valley aligned with *ri*. The final peak of the phrase, which aligns with the final (and stressed) syllable of *autoridad* (in which the final consonant has been deleted) at 135.1 Hz, is followed by an H- boundary tone indicating that the idea is going to continue. Based on previous literature, as well as the information central to the passage from which the phrase is extracted, we can assume that this downstepping is indicative of a broad focus reading. The speech of all speakers yielded a similar downtrend in this context as well as in many contexts that are not of the utmost importance for students.

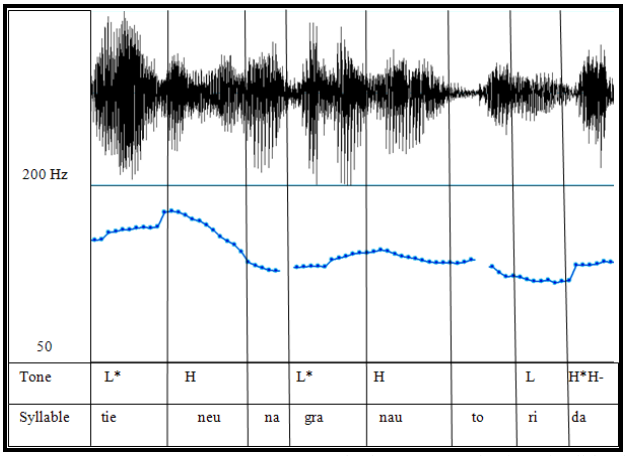

Figure 6: The phrase *tiene una gran autoridad* (‘she has great authority’) in didactic speech.

When comparing Figures 6 and 7, we note that overall F0 decay is common on both speech styles, but with differing reduction tendencies. Rather than downstep, Figure 7 shows one high peak associated and aligned with the stressed syllable *tie*, at 144.1 Hz, at the beginning of the phrase, and a subsequent downslope all the way to the L tone at 111.5 Hz, aligned with the pre-tonic syllable of *autoridad*. The F0 movement through *gran* is not large enough to generate a pitch accent. The rise to the final peak on the stressed *dad* and intermediate boundary at 135.1 Hz also signal that the idea has not yet reached its concluding point, which is a strategy employed in Figure 6 as well.[7] Interestingly, the pitch range in which the contours in Figures 6 and 7 take place is very similar. The main difference is that the downtrend in Figure 6 exhibits more overall peaks and valleys, thus producing a more gradual downward movement when compared

[7] Oxytones represent exceptions to broad focus pitch accent tendencies because they generally display early alignment of peaks. Therefore, at times, it is difficult to distinguish between broad and narrow focus pitch accents in words with this stress pattern (see Hualde, 2002).

to the drastic fall in Figure 7. Therefore, information that is less crucial to the passages shows both similarities and differences.

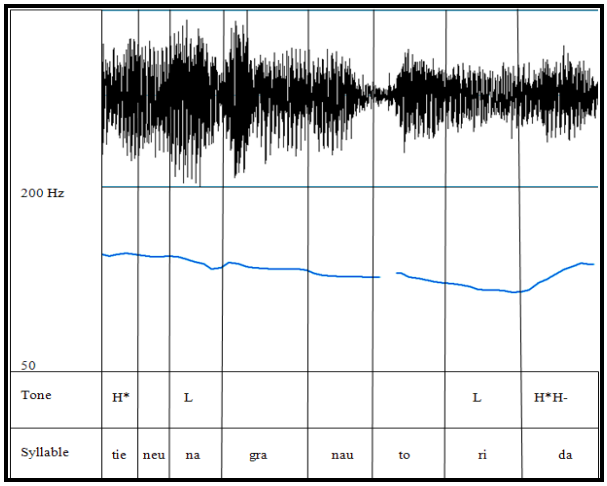

Figure 7: The phrase *tiene una gran autoridad* in normal speech.

Perhaps the most interesting revelation for didactic speech is the presence of both rhythmic and emphatic secondary stress. While this additional post-lexical stress only occurs in about 6% of all words that are 3+ syllables in length, it is apparent that all such items are crucial to the students' ability to comprehend portions of the passage that will allow them to successfully answer related questions. An extreme example of rhythmic secondary stress is depicted in the F0 contour of Figure 8. This complex contour actually resembles patterns one might observe over an entire phrase, since we observe three peaks and two valleys within this one lexical item. Students taking this exam need to know how the mother handles conflicts between fathers and children. Therefore, instructors make this lexical item prominent within the phrase *hace de intermediaria* ('she plays (the role of) intermediary'). In terms of specific F0 movements, the H tone at 164.1 Hz aligned with *in* falls to an L valley at 139.4 Hz. What is curious about this movement is that it all takes place within one lengthened syllable, as if the valley is a type of boundary tone within a word. The subsequent rise to the H tone that aligns with *ter* reaches 185.5 Hz before dropping to 140.3 Hz in the L in *me*. The final rise to the H* at 157.9 Hz, aligned with the lexically stressed *dia*, leads to a boundary tone plateau at 152 Hz. The H- tone implies that more useful information is on its way. The main feature from this contour is that the first two peaks, both of which are aligned with syllables that are not lexically stressed, are higher than the lexically stressed peak. Also, we see evidence of the HLH* tonal sequence described by Hualde (2007) and Kimura (2006), plus the insertion of an additional pitch accent in the syllable that is furthest to the left.

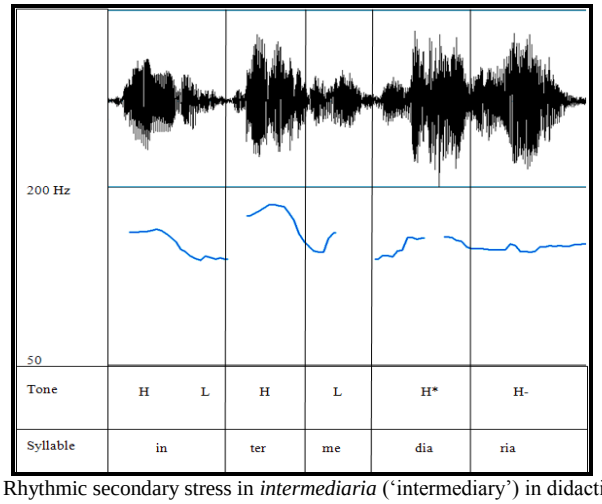

Figure 8: Rhythmic secondary stress in *intermediaria* ('intermediary') in didactic speech.

When comparing the F0 trace of *intermediaria* in Figures 8 and 9, there is a noticeable difference between speech styles. In Figure 9, the expected broad focus pitch accent, L*+H appears, with the L tone, associated and aligned with *dia*, at about 95 Hz, and the post-tonic H tone manifesting itself at 110 Hz. This rise may help cue lexical stress. The lack of a following boundary tone indicates that this word appears in phrase medial position. Furthermore, the relatively flat F0 preceding the tonic and post-tonic syllables clearly shows the absence of any other secondary accents. The final rise is almost the same as the one in Figure 8, but the overall pitch range in which the word is articulated is substantially

lower than the didactic speech production. Therefore, we can conclude that the main points of distinction between the last two figures are the overall F0 range, as well as the presence/absence of rhythmic secondary stress.

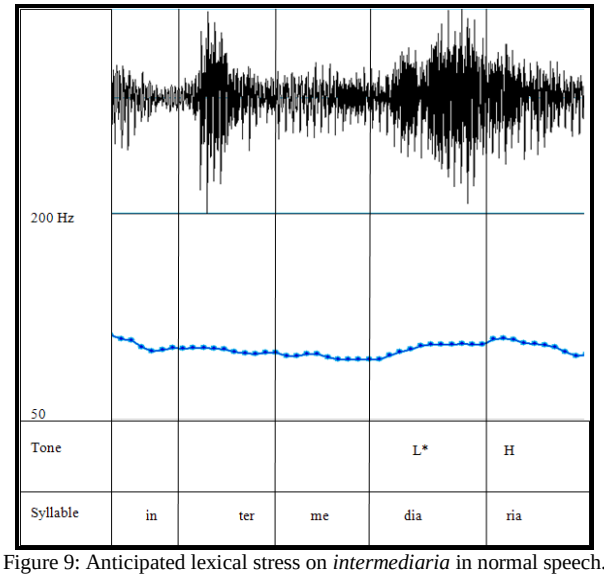

Figure 9: Anticipated lexical stress on *intermediaria* in normal speech.

Figures 10 and 11 compare pitch accent and stress patterns in a word with four syllables rather than five. Examining Figures 8 and 10, both of which contain words that instructors hope to highlight for students, demonstrates that it is not possible for words with fewer than five syllables to contain the additional secondary stress peak found in *intermediaria*. In Figure 10, we once again have evidence of an HLH* contour, except in this case the L- intermediate boundary cues a slight pause in this stream of read text. The first H tone on *in* reaches its peak at 185.2 Hz. F0 then drops to 169.1 Hz in the second syllable and rises to an H* associated and aligned with the stressed *tu* at 192.8 Hz. This highest peak then causes pitch reduction to 155.3 Hz, which is where the intermediate boundary appears. Other than the number of syllables and boundary tones, the main distinguishing feature between rhythmic secondary stress on *intermediaria* and *inquietudes* is the phonetic difference between peak heights. In the former example, the excursion signaling secondary stress is higher than that of the lexically specified syllable, while the latter case shows the opposite pattern. However, a couple of clear tendencies are the production of these words in similar pitch ranges, and the avoidance of secondary stress on the syllable immediately to the left of the lexical stress. Adjacent stress, which creates a clashing situation, is generally less than optimal in Spanish (Hualde 2007).

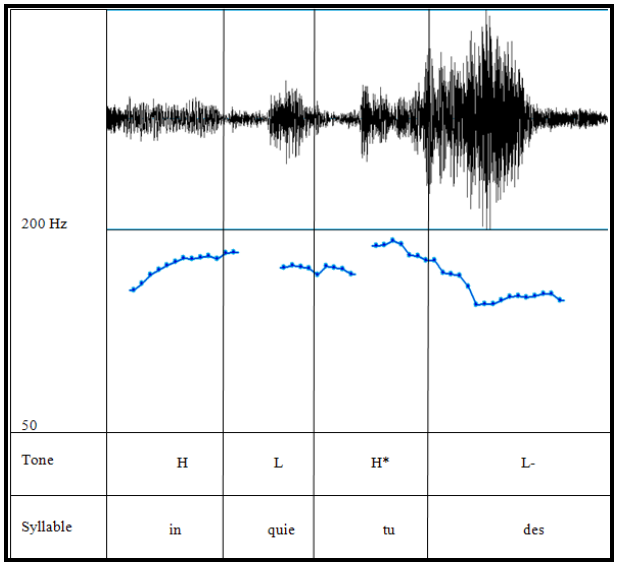

Figure 10: Rhythmic secondary stress on *inquietudes* (‘worry’) in didactic speech.

More examples of words in which we find rhythmic secondary stress are given in (5). Through this list, it becomes increasingly apparent that this type of emphasis is only added to content words with a minimum of three syllables. The lexically stressed syllables are underlined and bolded and the secondarily stressed syllables are only underlined.

(5) More words with rhythmic secondary stress

a. *verda**de**ro* (‘truly’)

b. *acompa**ña**da* (‘accompanied by’)
c. *fa**mi**li**ar*** (‘familiar’)
d. *disci**pli**n**ar**les* (‘to discipline them’)
e. *orgu**ll**oso* (‘proud’)
f. *impor**ta**ban* (‘important (to them)’)
g. *dipu**ta**da* (‘member of parliament’)
h. *Vene**zue**la* (‘Venezuela’)
i. *tradicio**nal*** (‘traditional’)
j. *desempe**ñó*** (‘(she) fulfilled’)

The F0 movement in Figure 11 does not convey secondary stress, but it does evidence emphasis on the word *inquietudes* through peak association and alignment with the stressed syllable, followed by an intermediate boundary tone. The initial F0 traces, in the neighborhood of 108 Hz, increase to 150.8 Hz when peaking in the stressed syllable. After this apex, there is suppression to 122.7 Hz, or the location of the L boundary tone. The pitch range is significantly lower than the range of the didactic sample from Figure 10. However, the contour here is produced in a higher range than the one from Figure 9, which suggests that emphasis in normal read speech is realized in a higher pitch range than broad focus.[8] Along the same lines, a boundary tone immediately after a word may cue narrow focus, as found by Face (2001, 2002).

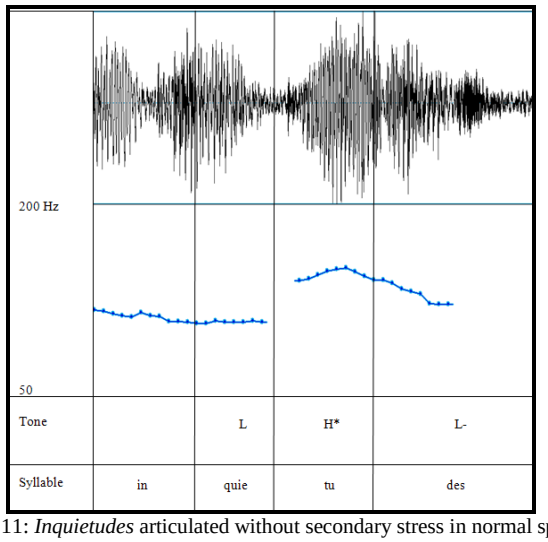

Figure 11: *Inquietudes* articulated without secondary stress in normal speech.

V. Discussion and Conclusions

The results from the previous section reveal a number of F0 trends that play a role in signaling emphasis in didactic speech that are either reduced or absent from normal read speech. The main features observed in didactic speech are: increased overall pitch range, early alignment and following boundary tones associated with communicatively important items, less deaccenting, clear and gradual downstepping of less important phrases, and the presence of both emphatic and rhythmic secondary stress. The data from instructors of Spanish in this study appear to indicate that the aforementioned pitch alterations are made in order to aid students’ listening comprehension of information that is particularly relevant to passages on exams.

The main F0 correlates of didactic versus normal speech correspond with previous literature on narrow versus broad focus, respectively. The increase in pitch range in constituents (words, phrases, utterances) conveying narrow focus has been noted for Spanish, particularly by Face (2000, 2001, 2002, among others) for Peninsular Spanish and O’Rourke (2005, 2006) in situations of language contact between Spanish and Quechua in Peru. In the didactic speech of the current sample, each one of the passages, which comprise entire paragraphs, is manifested in a higher pitch range when compared to productions of normal speech. Therefore, in addition to the slower speech and increased number of pauses noted by previous studies on the phonetics of teacher talk, we see that one function of increasing the range of F0 in native speaker speech is to facilitate the comprehension abilities of L2 learners. This higher range may demonstrate drastic F0 increases on words that are particularly crucial to student responses to questions, which is apparent through the significance of F0 rise and rise time in didactic speech. Parallel findings have also been discovered in previous work on narrow focus (de la Mota, 1995; Face, 2001). However, Face’s (2010) recent work discussing more perceptual studies argues that peak height increases may not be enough to cue narrow focus. On the other hand, F0 falls and time of falls are longer in normal speech in the current study. Therefore, the results suggest that rises are more important to

[8] This is only suggestive because it is possible that duration and/or intensity may be influenced by a narrow focus production.

emphasis or communicative salience, which are key methods of addressing L2 students, while more extensive falls are associated with faster, native-to-native speech that does not require a tone that draws particular attention to speech. The importance of rises is confirmed by studies dating all the way back to Navarro Tomas (1944). Therefore, we conclude that longer and larger rising pitch excursions are another method that instructors utilize in didactic speech.

As previously pointed out, severe rises and falls are also characteristic of infant-directed speech. As such, we can draw a connection between first year language students and infants, both of whom are in the fledgling state of the acquisition of a language. The L2 students listening to the passages used here are linguistically 'infants' when it comes to Spanish. Therefore, it makes sense that instructors feel the need to produce cues similar to those in infant-directed speech. However, the fact that L2 learners normally have a solid linguistic foundation in their first language may allow them to more easily recognize certain prosodic trends, which would not necessitate as much exaggeration. For example, the overall F0 movement found in earlier research (rises and falls) on infant-directed speech may attract more attention than just the significant upward excursion revealed here for L2 student-directed speech. Based on these preliminary insights, comparative studies of didactic speech along the lines of Uther et al. (2007) are definitely needed.

Coupling the results for F0 rise with the common trend of early alignment permits us to further the discussion of F0 in didactic speech. Previous work has found that early alignment is not conducive to larger increases in F0 scaling because this leftward movement of peaks decreases the time available for F0 to climb (for example, Face, 2001). However, in didactic speech, early alignment also occurs with significantly longer and larger pitch excursions. Since the F0 rise is generally anchored to the beginning of the stressed syllable, the overall duration of the stressed syllable must be increasing if a peak is realized as an H* tone because otherwise there would not be enough time available for F0 to increase and still be manifested within the stressed syllable. As such, we can begin a discussion of overall duration differences even though this was not a specific variable measured in this study. Though duration, as previously mentioned, is an important correlate of both stress and narrow focus, this suggestion merits future research in didactic speech.

Furthermore, concerning pitch scaling, in the reading task directed toward L2 learners, the instructors used here produce gradual downstepping across phrases, with visible F0 peaks. Conversely, a steeper drop without peaks is more common for the normal speech style. Based on these trends, the fact that F0 peaks are present in general in speech directed to L2 learners is important. While such peak decay has previously been associated with broad focus (Prieto et al., 1995, 1996), the results here indicate that it definitely reflects slower speech, that is overall more animated and engaging, even when the items tied to downstep are not the most communicatively heavy. That is, it could be the case that downstep and related peak displacement are a manner of keeping the audience involved and attentive by facilitating comprehension, but at the same time distinguishing less important information from more important information, the latter of which is cued through increases in F0 and earlier peaks. When speech does not need to be as catchy as teacher talk, it presents more severe drops in F0 without as many peaks.

The current data displays cases of deaccenting in both speech styles. However, upon comparing examples such as those in (3) and (4), it becomes clear that the types of lexical items that are subject to such pitch reduction are different in each speech style. The deaccented words in didactic speech (see (3)) are all either short in length, common across the Spanish language, previously repeated in the passage, or some combination of these factors. Such words are seen as semantically light and thus articulated with less F0 movement by instructors. This explanation fits into the scheme of Rao (2009), who finds all three of the reasons given here to be relevant to deaccenting in spontaneous speech.[9] The deaccented items in normal speech are on average longer than those in didactic speech and less common across Spanish, but they do represent information that is either repeated or obvious based on the passage at hand. Therefore, examining didactic speech, faster read speech, and the spontaneous speech from Rao (2009), leads to the emergence of a type of continuum of permissible words to deaccent based on speech style that may be based on hearer involved. In more animated read speech directed at L2 learners, shorter, common, or given words are subject to deaccenting, while faster read speech addressing native speakers allows for pitch reduction of longer words, provided that they are repeated. In spontaneous interviews, Rao (2009) finds all of these to be common, along with phrase position and grammatical category. We do find that the slower rate of didactic speech results in phrases with fewer stress words (on average 1-2 per phrase) than phrases in normal speech (3-4 words per phrase). However, further details connecting phrasing and didactic speech remain for further exploration.

Finally, F0 contours representing both emphatic and rhythmic secondary stress confirm the thoughts of Hualde (2007) and Kimura (2006) for other types of didactic speech. Here, we expand on those studies by showing that the H(L)H* tonal sequence conveying rhythmic secondary stress does indeed manifest itself in classroom style didactic speech. Furthermore, as suggested by both Hualde and Kimura, rhythmic secondary stress tends to occur in the middle of a sentence, or a non-terminal break. Even when there is a following boundary tone, the subsequent pause is very short. However, in cases of emphatic secondary stress, there is always a boundary tone followed by a slightly longer pause. This makes sense, given that boundaries appearing directly after lexical items are one strategy of implying emphasis, according to Face (2002). The fact that these examples of post-lexical secondary stress are present in didactic speech and absent from normal speech indicates that stress addition is a possible way to grasp the attention of those speakers

[9] Rao (2009) defines a 'common' word in Spanish as one that receives at least 2,000 hits in the 20th century in the *Corpus del español* (Davies 2002).

with lower levels of linguistic competence and thus help them tune into lexical items that are paramount to their understanding of a passage. Whether or not this type of added emphasis is more effective than strategies such as early alignment and increased F0 scaling is an idea that has rarely been addressed in previous work and that deserves a future look.

Moreover, with respect to F0 peaks in words with secondary stress, there does not seem to be a clear trend of one peak being higher than the other, though the peak with secondary stress generally appears two syllables to the left of primary stress, as predicted by Hualde (2007). Examples of both main and secondarily stressed peaks being larger are found in the present data. Perhaps it is the case that peaks helping signal secondary stress somehow increase salience of a lexical item. The possible effects and interpretations created by such peak height alterations also represent an intriguing object of future research.

One last note to be discussed is only revealed in one word in the data, *intermediaria*. In this case, while all speakers produce secondary stress in didactic speech, only one creates extreme lengthening of the first syllable, *in*. This durational increase leads to an H and L tone being manifested within the same syllable, which is a rare occurrence. The F0 drop reflects a word with an L- intermediate phrase boundary, though in this case it appears as if there is a boundary within a lexical item. This situation has rarely been attested for other speech styles in Spanish, and also figures to be problematic for the AM model, which does not account for any sort of word-internal boundaries. This idea may or may not be important. However, there seems to be some relevance because this drop to a 'pseudo-boundary tone' could be the factor that allows for an H tone on the first syllable of this word. A word of five syllables, such as *intermediaria*, apparently also can manifest more than two H tones, as we observe in the present data. This means that another HL can be added to the left of the tonal sequence proposed by Hualde (2007) and Kimura (2006), which raises the question as to how many of these additional high-low fluctuations can be added to a word. Is it possible that cases of rhythmic secondary stress permit an HL on all syllables that stand to the left of the stressed one (given that they are all at least one unstressed syllable away from the stressed one)? A future look at longer words with secondary stress will help us answer this question.

The discussion to this point sheds light on how Spanish instructors incorporate different types of rhythm and melody into their speech in order to assist students in oral comprehension. The results corroborate and build upon older related studies. However, all the results are production based. In order to gain a clearer sense of how students benefit from these supposed melodic correlates of emphasis, future studies should focus on the perception of classroom style didactic speech (or any other speech style) by students. To this point, in general, studies on the production of Spanish intonation far outnumber those focused on perception. Until scholars delve into perception in more detail, we will have a somewhat unclear picture of the effects or benefits that listeners receive from cues that seem to create emphasis on specific constituents that, for example, help them answer questions on an oral comprehension exam. This study hopes to be a building block, or initial step toward a more complete picture of how prosody contributes to oral comprehension in the classroom.

Lastly, the limitations of this study must be set forth, as they will hopefully inspire future methodological innovation. This data set comes from a small number of male speakers from one region of Spain. Future studies should aim to cover a larger range of speakers, perhaps from different geographic regions, as well as different age groups and genders. Based on previous work on dialectology, one would expect different realizations of didactic speech based on any (or multiple) of these factors (see Lipski, 1994; Sosa, 1999). Also, other prosodic variables, such as intensity and duration, which have been found to play a role in the prosodic manifestation of narrow focus, should be investigated with respect to didactic speech. It may be the case that one or both of these measures show even more effects than F0. They may even combine with F0 to create increased perceptual salience. We should also attempt to collect data from instructors addressing their students in real-time in speech that is not only of the read variety. While this is methodologically challenging, it would generate the most 'natural' data and allow for a more broad commentary on classroom-style didactic speech. Comparing in-class data to this study would potentially illuminate the effect of the physical presence of the L2 students.

Overall, this study is one phase of what will hopefully turn out to be a series of studies on didactic speech, or teacher talk, conducted by the field at large. The current findings contribute to our knowledge of Spanish intonation in a unique speech style, while also motivating and encouraging the pursuit of further work in this area. Ultimately, the goal is for future production and perception studies to gain momentum in the field of Spanish phonetics and phonology, as well as second language acquisition.

APPENDIX

This paragraph is an example of one of the texts read by the language instructors in this study.

En el mundo hispano la institución básica es la familia y siempre ha tenido más importancia que el trabajo, la política o cualquier diversión social, por eso es frecuente escuchar la frase: "Mi familia es lo más apreciado." Dentro de la familia tradicional el padre es el que trabaja fuera de casa para ganar dinero y mantener a su familia mientras que la madre tiene el papel de cuidar a la familia; así que ella trabaja dentro de la casa. Ella es la persona esencial para todo ya que planea las comidas diarias, los horarios de los hijos con sus inquietudes y, cuando hay problemas hace de intermediaria entre el padre y los hijos. Obviamente, el padre respeta esta posición tan especial que tiene la

madre dentro del núcleo familiar aunque tradicionalmente mantiene un papel dominante, tiene una gran autoridad sobre los hijos y es el encargado de disciplinarles. Como es común que los abuelos o los tíos vivan en el núcleo familiar, los hijos aprenden de sus padres a tratar con cariño a los otros familiares en ese contacto íntimo diario, y así desde pequeños comprenden la necesidad de llevarse bien con todos los miembros de la gran familia.

'In the Hispanic world the basic unit is the family, which has held more importance tan work, politics, or any other social activity, and as such, it is frequent to hear the phrase: "My family is what I appreciate the most." Within the traditional family the father works outside of the house to earn money and support his family while the mother has the role of taking care of the family; so she works in the house. She is the essential person for everything because she plans daily meals, the schedules of children and their worries, and, when there are problems, she plays the role of intermediary between father and children. Obviously, the father respects this special position that the mother holds within the nuclear family even though he traditionally maintains the dominant role, meaning he has a great amount of authority over the children and is responsible for disciplining them. Since it is common that grandparents or aunts/uncles live with the nuclear family, children learn from their parents how to treat other family members with love during their close daily contact, and therefore from a young age children understand the necessity of getting along well with all members of the great family.'

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Uptake in Task-elicited L2 Performance: Can Task Complexity Matter?

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***Abstract*—Concern with interaction seems to underlie a tendency to concentrate on learner and their production. Uptake, as a student initiated interaction in response to task, typically highlights the role of task-elicited interaction on the learners' part. This phenomenon is argued to lead to noticing salient features in L2 and fluency enhancement. What is, however, ignored is whether complexity of the eliciting task plays any role in the rate and frequency of uptake. This research focused on 60 Iranian students in teacher-initiated FFEE (focus on form episodes). Chi-square results indicated that task complexity could not determine the rate of uptake, but within the scope of the uptakes that occurred the successful ones were significantly due to task complexity. Results and implications are discussed.**

***Index Terms*—uptake, task, task complexity**

I. Introduction

Some of the most recent trends in SLA research have addressed the issue of acquisition from an interactional perspective. Mainly rooted in cognitive approaches to language acquisition, these trends lay emphasis on how learners linguistically perform in fulfilling L2 communication requirements relying on their stock of internalized language. A typical issue of interest for researchers and practitioners, informed by these approaches, is the notion of learner '*uptake*' (Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001a, Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001b; Loewen, 2004, 2005; Lyster 1998a, 1998b, 2004; Lyster and Mori, 2006; Lyster and Ranta, 1997 among others).

The term *uptake* originally comes from speech act theory and describes the relationship between illocutionary and perlocutionary acts (Smith, 2005). However, in SLA literature it is used with a different meaning. Allwright (1984) uses the term to refer to the language items that learners themselves claim to have learned from a particular lesson. Lyster and Ranta (1997) maintain that:

uptake refers to a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback to draw attention to some aspect of the student' s initial utterance (this overall intention is clear to the student although the teacher's specific linguistic focus may not be) (p. 49).

Smith (2005) summarizes definitions of uptake presented by Ellis et al. (2001a) as follows:

1. Uptake is student move.
2. The move is optional.
3. The uptake move occurs in episodes where learners have a demonstrated gap in their knowledge.
4. The uptake move occurs as a reaction to some preceding move in which another participant either explicitly or implicitly provides information about a linguistic feature.

Uptake is argued to a) demonstrate a mismatch between the learner utterance and lead to noticing on the learners' part (Lightbown, 1998), b) enhance fluency (Swain, 1995), c) contribute to operationalization of pushed output in classroom setting (Swain, 1985), d) prompt reanalysis and modification of non-target form in the output as the learners test new hypotheses about the target language (Lyster, 1998a) , and finally e) serve a predictor of overall performance on tests (Loewen, 2005).

A. Significance of Uptake

Smith (2005) believes that recent research into the nature and the role of uptake has been twofold, attempting, on the one hand to demonstrate which factors tend to elicit uptake, and, on the other hand, to explore the effectiveness of learner uptake. In Loewen's terms, the recent interest in uptake is due to its potential as an indication of second language acquisition (Loewen 2004). It is argued that there are theoretical grounds for associating uptake with potentials for acquisition. One way in which uptake may facilitate acquisition is by "providing opportunities for learners to proceduralize target language knowledge already internalized in declarative form" (Lyster, 1998a, p. 191). Drawing on processing approaches (to SLA Mc Laughlin, 1987; Mitchell and Myles, 2003), it can be said that learners first

resort to controlled processing in the second language. Through repeated activation, sequences first produced by controlled processing become automatic. Automatized sequences are stored as units in the long-term memory, which means that they can be made available very rapidly whenever the situation requires it, with minimal attentional control on the part of the subject (Mitchell and Myles 2003, p. 101). Seen from this viewpoint, language learning is the movement from controlled to automatic processing via practice (repeated activation). With these tokens, it can be claimed that learners, by producing the correct form (uptake), shift from controlled processing to automatic processing smoothly and efficiently.

Along these lines, Lightbown (1998, p. 193) suggested that a reformulated utterance from the learner gives some reason to believe that the mismatch between learner utterance and target utterance has been noticed, a step at least toward acquisition. Swain (1985), in the same vein, highlights the role of uptake in operationalizing student-teacher interaction to fortify pushed output, which is a source of hypothesizing and testing about target language on the learners' part.

Ellis et al. (2001b) make a distinction between successful uptake and unsuccessful uptake. Successful uptake was defined as uptake in which learners clearly demonstrated an ability to incorporate the information provided (e.g., by paraphrasing it) or to use the item correctly in their own utterances. Unsuccessful uptake was defined as uptake consisting of just an acknowledgment or a simple repetition of something the teacher had said or of the incorrect use of the item (Ellis et al. 2001b). Although such acknowledgments and repetitions were coded as uptake because they constituted a reaction to the information provided they were coded as unsuccessful because they did not clearly indicate that students had processed the information.

Ellis et al., (2001b) have employed the following categorization for the better study of 'uptake':

- No Uptake; the learner does not produce any uptake where uptake is possible.
- Recognize; the learner acknowledges the information received from the interlocutor in the response phase, using a variety of linguistic tokens including: okay, I see, I got it, aha, all right or mmm. This category also includes those moves where the learner acknowledges the information received in a longer utterance but does not use the target item productively.
- Apply; the learner actually uses the target item productively.

B. Findings on Uptake

Ellis et al., (2001a) found that uptake occurred in close to 75% of those focus on form episodes (FFEs) where it was possible. When uptake did occur, it was successful almost 75% of the time. Uptake was also more likely to occur in episodes involving negotiation of meaning, which in their study included negotiation around vocabulary, and was more common and more successful in complex rather than simple FFEs. Complex episodes, that is to say, involved more than one exchange among interactants, and simple episodes consisted of a single exchange. Moreover, uptake occurred more often and more successfully in FFEs that were responsive in nature (responding to a problematic learner utterance) and in those that were student rather teacher-initiated. Loewen (2004) found that 73% of all FFEs contained uptake. When uptake occurred, it was successful more than 61% of the time. In addition to investigating the frequency of uptake, studies also examined factors that might contribute to the production of uptake. For example, Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that elicitation was the most successful in generating uptake (100%), followed by clarification requests (88%), metalinguistic feedback (86%), repetition (78%), and the explicit correction (50%). Recasts were the least repairs" are more useful, because they involve students in greater amount of processing.

In Loewen (2004), complex FFEs were roughly four and a half times more likely than simple FFEs to produce uptake. He also showed that deferred FFEs were roughly one-fifth as likely to contain uptake as immediate FFEs. And additionally, elicits were three and a half times more likely result in uptake than were provides.

Drawing on earlier research, Smith (2005) suggests that uptake is more likely to occur and be successful in FFEs that (a) involve negotiated interaction, (b) are complex rather than simple in nature, and (c) are student rather than other initiated. Furthermore, uptake should not be viewed exclusively in terms of teacher-student error correction (Ellis et al., 2001a)

C. Task

Although a good many studies have concentrated on the process and outcome of uptake, no study has to date addressed the influence of a preceding phenomenon. A typically worthwhile issue to examine can be task. Task as a meaning-focused activity or set of activities is supposed to ensure language learner involvement in communicating meaning, which is likely to lead to implicit (i.e. natural) learning (see Crabbe, 2007). The great advantage of task, as Widdowson (2003) puts it, is providing opportunities for learner engagement in realizing the communicative potential of the encoded semantic resource.

Interestingly enough, the same cognitive orientation that informs uptake seems to underlie a substantial segment of studies in task research. Cognitive approach to task primarily concentrates on limited short-term memory capacity, which imposes processing burden on the learners' attentional resources (Ellis, 2005). The factors that trigger these processing demands are believed to lead to *'task complexity'* (see Robinson, 2001a for example). Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis (2001b, 2003, 2005, 2007) claims that increasing the cognitive demands (through increasing the cognitive complexity) of tasks along certain dimensions will; (a) push learners to greater accuracy and complexity of L2

production in order to meet the greater functional and conceptual communicative demands they place on the learner; (b) promote interaction, and heightened attention to and memory for input, so increasing learning from the input; as well as (c) longer term retention of input; and that (d) performing simple to complex sequences will also lead to automaticity and efficient scheduling of the components of complex L2 task performance. Robinson (2003, 2005) hypothesized that more interaction and uptake will result from complex performance that complex tasks will perceived as more difficult, stressful and learners will show less confidence in performing that. Robinson (2007b, p. 193), also, found that tasks requiring complex reasoning about character's intentional states led to significantly more interaction.

The Cognition Hypothesis also connects input and interaction to the cognitive and conceptual demands of tasks that lead to differential amounts of interaction, or uptake of forms made salient in the input to tasks (Robinson, 2007 b). Following Long (1996), the Cognition Hypothesis claims that such negotiation provides a context for attending to problematic forms in the input and output, and additionally that on complex versions of tasks will require greater attention to, and uptake of forms made salient during provision of reactive focus on Form techniques such as recasts (see Long, 2007).

Robinson (2007b) demonstrated that measures of uptake partial and uptake per turn differ significantly across task versions. He came up with significantly more uptake on complex versus simple versions. That is to say, Robinson (2007b), operationalized uptake as use of premodified input provided proactively in the materials used to support task performance. The present study, moreover, seeks to fill the gap in the literature felt by Robinson (2007b) that "no study to date has examined the effects of task complexity on uptake". Moreover, given the acquisitional potential of 'uptake' that may be facilitative of language acquisition (Ellis et al., 2001b, Loewen, 2004); it seems promising to investigate learner uptake during performing complex tasks vs. simpler ones. Attaching acquisitional value to learner uptake means that more learner uptake may be concomitant to more opportunities for 'noticing' (Loewen, 2004), and more language acquisition opportunities (Robinson, 2007b).

D. Task Complexity in the Scope of the Present Study

Elaborating on dimension of task complexity would be well outside the scope of the present paper. This being the case, and also for the purpose of singling out complex tasks as variables in this study, the authors have concentrated on the notion of 'interconnectedness' as an instance of cognitive complexity.

Interconnectedness, as the name suggests, can be described as the state in which elements in a task are not clearly separated, but rather involve a connection or overlap. Gilabert (2007) relates the complexity of language produced by learners to increases in task demands assigning them to the manifestations of interconnectedness: specifying referential location, referring to a set of similar landmarks, and direction towards the goal and perspective along different axes, and higher degree of similarity.

According to Robinson (2001b) tasks that involve clearly distinguishable elements ". . . . are simpler than tasks which require many similar elements to be distinguished from each other (e. g., cars in a traffic jam, buildings and streets on a map, or suspects in a police line-up)" (pp. 312-3).

Skehan (1998b), though quite implicitly, raises the issue of interconnectedness as a predictor of difficulty (which is of course equivalent for complexity in his own terms):

…more elements or characters make for greater task difficulty. Also important, but less developed, is the idea that the nature of the relationship between the elements contributes separately to task difficulty. This suggests that different sorts of relationship may lead to different degrees of difficulty (p. 103)

The Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2001a, 2001b, 2005a) suggests that reference to few easily distinguished elements is easier than reference to many similar elements or interconnected ones. It can be claimed that the higher the similarity among the elements of a task, the more complex will be the task. In the same vein, Evans and Marciniak (1987) suggested that complexity is related to the intricacy of systems, the higher the number of factors and relations within a system, and the higher the amount of element interactivity, the more complex this system is.

With this background in mind the present study seeks to answer the following research questions:

II. Research Questions

R. Q. 1. Does task complexity influence the rate of uptake in task-elicited oral performance in L2?

R. Q. 2. Does complexity of the task significantly determine the frequency of successful uptakes in the elicited performance?

III. Method

A. Participants

Participants were 60 volunteer Iranian male EFL learners, aged between 17 and 25 (mean= 20) who had been in lower intermediate level of oral proficiency in English. The participants included 38 learners from a private language institute in Miandoab, Iran. Their cohorts were from Jihad Daneshgahi Language institute in Urumia (22 male learners). Based on the levels of the courses they had enrolled in and on the results of their in-house language placement tests (including written and oral interview tests), the participants were considered as homogeneous. They could also pass two

immediate last terms with an average of over 85 out of 100. Before participating in the research, the participants (in both sites) had received English education for approximately five years. They had also passed two immediate with an average of over 85 out of 100 in the earlier semester. The participants were from different L1 backgrounds, including Turkish, Persian, and Kurdish. Deliberate attempts have been made to select participants randomly and avoid any bias towards any group of the learners. The selection procedure was done according to the student number allocated to each student through drawing lots procedure. All the participants in this study expressed their satisfaction prior to the research and they were told that the result would not have any effect on the students' grades in the courses they were taking.

B. Materials

Two versions of the same decision-making task (one simple and another complex task) were replicated from Gilabert (2007). A simplified 'fire chief' task used in cognitive psychology was utilized. In this task, (see the appendix) learners were presented with a building where a fire had broken out and a number of people needed to be rescued. The problem in the complex version required the learners not just one decision, but a long series of decisions, in which early decisions lead to later ones. In both versions of the task learners were instructed to specify the actions they would take, determine the sequence of their actions, and justify their choice for actions and specific sequences of the actions they would like to do. In the simple task, there were similar types of people (i.e. people with no particular roles) in the building who were encountered with similar degrees of danger; the fire being relatively static, the smoke blowing away from the building and the learners had many resources (three fire trucks and a helicopter). In the complex one, learners had to deal with people who had specific roles (e.g. a pregnant woman, an elderly man, an injured person, a hero). The factors in the complex task were also intricately related and dynamic (e.g. the different fires moving towards the people and the smoke blowing into building through the ventilation system) and they had fewer resources (i.e. a single fire truck), which is thought would force learners to prioritize, and later justify their actions (Gilabert, 2007). The dimension of task complexity addressed was increases in reasoning demands (complex task has more reasoning demands than the simple one).

As pointed out by Robinson and Gilabert (2007), task complexity, in this task, was enhanced through *interconnectedness.* Since interconnectedness among the variables present in a task contributes to its complexity and places heavy burden on the learner attentional and reasoning as well as short- term memory capacities.

C. Procedure

Data collection took place in a quiet room in each language institute. It was done in a dyadic condition. Nobody other than the first researcher and each participant were present. Apart from age and first language background, no personal information was obtained. After collecting personal information and achieving rapport with the participants, they were told of the demands of the task at hand. The participants were provided with one or two words (e. g, fire truck) which had found to be problematic during pilot study.

The participants did the simple and complex tasks consecutively with a 30-minute time gap. The participants were given one minute prior to task performance to think how to do the required task. They were allocated up to seven minutes to perform the specified task.

The participants, looking at the tasks, transacted the tasks and if they came up with a linguistic error, they have been provided by the corrective feedback (e. g. recast) to correct their erroneous utterances. Their responses to the researcher's corrective feedback were either successful uptake or unsuccessful uptake. In some cases, researcher's corrective feedback went unnoticed on the part of the participants (hence No Uptake). It should be mentioned that the whole procedure of the data collection was audiotaped.

Uptake, in this study, was studied through identifying the Focus on Form Episodes (FFES) within the interactions (as done by Loewen, 2004). An FFE was defined as consisting of " the discourse from the point where the attention to linguistic form starts to the point where it ends, due to a change in topic back to message or sometimes another focus on form (Ellis et al., 2001a). After identifying FFES, the uptake moves were classified according to the classification has used by (Ellis et al., 2001a) was employed.

As stated earlier, uptake was operationalized as learners' responses to the teacher corrective feedback on a linguistic item. These responses make take several states: a. Successful Uptake; in which learners demonstrated an ability to incorporate the information provided or to use item correctly in their utterances (Ellis et al., 2001a):

S: in third level.

T: third floor?

S: yeah, third floor. (This extract has been taken from the present study).

Unsuccessful Uptake was defined as uptake consisting of just an acknowledgement or simple repetition of something the teacher has said or of the incorrect use of the item (Ellis et al, 2001a)**;**

S: he need to be help.

T: needs to be helped.

S: yeah, he needs to help. (This extract has been taken from the present study)

In this FFE, the researcher responded to the learner's erroneous utterance through corrective feedback. Having noticed the feedback, the learner incorporated part of the linguistic items into his own output (NEEDS), at the same time he failed to incorporate (TO BE HELPED) into his production (hence, Unsuccessful Uptake).

Ellis et al., 2001a pointed out, operationally, this consisted of uptake coded as Acknowledge, Needs repair, Recognize, or Needs application. No Uptake category means learner does not respond to the teacher's corrective feedback.

For the purpose of data analysis, successful and unsuccessful uptakes were added; because unsuccessful uptake is considered as learner's attempt to be more accurate. This is exactly the point asserted by Loewen (2004).

No Uptake category means that the learner has not responded to the corrective feedback of the teacher:

S: I think best way is that….

T: The best way?

S: No response

In this situation the learner continues to his own production and pays no attention to the corrective feedback of the teacher.

D. Data Collection

The gathered data were organized into two figures. The first figure contained the data on the rate of uptake. In other words, uptake as opposed to no-uptake outcomes (quantified through Frequency of Focus on Form Episodes) across simple and complex tasks were presented (see Figure 1 below). The second table further distinguished the uptake into successful vs. unsuccessful uptakes in simple vs. complex task situations (see Table 2).

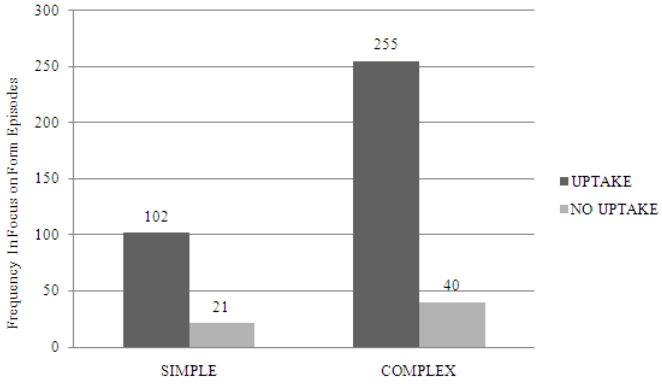


Figure 1. Uptake vs. no uptake outcomes in simple vs. complex task situations in terms of the frequency of FFEs (Focus on Form Episodes)

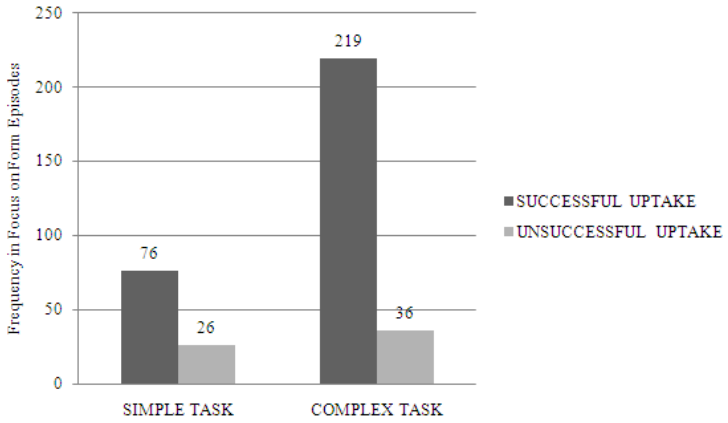


Figure 2. Successful vs. unsuccessful uptakes in simple vs. complex tasks situations in terms of the frequency of FFEs (Focus on Form Episodes).

E. Data Analysis

Since the type of the data collected was frequency, for each of the two research questions a 2x2 Chi-square test was employed for hypothesis testing using SPSS 17: For research question one, the Chi-square value turned out to be 0.86 which was not significant at $p < 0.05$. See Table 1 below.

TABLE 1.
CHI-SQUARE RESULTS FOR UPTAKE VS NO-UPTAKE ACROSS SIMPLE AND COMPLEX TASK PERFORMANCES.

	value	df	Significance
Chi-square	0.86	1	0.35

For research question two, the Chi-square value was 6.56, large enough in value to reject the null hypothesis. See Table 2 below.

TABLE 2.
CHI-SQUARE RESULTS FOR SUCCESSFUL VS. UNSUCCESSFUL UPTAKES ACROSS SIMPLE AND COMPLEX PERFORMANCES

	value	df	Significance
Chi-square	6.55	1	0.01*

*significant at $p < 0.05$

Significant differences obtained for successful vs. unsuccessful uptakes across simple and complex tasks suggest that successful uptake occurred with a higher frequency in complex task than in simple task.

IV. DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

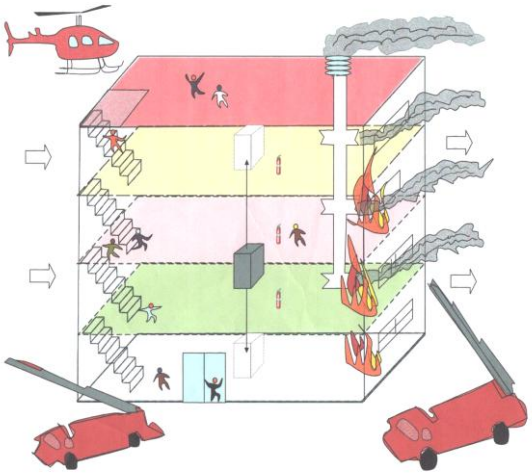
For research question 1 "*Does task complexity influence the rate of uptake in task-elicited oral performance in L2?*" the statistical analysis indicated the rate of uptake was not determined by task complexity. This is contradicted by Ellis et al (2001 a), Loewen (2004) Smith (2005) and Robinson (2007) who support a high rate of uptake for FFEs. The finding as such, at least on the scale of this study, suggests that interaction as a process is dynamic, complicated and unpredictable. The increase in cognitive demands of the task due to the influence of the complex task could not prompt the learners to produce utterances following the teachers' feedback. Therefore, as far as the learner is concerned, feedback on the teacher's part is no guarantee that uptake will occur. The fact that the rate of uptake can be independent of the complexity of the task might mean that production of uptake can be a matter of task-specific requirements, developmental readiness of the learners or even affective factors. Also, it must be noted that variations in terms of context may have their impact on the rate of uptake in task-elicited form-focused interaction.

Concerning research question 2, "*Does complexity of the task significantly determine the frequency of successful uptakes in the elicited performance*?" the statistical analysis revealed a significantly high frequency of successful uptake for complex task than for simple task. This finding is supported by Ellis et al (2001 a), Loewen (2004) Smith (2005) and Robinson (2007c) who reported that most uptakes were successful. There are no refuting results in this regard. Drawing on Lyster (1998b), it can be claimed that learners in the study show signs of moving from controlled to automatic processing through producing successful uptakes. Also, following Ellis et al. (2001) learners were shown to possess either the ability to incorporate the information provided in the FFEs or to employ the language item accurately in their task-elicited speech.

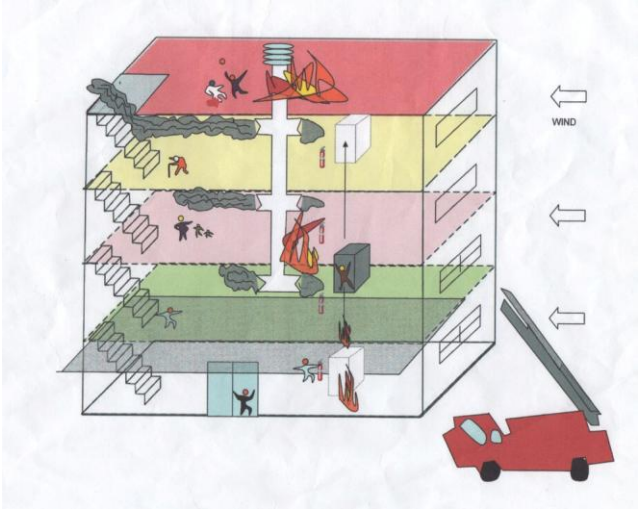
To put together the answers to the two research questions, it can be claimed that within the scope of the present study, task complexity did not significantly affect the rate of uptake, but it did determine the frequency of successful uptake.

Studying the relationship between uptake and task can be very enlightening in several ways. First, uptake can be a criterion against which differential degrees of noticing during and after task performance can be gauged. In this way, cognitive capacity of the learners for task performance can be ensured which is yet another yardstick for grading and sequencing tasks. Further research can examine the hypothetical claim that the automatized processing represented by correct form production (uptake) (Mitchell and Myles, 2003), can free the learners' attentional resources to attend to fluency, with the latter being one of the core commitments of task-based instructional approaches. Another way in which task and uptake can mutually benefit is to incorporate uptake in the psycholinguistic approach to task, which lays emphasis on the role of interaction and the way it can contribute to negotiation of meaning (Gass 2002; Mackey, Gass, and McDonough, 2000). Findings on uptake can also bear potentials for socio-cultural approach to task-elicited interaction. Within this approach learning is viewed a social action subject to the learners' collaborative co-construction (Lantolf, 2000; Duff, 1993; Coughlan and Duff, 1994; Swain and Lapkin, 2001; Van Lier and Matsu, 2000, Nakahama, Tyler & Van Lier, 2001; Skehan, 2003).

APPENDIX 1: SIMPLE TASK



APPENDIX 2: COMPLEX TASKS



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Noumenal Recognition and Functional Value of "Translated Literature"

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***Abstract*—"Translated literature" refers to the recreation of foreign literature according to the independent understanding of the translator because of his or her particular value judgment and moral standard. Thus, the translated works not only show the independent aesthetics of the translator, but also root in the native cultural environment. "Translated literature" now belongs to a special literature category. The paper analyzes the disputes that "Translated literature" causes, and tries to recognize the noumenon and functional value of "Translated literature" from the following aspects: first, translator's rewriting is more important; second, "Translated literature" shares the same readers with Chinese literature—Chinese readers; third, "Translated literature" has a great influence on both Chinese literature and Chinese society. Sequentially, it provides reasons for the definition of "Translated literature" as a special category of Chinese literature. Having a better knowledge of noumenon and function of "Translated literature" is attaching importance to itself and showing respects to translators, and is significantly useful to the development of modern "Translated literature".**

***Index Terms*—"Translated literature", categorization, recreation, function**

I. Introduction

In common opinion, translation is a means of cultural interaction. Technically, translation is the act of transferring the meaning of a text from one language into another. Functionally, translation aims at ensuring "readers of a translated text to be able to comprehend it to the point that they can conceive of how the original readers of the text must have understood and appreciated it" or "the readers of a translated text to be able to understand and appreciate it in essentially the same manner as the original readers did" (Eugene A. Nida, 2001, p.87). It is cultural interaction and international communication that promotes the flourish of translating activity. There are different kinds of translated texts almost in every country and in every epoch of the nation. However, there was no common view of which kind of literature the translated texts, later we call it "Translated literature", belongs to, and even it was not paid as much attention as it should be paid. Historically, in some special epoch, translated texts enjoyed the same status as or even higher status than native texts, just like the period of time after The May 4th Movement, and during Anti-Japanese War. In those epochs, Chinese people were suffering politic dark time and Japanese invasion, and what they needed were foreign advanced knowledge and technology, and encouragement for peace and freedom. According to people's desire, translated texts were flourishing in order to broaden their horizon and give them hope and encouragement. "Translated literature" at those times was more important and more influential than native literature. However, the category or the nationality of "Translated literature" was not very clear and publicly recognized. Traditionally, people preferred to classify "Translated literature" into foreign literature, but at present, represented by Professor Xie Tianzhen(2008), "Translated literature" is more regarded as native literature. Nowadays, more and more people think translating is not only transference of meaning, but also a kind of introduction and communication of ideas, attitudes, and, the most important, cultures. According to the new features of translating, "Translated literature" seems to be special too. It is definitely a translated text of foreign text, containing original ideas and contents, while it is translated by receptor writer, added different expressions and new attitudes, which make the translated text apart from both original text and native literature.

II. Noumenal Recognition of "Translated Literature"

A. Introduction of Divarication and Dispute

In order to know the noumenon of "Translated literature", we'd better have an overview of translation itself. Translating activity has a history of over several thousand years. We are quite familiar with it, but have never recognized it as a real discipline. Translation, in today's view, is still ambiguous in methods and rules. Traditionally, loyalty in translating is dominant. Almost everybody regarded loyal to original texts as fundamental requirements of translating activity. At that time, original texts enjoyed such a high status in translators' minds that all of them did not think they have any rights to change, either add or lose, anything of works of others. All they should do is to express in another language as exactly as possible the meanings and ideas of original texts. Thus, loyalty becomes foundation and law of translating activity.

However, with the establishment of equivalence, especially dynamic equivalence put forward by Eugene Nida (2001), there seems to be problems. There is always something failing to be translated into another language, so absolute loyalty is impossible. And what degree of loyalty is allowed or what kind of loyalty should be the first choice? Are there any particular standards or criterions for the evaluation of the translating and translated works? All these questions were raised up to question and shake the status of loyalty in translating activity. Actually, loyalty is quite invisible, which means that nobody can expressively define what loyalty exactly is. And this non-definition seems to be an obstacle of the establishment of translation discipline.

Professor Xie Tianzhen (1999) had a research and raised his own opinions on the questions above in his book *Medio-Translatology.* He brought a new conception "Creative Treason" in translating activity, by which he thought that "we begin to know from translating activity that what literary translation is supposed to be is different from what it actually is" (Xie Tianzhen, 1999, p.130). On the basis of Creative Treason, Professor Xie proved that translated texts cannot be equal to original literary works. Because of the traditional sense of loyalty, people regard translated texts as just the translation of original ones. What they only care about the original content and meaning. Unfortunately they regard "Translated literature" as complete attachment to original literature, which is inferior to the latter one, and ignore the independent value of translated texts. Professor Xie thought it was unfair to "Translated literature", since "Translated literature" is a real existence of original literature to widen the range of readers and to have an influence on them as to prolong the life of original literature. Thus, "Translated literature" has its unique value of existence and should be thought as a unique kind of literature, which is, by the words of Professor Xie, not equal to original literature, but a part of receptor literature. Firstly, original literature must show something of the authors, such as ethos, tastes, beliefs, customs, etc. For instance, in the political speech, there is always lots of religious words, like "in the name of God" in Abraham Lincoln's *Gettysburg Address*, or "God" in John F. Kennedy's *Inaugural Address*, and Martin Luther King thinks we all are "sons of God". However, God, or Emperor of Heaven, cannot appear in Chinese political speeches. Thus, it is difficult for translators to translate these elements into Chinese edition. Here, lose and false are inevitable. These elements are bound to the degree of decipherability. These limits, plus the Creative Treason, make the so-called equivalence not so absolute. Secondly, literary translation is closely related to literary creation. In Lefevere's (1992) view, translating is rewriting. In the course of such rewriting, translator would transplant native culture into translated text in order to make it easier to be understood and accepted by native readers. And since many translators are actually writers in native literature, their translating and their writing are absolutely mutually influenced. From those points of view, "Translated literature" is much closer to receptor literature.

B. Definition of "Translated Literature"

As we know from *Medio-Translatology* written by Professor Xie, translation should be considered as an independent discipline, for the following reasons: literary translation not only means the conversion of two different languages, but also the transference of some messages about cultures and traditions. In Chinese literary translation, "Translated literature" means to transplant foreign cultures and traditions onto our native cultures and traditions or to translate the foreign messages into a kind of messages that we can accept and understand. In the course of translation, sometimes the translator would consciously or unconsciously make some mistakes or leave out some words or parts. Professor Xie brought "Creative Treason" in explaining such kind of loss or distortion of cultural imagoes or traditions. A new subject called "Medio-Translatology" then comes up. On one hand, the literary works which are translated into another language must convey their original literary characteristics. On the other hand, during the translation of the words and the transference of the culture and tradition, there are many times of communications and conflicts between different cultures which, in the end, turn to be assimilative with each other and be absorbed by each other. In a real context, the translator's value judgment and moral standard would have a great influence on the understanding and translation of the original works.

Translation is a means of cultural interaction. Instead of only paying attention to language transference, it considers both the function of language and the limitation of culture in translating process. "Translated literature" regards translated texts as a new type of literature and an independent type apart from foreign literature and complete native literature. One reason is its property—being a translated work. For the translator's idea being added into the original works, the translated texts would definitely not be the same as the original ones. Another reason is its exotic features. As it is the translated edition of foreign literature, it is not the same as native literature, so it cannot be included into native literature.

We regard "Translated literature" as the recreation of translated literary works according to the understanding and independent thinking of the translator because of his or her particular value judgment and moral standard. In this way, the translated works not only show the independent aesthetics of the translator, but also roots in the native cultural environment.

In some particular time of China, "Translated literature" should convey more social functions such as enlightenment, saving the nation from extinction, etc. than just literary function. Nowadays, "Translated literature" still has its unique charm and value. Each epoch has its own idea and feature as the mainstream. Creative Treason allows translators to change the different ideology to be suit for the mainstream of the time and the expectations of readers at that time. "Translated literature" is just the second life for original literature. It is not only a new form of original ones, but also a new one with a complete and longer life in the new language and cultural environment.

C. Features of "Translated Literature"

a. Review of the former features

Even-Zohar (1990) has suggested that "Translated literature" had taken the primary position as well as the secondary position. When it is in a certain period or cultural background, "Translated literature" would take up the primary position as to create new words and expressions; while it is in the secondary position, it would only consolidate the existing expressions and language structures. In his opinion, the status of "Translated literature" is determined by the status of literature in the nation, and the status of "Translated literature", primary position or secondary position, would to a large degree influence the translating methods and policies used by translators. There are three social situations suggested by Even-Zohar when "Translated literature" is in primary position. Firstly, when the polysystem of the culture has not been formed, namely, the native literature is still young or the "young" literature is being established and looks initially to "older" literatures for ready-made models. Secondly, when a literature is "peripheral" or "weak" and imports those literary types which it is lacking. This can happen when a smaller nation is dominated by the culture of a larger one. Thirdly, when there is a critical turning point in literary history at which established models are no longer considered sufficient, or when there is a vacuum in the literature of the country (1999, p.47). Where no type holds sway, it is easier for foreign models to assume primacy. When "Translated literature" is in the primary position in a literary polysystem, "Translated literature" is regarded very close to original literature. Just like foreignization, in order to introduce the foreign literature, translators would disturb the writer as little as possible and move the reader in his direction. As a result, both the native literature and "Translated literature" would be enriched. However, when "Translated literature" is in the secondary position, it will become marginal. Translators may prefer to use a method of domestication, which means to disturb the reader as little as possible and move the writer in his direction. In this situation, translation is more like a method to protect the traditional features than a method to introduce new ideas. In other words, translators try to find out an existing language form for their translation, which aims not to introduce new writing skills but to consolidate existing aesthetic structure.

There are truly some particular periods in Chinese history for the "Translated literature" being in the primary position, like The May 4th Movement and Anti-Japanese War. At those periods, Chinese literary is in crisis or vacuum, and it was at some important turning points. Native literature became weak and eager to accept new literary works. At the same time, foreign literature is much stronger than Chinese literature because of the differences of power of nations. This kind of difference would influence the methods and policies used in translating. Translators would prefer to use foreignizing translation. Thus, with the least change of foreign features, we would prefer consider "Translated literature" as a part of foreign literature and it is not accounted of.

b. New features

"Translated literature" becoming more and more important and widely noticed is very much close to the provocation of its status by Professor Xie Tianzhen (2008). In his early articles, he has already suggested that the inevitable creative treason in literary translation decided that "Translated literature" is not equal to foreign literature and put forward a suggestion resuming the status of "Translated literature" in Chinese modern literature. Later Professor Xie insisted that it was a kind of blurry recognition to regard "Translated literature" the same as foreign literature. He thought that foreign literature was the shadow of a shade and what we actually read and touched is just "Translated literature". In 2004, the idea of Professor Xie is the most popular and prevailing. More and more scholars agree that "Translated literature" is a part of receptor literature. It is not only because the language form has been changed in translation, but also because the translating of foreign literature has been limited by expectation and requirement of receptor culture, like the content, the process and the function of literature. Thus, "Translated literature" is not the same as the foreign literature, but a new kind of literature with independent literary value mixed with receptor culture. Moreover, they think that "Translated literature" is crucial to promoting the formation and development of Chinese modern literature, so it is necessary to admit its new status in Chinese literature.

However, there are still some contradictory voices to the new idea. Someone would ask that what "Translated literature" would be if there was no foreign literature, or how translators work without writers' works. We do not deny that "Translated literature" do come from foreign literature and depend on foreign literature. Professor Wang Xiangyuan has said that translators read more exactly and intensively than we do, and translated works are not substitutes inferior to original works. "Translated literature" is a kind of literature being translated from foreign literature. But the key word is translated. It contains the work of translators. In the past, people made light of translation, probably because they just saw the imitation of translation and did not see the recreation of translation.

There is another argument. Now that it is despising the translator if regarding "Translated literature" as foreign literature, it is also despising the writer if regarding "Translated literature" as receptor literature. They think that it is overstatement of recreation of translator. In their view, recreation is just in language transference, not in the content and art value. To regard "Translated literature" as receptor literature is a sort of denial to the real creation of original writers. They suggest that "Translated literature" should be regarded as an independent literature, neither belonging to foreign literature nor belonging to receptor literature.

As a matter of fact, the suggestion of Professor Xie, regarding "Translated literature" as a particular part of Chinese literature, is really novel and original. It provides a new scope to study "Translated literature", and let us have a new attitude towards "Translated literature". We have never thought Zhu Shenghao's translation of Shakespeare as Chinese

literature, and Yang Xianyi and Gladys Yang's translation of *A Dream of Red Mansions* as foreign literature. But how can you say that Shakespeare's plays in Chinese language are foreign literature, and that *A Dream of Red Mansions* in English belongs to Chinese literature? Of course, it is not wise to decide the nationality of "Translated literature" according to language. We can decide it through the function and aim. "Translated literature" aims at providing a platform for native readers having knowledge of foreign literature, which is the same as the native literature, also providing knowledge for native readers. Both "Translated literature" and receptor literature have the same group of readers—receptor readers. So I think it is reasonable to regard "Translated literature" as a particular part of receptor literature.

c. Causes of new features

First we should make it clear that the new feature of "Translated literature" is the translators' work in it. Because new ideas of translators and new structures and forms of expressions are added into the translated texts, it could be a new kind of literature accepted by many scholars.

"Translated literature" is at first a kind of literature, while literary translation is an activity, which aims at making the translated texts a kind of literature. Not all literary translations will become "Translated literature", and not all the translators can create "Translated literature". There are a lot of translated texts not good enough for understanding and appreciation, which cannot be called as "Translated literature". "Translated literature" is the best part of literary translation. To make literary translation into "Translated literature" is the aim and expectation of any translator.

"Translated literature" is a kind of "hybrid", a term of biology for offspring of two different kinds of animals or plants, which is now used for describing the new subject created by the reciprocity of two different subjects with absolutely distinct characteristics. This kind of "hybrid" not only inherits the characteristics of its "parents", but also states some new features quite different from its "parents".

Eugene Nida (2001) once applied Chomsky's generative-transformational grammar to translation and described translation as four steps: first, analyzing source language into the basic elements of the deep structure; second, transferring the basic elements into target language; third, restructuring semantically and stylistically into the surface structure of target language; fourth, testing. Actually, these steps can be used for explaining the new features of "Translated literature". In the first step, when analyzing the source text, different translators may care different elements. And in the transferring step and restructuring step, both target culture and translators' abilities would make a difference in translation.

We all know that literature has a very close relation with culture. Chinese literature being quite different from western literature is mostly influenced by different cultures in China and western countries. For example, religious culture plays an important role in western literature, but it is not so important in Chinese literature. Thus, translation of such sort of literature without any conversions may be not much popular among Chinese readers. While Chinese culture cares more about family relations, especially in ancient Chinese. So family hierarchy, promissory marriage, virginity, etc. appears quite often in Chinese literature, however, the translated texts of such kind of literature seem quite queer and indigestible to western readers. Due to cultural limits, reasonable translation should have some conversions to adjust to the target culture and target readers.

Even-Zohar's (1990) polysystem theory is very similar with above cultural limits. Polysystem sees "Translated literature" as a system operating in larger social, literary and historical systems of target culture. Its essence is that a literary work is not studied in isolation but as part of a literary system. Literature is part of the social cultural and historical framework and the key concept in that of the system. This polysystem is not a single system, but a system constructed by different elements and systems. In this polysystem, different elements and systems mutually cross, overlap and depend, functioning as a united system.

This kind of limit is concluded by Theo Hermans, English modern translation theorist and successor of polysystem theory, who suggested manipulation of literature, as three elements: ideology, poetics and patronage. Native ideology is crucial in translation of foreign literature. Take American as an example. Investigators have found that the poems of Han Shan, a poet in Tang Dynasty in China, were very popular in American society in 1950s and 1960s. At that time, almost all the undergraduates knew and read the poems of Han Shan. But as Chinese undergraduates, we are actually not familiar with this poet and his poems. Research has founded that the skills and expressions of translated poems were not the main reason for the popular of Han Shan's poems, while the main ideas of those poems—calling for coming back to nature and intuition, resisting the social conservative ideas and actions—were very much close to the value pursued by the American generation of 1930s and 1950s. In other words, the popular ideology in 1950s and 1960s of American society promoted the popular of Han Shan's poems in America. Poetics is also important in translating limits. It is not a study of poems. It refers to entire literary system. Specifically, it refers to inventory, genres, themes and literary devices that comprise any literary system. In first three decades of 20th century, Chinese ancient poems were largely translated into English in American society. Among them were Ezra Pound's *Cathay* (1915, 1919) and rewriting and translating of poems of Li Bai and Wang Wei, Amy Lowell and Florence Ayscough's *Fir-flower Tablets* (1921), which contained over 160 Chinese ancient poems, largely poems of Li Bai, W.J. Bainbridge-netcher's *Gems from Chinese Verse* (1918) and *More Gems from Chinese Verse* (1919), Witter Bynner's *The Jade Mountain Being Three Hundred Poems of the Tang Dynasty* (1929), cooperated with Jiang Kanghu, etc. The popular of translation of Chinese ancient poems was directly related to the recommendation of imagism by Pound, Lowell, etc. the pioneers of the

American New Poetry Movement. It is the same as the situation in China in 1950s and 1960s. At that time, Chinese main poetic principle is socialistic realism, which made western modernistic poems difficult to be published in China, while the socialistic realistic poems of Soviet Union and Eastern European socialistic countries were largely translated into Chinese. And the last one, patronage, is easier to understand to limit translation. Patronage here refers to those who are the powers (persons, institutions) that can further or hinder the reading, writing, and rewriting of literature, such as an influential and powerful individual in a given historical era (Elizabeth I in Shakespeare's England, Hitler in 1930s Germany), groups of people (publishers, the media, a political class or party) and institutions which regulate the distribution of literature and literary idea (national academies, academic journals and, above all, the educational establishment). The Chinese version of David Lodge's *Small World* is published in the People's Republic of China. The original contains a lot of sex descriptions. In choosing this work for translation, the producers are embracing an offensive ideology to the central system in China's ideological polysystem mainly because of the descriptions of sex in the work. In the translation, one can find that although some descriptions of sex do remain, over twenty passages at least have been deleted or diluted. In China, explicit descriptions of sex in translations and original works are likely to incur severe punishment after publication, and therefore the producers cannot go too far even if they wish to challenge the dominant ideology.

Due to those limits and causes in translation, "Translated literature" is doomed to be different with original literature, and quite closer to receptor literature.

III. Function and Value of "Translated Literature"

A. Diachronic Study of Function

"Translated literature" is the result of literary translation activity. Diachronically, on the basis of history of Chinese "Translated literature", Chinese literary translation movement can be traced back to the translation of sutra in Han dynasty. The whole procession can be divided into three periods: ancient translation period, neoteric translation period, and modern translation period. Among the three periods, it seems that Chinese modern translation plays a very important role in promoting the formation and development of Chinese modern literature. In ancient translation period, the translation of sutra dominated translation activity at that time. With Buddhism spread into China in late East Han dynasty, some dignitaries and monks from middle Asia came to China to do some translation of the sutras. The first recorded sutra in China was translated by An Qing in 151, and the first Chinese taking part in sutra translation was Yan Fodiao, who recorded and translated what the middle Asian dignitaries and monks said. The second period is neoteric translation period. Even-Zohar thought that the prosperity of translation in a nation showed the feebleness of one's culture. With the rapid development of western industry, some scholars began to translate western books concerning advanced science and culture into Chinese to broaden Chinese people's horizon. Some scholars threw themselves into literary translation movement. Yan Fu translated Huxley's *Evolution and Ethics*, renamed *On Evolution*; Lin Shu translated Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin*; Su Manshu translated Byron's and Hugo's masterpieces. They were actually pioneers of literary translation activity. After 1919, many literary groups and translation organizations were founded, which boosts the development of literary translation. There were a large number of writers engaged in translation work, such as Lu Xun, Guo Moruo, Mao Dun, Zheng Zhenduo, Bin Xin, Fu Donghua, Cao Jinghua, Li Jiye, etc. From 1937 to 1945, Fu Lei mainly translated novels of Balzac, Zhu Shenghao translated plays of Shakespeare, while Li Jianwu translated dramas of Moliere, all of which established their status in the history of Chinese modern "Translated literature". In modern translation period, actually after Cultural Revolution, Chinese literary translation makes great achievements. A lot of excellent translators appeared, proposing to establish translatology and translation theory. They did some researches on the noumenon of literary translation, including its essence, standards, methods, styles, etc. They also did some researches on other subjects regarding literary translation, such as literary translation criticism, information of translators, the history of translation theory, the history of "Translated literature", etc. Obviously, their numerous outstanding translation works lay a foundation for the study of Chinese "Translated literature".

B. Value of Impact on Modern Literature

"Translated literature", especially Chinese modern "Translated literature", is valuable to the birth and growth of Chinese modern literature in a historical sense. The birth and growth of Chinese modern literature is connected with themes at that time—saving the nation from extinction. However, it is also concerned with "Translated literature". Many Chinese writers have learnt a lot from "Translated literature", and been influenced by it. "Translated literature" is not only a media, but also an origin. Firstly, "Translated literature" promotes the innovation of Chinese modern literary ideas and conceptions. Members of New Youth Agency, Chen Duxiu, Hu Shi, Zhou Zuoren, Liu Bannong, etc. through translating the masterpieces of Turgenev, Wilde, Maupassant, Ibsen, Tagore, etc. brought new ideas into Chinese culture, such as gender equality, free marriage, etc. and led Movement of New Culture. Secondly, "Translated literature" overthrows Chinese traditional literary value system, strikes the status of old literary style, and promotes diversification of narrative patterns of Chinese novels. Take novels for example. Translated novels get rid of ponderous old form of chapters. This change upgrades the status of Chinese novels. Lin Shu's translated novels covers a large number of themes, varying from love stories, adventure stories, detective stories, historic stories to gods and spirits stories, which largely enriches the types of Chinese modern novels. And after then, novels dominates Chinese literary world. Then

move to poems. The establishment of new style of Chinese modern poems is directly influenced by "Translated literature". The poem collections of Tagore translated by Zheng Zhenduo have a great influence on Chinese poems of new literary period. Guo Moruo, Xu Zhimo, Dai Wangshu, etc. also translated a lot of excellent foreign poems, which are very important for the development of the formation of new poems. In dramas, "Translated literature" not only influences Chinese modern dramatists, but also influences the outgrowth of drama itself. The design, technique, and structure of Guo Moruo's *Rebirth of Goddess* are obviously influenced by those of Goethe and Schiller. Thirdly, "Translated literature" enriches both the theories and creations of Chinese modern literature. "Translated literature" introduces classicalism, romanticism, realism and naturalism in western literature into Chinese literature theories, and provides new creative methods and expressive patterns for Chinese writers.

In neoteric period of China, the function of "Translated literature" is to broaden our horizon, to find the essential and helpful messages, to learn the advanced technology and methods, in order to abandon the scum and have a renascence. In modern China, with frequent communication and contact with outdoor world, Chinese culture becomes more and more mixed and synthetic. Different kinds of foreign literature have been translated into Chinese as to satisfy different kinds of readers. The translated edition of *Harry Potter*, *the Lord of the Rings*, *the Da Vinci Code* caught magicism, suspense and adventurism in a craze. Translations of Marguerite Duras' *the Lover* and Haruki Murakami's *Norwegian Wood* are very popular in petty bourgeois and white collar. There are a large number of "Translated literature" emerged in China. They not only aim to introduce new ideas and methods of foreign countries, but also enjoy a longer life in Chinese literary world.

IV. Conclusion

Professor Wang Xiangyuan (2004) has systematically collected a series of study on Chinese "Translated literature" and its theory construction in his books, which makes a great contribution to the study of Chinese "Translated literature". Professor Xie Tianzhen (2008) has raised some questions about "Translated literature" and translation study, and speaks highly of those books written by Professor Wang. Actually, "Translated literature" being gradually attached importance is connected with the propagation of the status of "Translated literature" by Professor Xie. In one of his articles *To Find a Home for Foundling—The Statue of Translation in History of Literature* published in 1989, he has pointed that "inevitable Creative Treason in literature translation decides that "Translated literature" cannot be equal to foreign literature", and suggested "to resume the status of "Translated literature" in the history of Chinese modern literature". And later he published several articles in succession to state former ideas. Obviously the publish of those articles has stirred the zest for the research and discussion of "Translated literature" in areas of translation, comparative literature, and literature.

It is really hard to decide which category "Translated literature" belongs to, for it is now still controversial. Nevertheless, to classify a discipline into a new category is valuable. Traditionally, "Translated literature" is labeled "foreign literature" which is parallel to "Chinese literature" and excluded by the latter one. Modern "Translated literature" study, however, defines "Translated literature" an independent type of literature, or a type of text, in terms of its function of cultural communication. In modern opinion, "Translated literature" belongs to neither native literature nor foreign literature, but to a special type of Chinese literature (native literature), a new type differing itself from writing and criticism.

Now this kind of modern opinion of the category of "Translated literature" is gradually accepted and recognized by scholars and readers. Foreign literature has three elements: text, writer and readers, while "Translated literature" has five elements: original text, writer, translator, translated text, readers. It is valuable to classify "Translated literature" into a special part of Chinese literature, for the translators' work as rewriting, for the same target readers as Chinese native literature and for the great influence in Chinese society and literary world.

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Enhancing Motivation in the EFL Classrooms Is the Solution (A Case Study of Secondary Schools of the Gezira State, Sudan)

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***Abstract*—The purpose of this paper is to explore and resolve the worse situation of motivation which is too often missing in Sudanese secondary students' classrooms and without it success in learning EFL is improbable. In order to solve this problem, the paper is conducted in some secondary schools of the Gezira State making use of three tools: the previous studies, the direct observations and the guided interviews in order to obtain valuable information. Then, the study comes out with the fact that, the bad situation of motivation in EFL Classrooms of secondary schools is due to many factors of which are: teachers and their training, schools, families and the lack of developing programmes which maintain students' interest. Then, the reasons for this worse situation of motivation in EFL Classrooms of secondary schools are discussed and the remedies are recommended as well.**

***Index Terms*—enhancing motivation, EFL classrooms, solution**

I. Introduction

The challenge of teaching is to enhance transfer and motivation so that they both support the learning of EFL. For transfer to take place the learner must be motivated to do two things. First, he must be able to recognize opportunities for transfer. Second, he needs to possess the motivation to take advantage of these opportunities. Hence, to motivate your students to learn is one of the good steps one can take to facilitate learning (Prewar, 1989 cited in Ngeow 1998, p.1). Bruner, (1960) argues that: "The best way to create interest in a subject is to render it worth knowledge, which means to make the knowledge gained usable in one's thinking beyond the situation in which learning has occurred"(p. 31).

The importance (significance) of this paper can be represented by the following advantages. First, it will be of value to community since a great number of EFL teachers might use its results and since it deals with a universal field of knowledge. Second, it may help in giving teachers a domestic ready-made subject, which concerning their career. Third, the researcher hopes that this paper will be an attempt by which he can help the specialized audience- such as: interested readers, teachers who are concerned with EFL, and those who are interested in language teaching and applied linguistics- to carry on researching in this area of knowledge.

A. The Problem

Teachers - of EFL - in secondary schools of the Gezira State do not:

1. offer learners the benefits that should be offered while teaching.
2. consider the idea of motivating the students.
3. make use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines they deal with.

The researcher claims that teachers - of English - in secondary schools of the Gezira State do not motivate their students in EFL classes; this is on the one hand. On the other hand, these teachers are - to some extent - not qualified enough to use motivation while teaching, (Al-Haj, 2006, p.157). This claim has been strengthening with the fact that, teachers- of EFL- in secondary schools of the Gezira State do not use learning activities -like games, debates, etc.- which motivate the students while they are learning English.

The above problem is a researchable one since it is possible for the researcher to gather data that answer the question: "Is it important for the EFL teacher to enhance motivation while teaching?" In other words, this problem can be attacked empirically. It is a problem that suits the researcher. First, he has a genuine interest in it. Second, it is a problem whose solution is personally important to him since it will contribute to his own knowledge as an educational practitioner. Third, it is in the area in which the researcher has both some knowledge and a reasonable experience (Al-Haj, 2006, p.5).

B. Objectives of the Paper

The following points can determine the objectives of this paper:

1. To state what is meant by motivation in doing things in general.

2. To maximize the usefulness of motivation in teaching and learning EFL in secondary schools of the Gezira State- Sudan.

3. To show that activities are important in making teaching and learning of EFL motivated in secondary schools of the Gezira State- Sudan.

4. To present the attributes of a good English language teacher of EFL who has to motivate his students while they are in the classroom.

5. To bridge some of the shortage of information on the part of the EFL teachers in secondary schools of the Gezira State- Sudan with regard to motivation.

II. The Literature Review

In this part of the paper, the researcher reviewed the relevant literature on the research problem. He has done this to gain more understanding and insight into the problem. Once he is satisfied that he has carried out a reasonably comprehensive search of the literature for his study, he proceeded to the task of organizing it. He arranged the study by topic and determined how each of these topics relates to the problem. As a matter of facts, the objectives of this study provide a framework for such arrangement. In other words, because the study investigates several objectives, the organization process is done separately for each one.

There is a widespread recognition that motivation is of great importance for successful foreign language acquisition, but there is less agreement about what motivation actually consists of. The term motivation has been used as "a general cover term- a dustbin- to include a number of possibly distinct concepts, each of which may have different origins and different effects and require different classroom treatment" (Mc Donough, 1981, p. 143).

Vincent, (1984) notes that the term 'motivation' is met frequently in psychological, educational and linguistic circles. At one level it refers to complex theories like: Hull's idea on drive reduction, Maslow's hierarchy of needs, and Mc Leland's emphasis on achievement. At another level, motivation covers such everyday concepts as what interests a person, what holds his attention, or most simply of all, what makes him act (p. 38)

Arno, (1981) defines motivation as any condition that initiates, guides, and maintains behaviour in an organism. For example, a young girl who is not hungry or thirsty may ignore a bottle of milk her parents set before her. Although she has learned to drink from the bottle, she will not engage in this behaviour if she is not motivated (p. 218)

Keller, (1983) provides the following simple definition: "Motivation refers to the choices people make as to what experience or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect."(p. 389). Yet, for a more thorough treatment of the definition, see Kleinginna and Kleinginna, (1981), who provide ninety–eight representative definitions grouped into nine categories (pp. 263-291).

III. Methodology and Procedure

A. Methodology

In the process of collecting and using the data (empirical investigation) the researcher measured the behaviour of students and teachers of secondary schools of the Gezira State while they were in classrooms. To achieve his goal, the researcher utilized three tools; namely:

1. Direct observations,
2. Guided interviews,
3. Relevant documents.

The researcher chooses these three tools as most appropriate for exchanging and evaluating ideas about motivation in the prescribed setting. Hamersley, (1996, cited in Al-Haj, 2006) claims that, "researchers can combine quantitative methods and qualitative ones in three ways: using one to verify the findings of the other, using one as the groundwork for the other, and using them both- in complementary fashion- to explore different aspects of the same research question" (p. 11).

B. Procedure

Then, the researcher outlined the procedure of developing the instruments, that is to say, he included the steps that taken to obtain validity and reliability of data on these instruments. Yet, the procedure which the researcher used was as follows: First, observations of teachers' class room behaviour are conducted, interviews are held for the collection of relevant data, and the relevant documents are dealt with. Second, the researcher discussed the findings and came out with conclusions and summary.

IV. Conclusions and Summary

A. Grounds for Lacking Motivation versus Remedies

The researcher makes observations, thinks about the problem, turns to the literature for clues, makes additional observations, and then finds that the students of secondary schools of the Gezira State are not motivated when they learn EFL. He claims that the main reason of this shortcoming is that, teaching in some secondary schools of the Gezira

State is not effective; however, an effective teaching is an essential factor in learning EFL efficiently.

As a matter of fact, the use of an interesting text can help to increase the motivation level of students while they are in their EFL classrooms. But, in secondary schools of the Gezira State, EFL texts contain materials which fail to capture the interest of students due to the heavy emphasis on vocabulary. In addition to that, many EFL teachers have poor listening and speaking skills, thus relying on vocabulary and grammatical understanding of the English language.

B. Findings

Considering the above results of the quantitative and qualitative data, the researcher claims that the following findings support the fact of lacking motivation, since most of the EFL teachers of secondary schools of the Gezira State do not:

1. have interest in what they are teaching.
2. vary their teaching activities.
3. encourage their students while they are teaching.
4. respond to their students' needs.
5. teach passages that interest their students.

The researcher claims that a variety of classroom activities play an essential part in motivating students and facilitating the acquisition of EFL. These activities can reduce the strain of formality in the classroom and make learning more student-centred and less teacher-centred. In addition to that, activities carried out in groups may help to motivate and encourage the more diffident students and those who are evasive, or afraid to ask or speak for fear of making errors, that is because activities carried out in groups will transfer the process of learning from getting the skill of the language to using it. (Najat and Taiseer, 1998, p.157)

The researcher agrees with Hutchinson, and Waters, (1987) claim, that "EFL, as much as any good teaching, needs to be intrinsically motivating. It may, still, need to be sweetened with the sugar of enjoyment, fun, creativity, and a sense of achievement." Bearing the above result in his mind, the researcher finds them as supported the fact, that: (There are many activities by which teachers - of English - in secondary schools of the Gezira State can make learning of the target language interesting in classes of EFL). This fact has been strengthening with the claim that, the EFL teachers of secondary schools of the Gezira State do not:

1. use learning activities like games, debates, etc., while they are teaching.
2. arrange the class in pairs (i.e., in twos).
3. make use of drama-like classroom activities, while they are teaching.
4. use games as activities that set up competition between students.
5. use pictures, tapes, stories, etc. in order to make their teaching interesting.
6. call the students by their names , etc.

As the researcher noted earlier, the type of teaching EFL in secondary schools of the Gezira State does not utilize the characteristics of teaching for effective learning, as Effective teaching goes beyond knowing about subject or topic. Considering the above-mentioned basic principles of Hutchinson and Waters, (1987, p.72) about the learning-centred methodology, the researcher gives an essential remark that all these findings supported the fact that: "There are many characteristics of both effective teaching and effective learning of EFL which are not adopted by EFL teachers of secondary schools of the Gezira State." Hence, the researcher claims that some findings of the quantitative and qualitative data (concerning the learning-centred methodology) are as follows:

1. Student behaviour is not monitored.
2. Class routines and teaching procedures are not handled efficiently.
3. There is no matching between grouping arrangements and instructional needs.
4. When students do not learn, they are not re-taught.
5. Teacher-student interactions are, to some extent, not positive, etc.

The researcher stated that, the results of the interviews together with the observational comments reflected an important part of the paper's problem that, "There are many qualities, of a good teacher of EFL, which are unheeded by the teachers who teach English as a Foreign Language in secondary schools of the Gezira State". For instance, most of the EFL teachers in these schools do not:

1. create among their students a feeling of security and confidence.
2. satisfy their students' needs.
3. praise their students when they do well.
4. have to depend entirely on the textbooks.
5. have a passion for teaching.

Bearing the interviews' and the observations' outcomes in his mind the researcher stated that, the EFL teachers of secondary schools of the Gezira State need to be able to understand two important aspects. First, they have to understand the discourse of the classroom, that is to say, to master the language of teaching as well as the discourse of the texts that students use. Second, they have to "plan the course they teach and provide the materials for it. These teachers, also, need to assess the effectiveness of the teaching material used, whether that material is published or self-produced." (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998, p.14).

It is evident that, the EFL teachers of secondary schools of the Gezira State need to have a sufficient knowledge

between them and their students, specially, in the field of teaching. Richards, et al. (1992, p.179) declare that, in order to promote real communication between students, there must be an information gap between them, and between them and their teacher. According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), to have this information gap, each EFL teacher must consider himself a practitioner who has the following "five key roles: teacher, course designer, materials provider, collaborator, researcher, and evaluator." (p.13).

V. Recommendations

Most of the teachers - of English - in secondary schools of the Gezira State are not qualified enough to use motivation while teaching. To remedy this problem the researcher claims that: (There are many activities by which these teachers can make learning of the target language motivated in classes of EFL.) Therefore, he presents the recommendations below as a framework by which English Language teachers can deal with such a problem.

A. Stimulating and Motivating the Students.

Some students are evasive, or afraid to ask or to speak for fear of making errors. The teacher's duty is to encourage such students to talk in English and to praise their performance and progress, no matter how limited it may be. This encouraging attitude will create a pleasant atmosphere, motivate the pupils and make English classes lively and enjoyable. In addition to that, nothing is more disappointing for a student than to feel ignored, neglected, or carelessly evaluated, or to feel that his work does not appeal to the teacher. An encouraging attitude in the part of the teacher motivates students and makes them interested in learning the language. In this respect, the researcher recommends the following points for EFL teachers who want to stimulate or motivate their students:

1. Be interested in what you are teaching.
2. Make your lesson interesting with pictures, stories, etc.
3. Vary your learning activities, by using:
   - debates.
   - games.
   - group and pair work.
   - presenting play lets.
   - mock interviews.
   - problem-solving.
   - role-playing, etc.
4. Vary your teaching method as well as your voice.
5. Make a good introduction to your lesson.
6. Make sure that your work is well graded.
7. Respond to your students' needs.
8. Give your students opportunities, to participate by:
   - asking them questions.
   - involving them in group or pair work.
   - giving them written or practical exercises.
9. Do not guide and control your students too much.
10. Create among your students a feeling of security and confidence.
11. Give easier questions to weaker students and tougher questions to brighter ones.
12. Reward good work.
13. Mark and return your students' work promptly.
14. Have all the apparatus ready when doing practical.

The researcher claims that no single style or approach to classroom organization is best. He, also, indicates that a variety of classroom activities play an essential part in motivating students and facilitating the acquisition of EFL. He, also, claims that these activities can reduce the strain of formality in the classroom and make learning more student-centred and less teacher-centred. Activities carried out in groups may help to motivate and encourage the more diffident students. Activities transfer the process of learning from getting the skill of the language to using it. Bearing the above results in his mind, the researcher claims that these findings supported the fact, that: (There are many activities by which teachers - of English - in secondary schools of the Gezira State can make learning of the target language effective in classes of EFL).

B. Making Use of Group & Pair Work

In order to increase students' participation, the teacher must employ techniques that require the students to utilize the language creatively as an instrument of learning. In this regard, he can provide them with effective communication skills and with an understanding of the foreign language culture. An experienced teacher plans the work in a way that keeps the students on their toes. The EFL teacher must thus provide the class with a wide range of learning activities –for the group and the individual –which can hold the student's attention, and stimulate them to interact and communicate in the language. Such a variety of activities will also prevent boredom and cater for the range of interests

of the individuals in the class.

Long and Porter, (1985, cited in Rod 1996, p.598) make a summary that the main pedagogical arguments are in favour of group work. They say that, it increases language practice opportunities, it improves the quality of student talk, it helps to individualize instruction, and it promotes a positive affective climate, and motivates learners to learn. Agreeing with the above arguments the researcher recommends the following points for EFL teachers - of secondary schools of the Gezira State - who want to make use of group / pair work and other learning activities, while they are teaching. Therefore, these teachers have to:

1. provide the class with learning activities like games, debates, etc.
2. group the class in pairs (i.e., in twos), while they are teaching.
3. use role-playing (i.e., drama-like classroom activity), while they are teaching.
4. use problem-solving activities that suit their student's interest.
5. make use of games as activities that set up competition among their students.
6. make their teaching interesting by making use of pictures, tapes stories, etc.
7. use learning activities - in the classroom - that match their students level.
8. make changes to the classroom activities, while they are teaching.
9. use learning activities that related to their students' culture.

C. Deploying the Principles of Effective Teaching

In order to solve these problems and to make use of the learning-centred methodology the researcher recommends the following points for EFL teachers who want to deploy the principles of effective teaching for effective learning:

1. Try to establish and exploit what the learners already know, as EFL learning is a developmental process.
2. Use group work to build on existing social relationship, as group work increases language practice opportunities, improves the quality of student talk, helps to individualize instruction, promotes a positive affective climate, and motivates learners to learn.
3. Work hard to incorporate greater use of oral English within the classrooms.
4. You have to know that, English as a Foreign Language can be learnt incidentally, while you are actually thinking about something else.
5. After having the necessary knowledge, to make things meaningful students must use that knowledge.
6. A sound approach to EFL must rely on knowing the ‘processes of language learning’.
7. In EFL classes, emphasis should be on pair or group work and problem solving, which allow for the students' differences.

As a matter of fact, all the above findings supported the idea that, "There are many qualities, of a good teacher of EFL, which are not heeded by the teachers who teach English in secondary schools of the Gezira State-Sudan" According to Dudley-Evans and St. John, (1998) EFL teaching is extremely varied, and for this reason they use the term ‘practitioner’ rather than ‘teacher’ to emphasize that EFL work involves much more than teaching. (p.13).

VI. Conclusion

Teachers - of English - in secondary schools of the Gezira State do not motivate their students in EFL classes, this is on the one hand. On the other hand, these teachers are - to some extent - not qualified enough to use motivation while teaching, (Al-Haj, 2006, p.157). This claim has been strengthening with the fact that, these teachers do not use learning activities-like games, debates, etc.-which motivated the students while they are learning English as a target language. Therefore, in order to make the process of learning EFL in secondary schools of the Gezira State a more motivating and effective experience, the researcher hopes that the above-mentioned recommendations and suggestions should be implemented.

If that has been done, the researcher will expect the following benefits. The research will be of value to community since it deals with a universal field of knowledge. It might help in giving EFL teachers of secondary schools of the Gezira State a domestic ready-made subject concerning their career. Then, the researcher hopes that this research paper will be an attempt by which he can help those who want to write researches in this area of study.

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Developing Accuracy by Using Oral Communication Strategies in EFL Interactions

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***Abstract*—This paper explores how a group of language learners develop the accuracy level of their target language in oral communication, particularly when they encounter a problem. Adopting a qualitative research approach, I collected data from a series of group discussions with a group of Persian learners of English Literature and Translation. Analysing audio recorded data, this paper provides a descriptive account of the participants' performance in problematic moments of L2 oral communication, the type and the function of CSs for promoting language accuracy in problematic moments of L2 oral communication in an EFL context. The majority of face-to-face interactions between participants were comprehensible and successful and can be interpreted as communicative successes. I concluded that CSs usage in L2 interpersonal communications enables participants to promote accuracy level of their target language, in addition to the negotiation of meaning. L2 oral interactions, thus, can be considered as a place where all sorts of knowledge come into play, particularly from the oral interaction perspective. The study shows that a lot is to be gained, in communication, by making learners use CSs and work together in groups (184 words).**

***Index Terms*—accuracy development, English as a foreign language (EFL), second language interaction, discourse analysis, communication strategies**

I. Introduction

Foreign language learners, despite spending years developing their language competences, have all probably, at some point, experience the frustrating feeling of not being able to participate effectively in L2 oral communication. They often struggle with lack of the very resources needed to communicate their intended meaning, so that what they '*want* to say' might often be moderated by, or even subordinated to, what they *can* say (Ervin, 1979, p.359).

Although most EFL learners and perhaps some of the teachers believe that oral communication problems can be solved through "more practice" in vocabulary and structure, some successful L2 speakers, in spite of their limited knowledge of the target language, can communicate effectively in a foreign language. How do they do it? They rely entirely on their 'ability to communicate within restrictions' (Savignon, 1983, p. 43) by using communication strategies (hereafter CSs).

CSs are used to overcome 'breakdowns', 'gaps' or 'problems' in communication which are 'pervasive and even intrinsic' in language use and communication even for native speakers' (NSs) (Coupland, et. al., 1991, p. 3).

II. Communication Strategies and Language Knowledge in Interaction

Appearing in literature first in the early 1970s, the term 'communication strategies' within an L2 (second language) context was coined by Selinker (1972), to connect CSs with 'errors in learner's interlanguage system'. Interest in communicative language teaching (CLT), since the 1980s, has also led researchers in applied linguistics to focus on the use of communication strategies (CSs) by second language (L2) learners (Littlemore, 2001, p. 241). It is believed that the use of specific communication strategies enables language learners to compensate for their target language deficiencies and improve their communicative proficiency (e.g., Færch & Kasper 1983, 1986; Tarone & Yule, 1989; Willems, 1987; Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1991, 1994).

For more than three decades after the coining of the term CS by Selinker, the function of CSs has been almost neglected or exclusively limited to compensating for L2 learners' lexical deficiencies (Ellis, 2008, p.509) while other possible functions of CSs have become neglected in traditional CSs studies, thanks to the dominant psycholinguistic approach in CS definition, identification and classification. However, more recently, a number of CS studies, in a challenge to the traditional view, have started investigating CSs beyond the cognitive approach (*i.e.* Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Rababah, 2003; Manchón, 2000; Foster & Ohta, 2005). They focused on the other functions of CSs usage in interaction. They found that:

- CSs allow the learner to remain in the conversation; by allowing them room to manoeuvre in times of difficulty, CSs provide the learners with more language input and also a sense of security in the target language (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991).
- CSs can also lead to learning by eliciting unknown language items either from an interlocutor (the appeal for help strategy) (Rababah, 2003, p. 25), or from their own language knowledge through paraphrasing or circumlocution.

- CSs instruction may develop learners' autonomy perhaps, which is the last but not the least significant achievement awarded by communication strategy to the L2 learner (Manchón, 2000, p. 23).

Kaur (2008, p.19), analysing English as Lingua Franca (ELF) interactions in an academic setting, also showed that ELF speakers do give attention to form when 'deviations' threaten inter-subjectivity or when the interlocutor signals a problem. In doing so, the NNS speakers demonstrate a native-like linguistic authority or expertise. This authority/expertise, however, is not constant; expertise roles may switch as the interaction progresses, 'whereby the speaker who does 'correcting' in one exchange may several turns later be corrected'. Furthermore, Kaur (2008) also suggested that ELF speakers collaborated with each other by providing language support when they were faced with linguistic diversity and variability.

In fact, through CSs usage, learners might simultaneously be engaged in problem solving and knowledge building. This kind of oral interaction has been called 'collaborative dialogue' by Swain (2000, p.102). Solving a problem through collaborative dialogue, in Swain's (2000, p.102) opinion, is a joint with 'knowledge building'. Collaborative dialogue centres on how learners assist one another in reconstructing linguistic forms rather than engaging in the negotiation of meaning caused by communication breakdowns (Donato, 1994; Foster & Ohta, 2005; Lee, 2004; Swain, 2001). Many collaborative dialogue studies (e.g. Kowal & Swain, 1994; Leeser, 2004; Storch, 1998; Swain, 1998; Swain & Lapkin, 2001; Williams, 1999) have showed that learners discuss both lexical items and grammatical forms when they carry out a variety of pair and small group activities.

This paper investigates how the use of CSs in L2 communication might provide opportunities to EFL language learners to collaborate together in problem solving and also to develop and practise their knowledge of the target language.

III. Methodology

L2 spoken interaction has primarily been studied from a psycholinguistic or cognitive perspective to examine how individual learners acquire linguistic knowledge and skills through interaction with native speakers or with other language learners (e.g. Long, 1985). Reviewing the traditional research on L2 oral performance, Hughes (2002, p. 27) shows that these studies are generally based on empirical, semi-real world data, gathered through recording and transcribing oral performance to investigate a central research question or a hypothesis. As a part of L2 oral performance, CSs studies have also primarily been concerned with the mental process underlying the use of strategies with particular emphasis on lexical problems (Ellis, 2008, p. 502).

However, I chose the qualitative approach as an appropriate research methodology perspective as it provided my research with an opportunity to investigate the pattern of the function of strategies, which are used to manage problematic situations, with a deeper understanding of the participants' construction of L2 oral communication.

A. Participants

To choose a group of EFL learners as research participants for this CSs study, it was necessary for me to be familiar with their L1, which can be used as one of the strategies in communication; so I chose Iranian students as 'participants' who shared my L1. To prevent continuous interruptions in the process of communication caused by a low level of language proficiency, I chose university students from an English language department, who needed to have at least an upper- intermediate level of English to pass the entrance exam and enter the university. Furthermore, these students had studied English for at least three years at their universities and had passed several courses in grammar, reading, conversation and writing to an advanced level. So it was assumed that they had enough proficiency in L2 oral communication to take part in communicative events without a lot of hesitation.

I found 12 Iranian undergraduate students of English Literature and Translation and one postgraduate student in TEFL, both male and female, aged 20-24, who were interested in my study when I called and invited them to take part in my research. They did not receive any formal instruction of communication strategies before the study, so their usage of CSs is not affected by their formal language learning. All participation was voluntary. I guaranteed their anonymity although they gave me permission to use their real names in my research report.

B. Data Collection and Coding

To investigate participants' performance and perception, I employed oral communication recording as the main tool for data collection. All the sessions of the participants' group discussions were audio recorded and transcribed. Audio recording allowed me to record every word (and other audio events) during the L2 interaction between the participants. Therefore, the main source of data in this project was the audio recording of a series of communication events in which a group of 2-3 participants from both genders discussed different topics, usually chosen by them. A café, a hotel lobby, the office of the Language Department at University, the teachers' office in a language institute and the room in a research institute were the locations I chose to create a variety of appropriate oral communication for my data collection.

To analyze the participants' performance in L2 communication, I decided to rely on different sources of evidence: discourse markers of problems, and interlocutor's signalling of the problems. Discourse markers or problem indicators include errors, and non-fluencies, such as pauses or pause fillers, hesitation phenomena, such as repetitions or false

starts, and explicit statements, like *I mean* or *how do you say...?* which become much more frequent when linguistic difficulties were encountered and they were often interpreted by the researcher as evidence of instances of CSs.

IV. Data Analysis and Findings

Based on Dörnyei and Scott's (1997, pp. 188-194) inventory of Strategic Language, I initially analyzed the transcripts of the problematic moments of the recorded oral communication sessions and discovered that the participants employed 15 different strategies which are listed below in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
THE GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF STRATEGIES USED BY PARTICIPANTS BASED ON DÖRNYEI AND SCOTT'S (1997) INVENTORY

	STRATEGY	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLES OF DISCOURSE MARKERS
1	**Clarification request**	Requesting for more explanation, clarification or repetition to solve a comprehension problems.	*What do you mean? You... what?*; also '*question repeats*', that is repeating a word or a structure with a question intonation (Dörnyei & Scott,1997:16)
2	**Confirmation request**	Asking the speaker to confirm whether the heard or understood utterance is correct or not	using '*question repeat*' or questions such as '*Do you mean...?*', '*You mean ...?*', '*You said ...?*' and etc.
3	**Comprehension check**	Asking questions to check if the partner can follow the speaker	*You know what I am saying?* *Do you understand what I mean?*
4	**Interpretive summary**	Paraphrasing the interlocutor's message to check if they understood it correctly or not	*Hossein: so, you mean you saw your friends are learning English and makes you ...*
5	**Expressing non-understanding**	Expressing that the interlocutor does not understand properly what was going on in the communication.	*Hamid: you surely don't believe it I have ever read books?* *Kabi: .... I don't ... understand.*
6	**Requesting help**	Requesting assistance from other partners when they are faced with a deficiency in self-expression	*How can I put it in English?* *What you call them*? *I don't know... how can I put the word?*
7	**Use of general words**	Extending a general lexical item without needing to locate an exact referent(Carter &McCarthy,1997:16)	*Thing, stuff, make, do*
8	**Use of L1 knowledge**	Using the knowledge of the mother tongue (literal translation and switching to L1) as a resource to express the meaning in breakdown communication	Jafri: from ... Eighty ... (laughing) ... HASHTADO DO (L1 equivalent for eighty two)
9	**Use of similar sound words**	Using an alternative lexical item which sounds are more or less like the target phrase	Hamid: ...how do you enjoy your **place** here (instead of: enojoy your presence here)
10	**Repairing**	Repairing self or other errors in oral performance	No, he ***don't*** ... he ***doesn't*** know, I cannot put myself in ***their*** in ***those*** shoes
11	**Own accuracy check**	Checking the accuracy of the produced utterances	repeating a word or phrase with rising intonation or by asking a concrete question,
12	**Verbal strategy marker**	Using markers to inform other partners that speaker are using strategies to deal with problem in self-expression	I don't know', 'I don't know how to put it in English'
13	**Retrieval**	Retrieving a target word or phrase by saying a series of incomplete or wrong forms or structures before producing the ideal form of target utterance	Rostami: she **be taking** ... she**'s video taking** me, she **was video taking** me... she was taking a video of me
14	**Nothing to say**	Stop speaking as the speaker is faced with a self-expression problem	Hamid: have you seen Chinese before? Kabi: *I don't have anything to say*
15	**Use of Fillers**	Using gambits word and phrases to fill pauses and to gain time in order to keep the conversation open	*well, you know, let say, actually*

Then, I employed Ohta (2001, 2005) and Foster and Ohta's (2005) method to analyse the possible functions of the above strategies. To find the function of each CS, I focused on the differences between the 'surface' form of each observed communication strategy (e.g. *clarification request*) and its possible pragmatic function(s) (e.g. *to express interest rather than confusion*), by looking at the wider context. To do that, I analyzed the interlocutors' responses to the strategy usage in the following turns to see if there was any sign of problematic communication. I employed Ohta's (2005, p. 388) method in analysing at least three turns in conversation : (1) the initial turn which contains the utterance causing the problem in communication, (2) the turn containing the signal of strategy usage, and (3) the turn containing the response to the problem.

My analysis, therefore, involved the discourse following the problematic moment of communication. This included analyzing the immediately subsequent talk as well as additional contextual material, including the speaker's next turn at talk (the fourth turn) and beyond, as relevant. The CSs analysis, therefore, involved examining at least three turns of the sequences in their discourse contexts to indicate the problems in expression-comprehension. In other words, I looked at a wider selection of the data, to find other functions of interactional discourse in L2. I summarised my classification of the types and functions of CSs and the overall distribution of observed CSs represented in the corpus through statistical values for each category in Table 2. Table 2 facilitates this by summarizing the raw frequencies of the strategies used by the participants:

TABLE 2:
THE FUNCTIONS AND PRIORITY USE OF CSS BY EFL LEARNERS

Interpreted Functions	CSs	Observed Frequency
Promoting meaning transfer (Solving or avoiding problems in self-expression and comprehension)	*Clarification request*	15
	Confirmation request	7
	Comprehension check	2
	Interpretive summary	8
	Expressing non-understanding	2
	Requesting help for meaning negotiation	5
	General words	1
	Use of L1 knowledge	2
	Use of similar sound words	1
	Total	**43(31%)**
Promoting accuracy form of language in communication (Monitoring, Improving and warning about the accuracy level of performance)	*Repairing*	23
	Own accuracy check	7
	Verbal strategy marker	6
	Retrieval	1
	Requesting help for negotiation the form	11
	Nothing to say	4
	Total	**52(37%)**
Maintain the flow of conversation (Collaboration to continue, complement and repair, ignoring the problem and use of fillers)	*Inviting to Continue*	21
	Collaborative complementary and repair	8
	Let it pass	11
	Use of Fillers	4
	Total	**44(32%)**

Table 2 helps me to interpret the general and specific picture of the strategies used in each category of performance. As can be seen in the above table, the frequency of strategies employed to promote the accuracy level of language in communication are more than those for maintaining the flow of conversation and those for promoting meaning transfer. In fact, the participants' first concern is to promote the accuracy level of their utterances through CSs for monitoring and improving their own and their partners' performance, for helping each other and also for signalling or avoiding the less than perfect performance in communication.

The following extracts are examples of CSs with the function of developing accuracy in interaction.

Extract 1: **Repairing**

Speakers often repair their own or others' oral performances. It is also called error correction, particularly when it refers to self-repair (Rieger, 2003).The following extracts show how participants repair their morpho-syntactic errors in their speech.

- Kabi: No he ***don't***, he ***doesn't*** know how to act with the (Group Discussion, 10/08/2008).
- Jafri: I lost my partner, I stop watching TV more, ***I haven't any*** ... ***I didn't have any*** one to talk to, I guess my English is not as much as good as past (Group discussion 09/08/2008).
- Jalili: I cannot put myself in ***their*** in ***those*** shoes, I always take my own jobs seriously (Group Discussion, 07/09/2008).
- Delgarm: he try ***to learn*** the ... ***to teach*** us in a friendly (Group Discussion, 10/08/2008).

As can be seen in the above examples, the participants repair their errors without any signal of communication failure. In fact, they monitor their own performances in the L2 for its accuracy level. Formal accuracy is such as an important concern for the participants that sometimes they use the polite signal of apology (*sorry*) when they repair their errors in conversation. This is an example of this type of repairing:

Khajeh: if I was ... if I was him, **sorry**, if I were him, ha, if I were him I believe I could do much more better (speech continues) (Group Discussion, 09/09/2008).

Khajeh repairs his error with a polite signal of apology without any signal of the other interlocutor's misunderstanding or of there being a problem in transferring meaning which would make repairing necessary. In fact, participants took plenty of opportunities to repair their output and to focus on the accuracy of their utterances without either a requirement to exchange information or a request by the other participants to do so. By using the repairing strategy, participants could pay more attention to displaying their L2 skill through monitoring both their own and their partners' language. As there is no signal of miscomprehension caused by these errors, I interpret the main function of this strategy as a performance for improving the accuracy level of utterances. It seems that all participants see the conversation as a chance to improve their L2 and collaborate in the repair strategies to improve communal accuracy.

Extract 2: **Own accuracy Check**

One strategy used by L2 speakers to check the accuracy of their speech is to repeat the word or phrase with rising intonation at the end of the sentence, thereby re-presenting the phrase as a question. The following example is an extract showing the use of an 'own accuracy check' strategy in a group discussion:

Khajeh: University of Petroleum I don't think it's ... ***I don't know*** ... small chance ... ***is it true,*** **small?** ... ... **yes small chance** (interrupted by Mr. Karb giving his idea about the topic, not about the Khajeh's utterance) (Group discussion, 26/08/2008).

In the above example, Khajeh marks his problem of self-expression by saying '*I don't know*' followed by his offer for the target phrase. As he probably is in doubt about the accuracy of his phrase, he checks it by asking his partners' opinion when he asks: '*is it true*?' As no one answers his question, so he probably interprets the other interlocutors' silence as positive feedback on the accuracy of the utterance, and repeats it again without rising intonation. As there is no verbal signal of any problem in understanding in the above extract, I interpret it as a strategy for 'enhancing' the accuracy level of an utterance, rather than transferring meaning in L2 communication.

Extract 3: **Retrieval**

Dörnyei and Scott (1997, p. 189) defined retrieval as a strategy used by an L2 speaker in order to retrieve a target phrase or structure by saying a series of incomplete or wrong forms or structures before producing an accurate form of speech. The following is an example of this type of strategy:

Rostami: she **be taking** ... she**'s video taking** me, she **was video taking** me (Group discussion, 18/08/2008)

The strategy user, Rostami, tries to retrieve the phrase '*video recording*' in her speech through repeating incomplete forms of it (*be taking, is video taking*). As there is no signal of any problem in the partner's understanding, I interpret that she is trying to promote the accuracy of her utterance in L2 communication, albeit unsuccessfully.

While participants in extracts 1 and 2 'repair' and 'check' their less-than perfect phrases or structures, with their use of the own accuracy check strategy, in extract 3, they search for an ideal form of utterance by testing the different forms of the target phrase on their own.

Extract 4: **Verbal Strategy Markers**

Sometimes, participants use markers such as 'I don't know', 'I don't know what ...', before or after a strategy usage, to inform other partners about the production of 'less than-perfect' L2 forms that may require extra effort to be understood. The following extract is an example of the use of a marker strategy followed by a switch to L1:

Arjani: I have gone to several places, I've gone to **HERASAT** (*security office*), ***I don't know the word in English*** (laughing)...emmm at University and ahhhh ... I complain about this teacher I told you (speech continues) (Group discussion, 24/08/2008).

As can be seen in the above example, Arjani was faced with a problem in remembering the phrase '*security office*'. He switched to L1 and then said '*I don't know the word in English*' probably to inform his partners that 'he knows that switching to L1 is not a perfect way to convey his meaning in an L2 communication, but he has no other way of getting the meaning the meaning across'. I interpret the use of the marker strategy in this interaction to mean that Arjani probably wants to signal for his switching to L1, or even to excuse for producing less-than perfect accuracy. This leads me to understand that a shared L1 can be considered as a strategic resource to fill any vocabulary gap, but it contains a potential face-threatening effect in L2 communication.

Extracts 5: **Requesting Help for Negotiation of Form**

Participants employ a requesting help strategy for promoting the accuracy level of their less-than perfect utterances. I found a new function for the use of the requesting help strategy, other than transferring meaning which is its traditional function in L2 communication (e.g. in Tarone, 1981; Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). Speakers employ a 'requesting help' strategy to find an accurate form of a word or a phrase through negotiation with the other partners.

The following extract describes the negotiation of form in a situation in which participants assist each other and negotiate the accurate form of a phrase in the target language:

1. Hamid: you know it's depend how you define rich and poor, economically all three of us just ... (laughing) we are under the poor line, ***I don't know how they say it***?
2. Kabi: yes, yes under the poor under the,
3. Jafri: Under the line of ... it is the Farsi structure.
4. Hamid: I know it is a Farsi but ***I couldn't find a better structure than that***
5. Kabi: ***Under the poverty line***?
6. Hamid: Yes, under the poverty line (Group discussion in shopping centre, 12/08/2008).

Hamid signals the use of a requesting help strategy when he feels that the produced phrase (*under the poor line*) might not be accurate in the first turn (line 1). This turn includes the signal for help (*I don't know how they say it?*) and a phrase which seems to be an approximate alternative to the target phrase. Kabi, one of his partners, helps him by confirming and repeating his phrase (line 2). But Jafri denies Hamid's phrase as a phrase with L1 structure (line 3). Hamid admits that it is an L1 structure, but he cannot find a better structure (line 4). As the meaning seems clear, I interpret the function of the other turns, except the first one, as a negotiation of the correct form of Hamid's utterance, rather than the meaning. Finally, Kabi suggests a phrase which seems to be more appropriate and it is accepted. Hamid confirms Kabi's phrase by integrating it in his speech and continues (line 6). With his appeal for help in line 4, Hamid probably shows his commitment to completing the turn in L2 and defends his proficiency against Jafri's threat when she calls Hamid's utterance an L1 structure. Therefore, I interpret that the main function of the requesting help strategy in the above extract is for negotiating the accurate form of a less-than perfect utterance. Finally, this requesting help strategy provides the participants with an opportunity to collaborate together and find an appropriate form in the target language, which could reflect the fact that one of the purposes of the conversation overall is to improve all the participants' L2 proficiency.

V. Discussion and Conclusion

Based on studies of collaborative dialogue (Swain & Lapkin, 1998, 2002; Swain, 2000, 2005; Lapkin et al., 2002, Tocalli-Beller & Swain, 2005), I found the following language development opportunities, co-constructed by CSs usage in the L2 communication tasks of this research:

1. to notice what the participants do not know, particularly when they signalled the problem through verbal strategy markers, requesting for help, or expressing non-understanding;

2. to form and test their language hypotheses, probably through, own accuracy check, and retrieval; and

3. to co-construct language or linguistic knowledge, through the use of CSs, for the promotion of accuracy in communication. In fact, in foreign language contexts, a great deal of CSs usage is related to language form.

This interpretation supports Ohta (2001) and Swain's (2001) findings. Like the Japanese language learners in Ohta's (2001) study, participants in my study employed CSs to provide and receive assistance in a variety of ways. Participants also spent plenty of their time in interaction to modify their output and focus on form without the requirement to exchange information (see Extract 1). One justification could be that the intelligible message, alongside the collaborative and supportive environment, constructs an ideal situation for participants to focus on the mismatch between the forms in their own interlanguage system and those of the target language. This interpretation is partly supported by researchers who claim that a great deal of learners' assistance in collaborative interaction is related to reconstructing linguistic forms rather than engaging in the negotiation of meaning caused by communication breakdowns (*i.e.* Foster & Ohta, 2005; Lee, 2004; Swain, 2001; Ohta, 2001). However, these researchers did not consider the use of strategies other than the negotiation of meaning to modify and promote the accuracy level of utterances in L2 communication.

In short, the use of CSs in a friendly, co-constructed environment enables participants to promote accuracy of their produced utterances in L2 oral communication. Promoting the accuracy of the target language is one of the most frequent functions of CSs through which participants collaboratively repair, negotiate and discuss both lexical items and grammatical forms in their L2 interaction. L2 oral interactions, thus, can be considered as a place where all sorts of knowledge come into play, particularly from the oral interaction perspective. In fact, non-native communicators often see themselves as learners even in oral interactions outside of the classroom, an interpretation supported by the few studies in non-educational settings (e.g., Varonis & Gass, 1985). That is, their language skills and competencies are seen to be underdeveloped (Firth & Wagner, 1997, p. 292). CSs usage in L2 interactions provides communicators with the opportunity to carefully monitor their own and their partners' linguistic behaviour and facilitate the identification of the nature or source of problems as a precondition for moving on to collaborative problem solving or knowledge construction.

L2 interaction thus reflects the participants' communicative intentions to overcome any difficulties of language knowledge through maintainity a cooperative and interpersonal relationship. In fact, CSs in L2 interaction enable participants not only to co-construct knowledge or solve problems, but also to go beyond it to test their hypotheses, or expand their knowledge to wider aspects of the language. So, not only novice learners, but also more proficient learners, can benefit from the L2 interaction. The implication for learning a target language in an EFL context is therefore to encourage language learners to take part in interaction regardless of their linguistic ability, and to learn strategies for successful L2 communication.

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Interventionist (Explicit and Implicit) versus Non-interventionist (Incidental) Learning of Phrasal Verbs by Iranian EFL Learners

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***Abstract*—Phrasal verbs are commonly used in spoken English. Due to the problems experienced by Iranian EFL learners in acquiring phrasal verbs, this study investigated the effectiveness of interventionist and non-interventionist approaches to learning (both recognition and production) of phrasal verbs. To this end, 63 Iranian EFL learners in three groups, with equal numbers of participants, participated in the study: a non-interventional control group, an experimental implicit group, and an experimental explicit group. They were homogenized through a TOEFL test and were asked to complete a pre-test to ascertain their unfamiliarity with the target phrasal verbs. Then, they were given 10 different passages followed by comprehension questions. After a 10- session treatment period, the recognition and production of these target phrasal verbs were tested through a post-test. The results of the ANOVA revealed the superiority of interventionist groups over the non-interventionist group in both recognition and production of phrasal verbs. In addition, the interventional explicit group greatly outperformed the interventional implicit group in both recognition and production. This effect of interventionist learning implies the necessity of a more balanced approach involving both implicit and explicit practice and instruction in order to enhance the acquisition of phrasal verbs.**

***Index Terms*—explicit instruction, implicit instruction, incidental learning, input enhancement, intentional learning, interventionist instruction, marginal gloss, non-interventionist instruction**

I. Introduction

The potential of second language vocabulary knowledge, as a predictor of L2 learner's proficiency, has attracted more interest among second language teachers and researchers. Vocabulary learning is a demanding task for second language learners. When it comes to phrasal verbs, it gets even harder. Now, the field of second language pedagogy in response to increasing concern for vocabulary knowledge concentrates more on second language (L2) vocabulary instruction. In fact the need for finding the most appropriate and the least burdensome trends in vocabulary instruction is felt more than ever.

Phrasal verbs create special problems for language learners because there are so many of them and the combination of verb and particle seems so often completely random (Cornell, 1985; Side, 1990). Language learners and their teachers have always shown a keen interest in finding the most influential ways of learning (both recognition and production) of these phrasal verbs. There has always been a controversy over the effectiveness of providing learners with comprehensible input, input enhancement, output, and whether one or a combination of some is more beneficial in the process of learning (Krashen, 1998; White, 1998; Izumi, 2002).

A. Theoretical Overview

1. Phrasal verbs

Phrasal verbs are used a great deal, especially in spoken English. Therefore, it is important for a student to recognize their meaning at least. If he wants to learn to speak English naturally and well, he must become able to use these verbs properly. Phrasal verbs are a feature of the "Germanic language family." English also belongs to this language family. (Schmitt & Siyanova, 2007). Learners who are not German or Scandinavian may be unfamiliar with these multi-word verbs and lack the strategies to deal with them. As a result, L2 learners mostly tend to avoid this linguistic category that is absent in their L1, and use the one-word verb instead (Ziahosseini, 1999; Schmitt & Siyanova, 2007).

A number of studies consider phrasal verbs as a subcategory of the more general lexical phenomenon of formulaic language. Both L1 and L2 language learner researchers have explored formulaic Language under a variety of labels: "prefabricated routines and patterns," "imitated utterances," "formulas" or "formulaic units" (Myles, Hooper, & Mitchell, 1998; Simpson & Mendis, 2003). Bardovi-Harlig (2002) reported that despite the difficulty in detecting form-meaning associations by the learners through learning formulaic language, formulaic use may be traced in learner's interlanguage "beyond the earliest stage."

Despite the fact that phrasal verbs are difficult for L2 learners, phrasal verb acquisition has not received adequate attention in the field of second language research (Bardovi-Harlig, 2002; Liu, 2003). Over the past two decades, the ultimate objective of language teaching was to increase the communication abilities of learners in order to enable them to communicate genuinely, spontaneously and meaningfully in the second language. For this purpose knowing vocabulary, especially the words or combinations such as collocations or phrasal verbs that are used in everyday communications, is one of the prerequisites for producing fluent and socially appropriate language.

2. Vocabulary learning and input

Krashen (1983) proposed "input hypothesis" in order to emphasize the primacy of meaning and the importance of vocabulary through the unconscious process of language acquisition. In this view language is essentially its lexicon and the quantity of lexicon exceeds far beyond the amount of other parts of language (Celce-Murcia, 2001; Mitchell & Myles, 2004).

Most L2 learning researchers used the term incidental learning in connection with the learning of vocabulary through reading. Krashen (1983, as cited in Mitchell & Myles, 2004), in his input hypothesis, remarked that we acquire vocabulary and spelling through exposure to comprehensible input. The reason beneath using incidental learning mostly in vocabulary learning is that the concept of incidental is applicable both to abstract and declarative knowledge whereas the concept of intentional is just used for factual knowledge. Learning vocabulary from context is often seemed as something opposed to the intentional learning and teaching of vocabulary. As far as reading for text comprehension and reading to learn about a topic is concerned, it is apparent that more able readers learn words incidentally when reading for these purposes (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Swanborn & de Gloper, 2002).

According to Hulstijn (1996, as cited in Pulido, 2003: 241), "during reading, easily guessed words may not be better retained because of lack of need to sufficient attention to the new word form." Coady (1997, as cited in Krashen and Mason, 2004) believed that most vocabulary learning occurs through reading but according to him there is a "threshold level " of vocabulary knowledge below which a learner cannot read well enough to learn new vocabulary through reading.

3. Vocabulary learning and noticing

Schmidt (1990) proposed the Noticing Hypothesis. Noticing, i.e. attention accompanied by some low level of awareness, is the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input to intake." He believed that noticing is a necessary condition for second language acquisition. From a cognitive perspective, Tomlin and Villa (1994) proposed three components for the role of attention in second language acquisition: *Alertness, orientation, Detection.* Robinson (1995, as cited in Robinson, 2005), inspired by both Schmidt's and Tomlin and Villa's idea about attention, reported that noticing includes detection and rehearsal in short-term memory. R. Ellis (1997, as cited in Cross, 2002) suggested that input becomes intake via noticing language features in input.

There is no doubt that L2 learners can achieve considerable success in contexts where they are exposed to comprehensible input. However, such input alone does not necessarily lead learners to high level of development in the L2. Sometimes the input does not become intake. To improve learner's language learning they should be provided with a variety of consciousness-raising activities. Sharwood Smith (1991) has proposed that the term consciousness-raising can be replaced by "input enhancement " because he believed that the instructor can only know that some aspects of input are highlighted in some way, but it is impossible to tell whether the learner's consciousness has been raised.

Different studies reported a variety of findings about the relation between glossing, reading comprehension, and incidental vocabulary learning. In a number of these studies, students who had access to glosses before reading or during the reading process were able to recall more of the text than those without glossing aids. But in some other studies, there were no significant impacts of gloss in the process of learning (Holley & King, 1971; Davis, 1989; Hulstijn, Hollander, & Greidanus, 1996; Lomicka, 1998; Yoshii, 2006; Yanguas, 2009).

4. Vocabulary learning and output

Following the failure of the French Immersion Programmes in changing L2 learners into proficient L2 users through providing them with comprehensible input, the "input hypothesis" was brought into question. As an answer to this deficiency, Swain (1993, as cited in Swain, 2005) proposed "output hypothesis" that was in accordance with Schmidt's "noticing the gap principle." In this view "output" was considered as a "process" and not a "product" of learning. Encouraging learners to produce language can lead them to consciously notice some of their linguistic problems (Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Izumi, 2002 & 2003; Swain, 2005).

Swain (1995:127, cited in Izumi, 2003) Stated:

[i] n speaking and writing learners can 'stretch' their interlanguage to meet communicative goals. They might work towards solving their linguistic limitations by using their own internalized knowledge, or by cueing themselves to listen for a solution in future input. Learners (as well as native speakers, of course) can fake it, so to speak, in comprehension, but they cannot do so in the same way in production….. [t] o produce, learners need to do something; they need to create linguistic form and meaning and in so doing, discover what they can and cannot do.

It implies that the role of comprehensible output is entirely independent of the role of comprehensible input, because the kind of processing that is necessary for comprehension is different from the type of processing which is required for production. This indicated that it is not necessary to understand a complete message for some vocabulary learning to take place. It implies that learners need "pushed output" for the accurate performance.

B. Previous Studies

Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993) studied the impact of comprehensible output on EFL learner's accuracy of production. The results indicated that pushing learners to produce language resulted in immediate improved performance. Ellis, Tanaka, and Yamazaki (1994) in a study examined the vocabulary acquisition of EFL Japanese learners under three conditions. The results indicated that learners need "pushed output" for the accurate performance. Sadighi and Tagharchi (2001) studied the impact of intervention in the form of explicit teaching on phrasal verb learning of intermediate Iranian EFL learners. The results suggested that exposure alone is not sufficient. Attention drawing tasks and techniques beside learner-treatment also play significant roles in learning. Izumi (2002) in a study investigated the facilitative effects of input and output enhancement on the acquisition of participants of various nationality types but at the same level of language proficiency. The results revealed that the participants who engaged in the input- output treatment outperformed those who were exposed to input just for the purpose of comprehension in learning.

C. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to find out the impact of interventionist, non-interventionist learning on recognition and production of phrasal verbs by Iranian EFL learners. As mentioned before, learning of phrasal verbs is considered as one of the most difficult tasks for language learners that should be tackled with. This study tended to compare phrasal verb learning through explicit teaching and noticing with its incidental learning. The main aim of this study was to measure the effect of interventionist and non-interventionist approaches on the comprehension and production of these phrasal verbs by Iranian EFL learners. The researchers sought to answer the question whether input enhancement alone or its combination with production tasks under instructor's supervision has more significant impacts on the process of learning phrasal verbs. The research questions and the null hypotheses under investigation in this study were as follows:

1. Is there any significant difference between the effects of interventionist (explicit teaching and noticing), and non-interventionist (incidental learning) on the recognition of phrasal verbs by Iranian EFL learners?

2. Is there any significant difference between the effects of interventionist (explicit teaching and noticing), and non-interventionist (incidental learning) on the production of phrasal verbs by Iranian EFL learners?

II. Methodology

A. Participants

The subject pool consisted of three intact classes of intermediate female students at Milad Language Institute located in Tehran. The number of students totalled 63. In each class 21 students were enrolled. One group of the students in this study studied the third book of the *Interchange Series* (Richards, Hull, & Proctor, 2005). Students enrolled in these classes had been studying at the institute from *Intro interchange* (Richards, 2005) or had been recognized as suitable for these classes through the institute's placement test and an oral interview. The participants' ages ranged from 13 to 17. They were junior high school or senior high school students. To decide if the subjects formed a homogeneous sample, the vocabulary and reading sections of the TOEFL test were administered to them at the same time. After extracting participants' scores a one-way ANOVA was used to compare the mean scores of the three groups on the vocabulary and reading parts of the TOEFL. The results showed that there was no significant difference among the mean scores of the three groups of participants.

Therefore, it is assumed that these students formed a homogeneous sample. These three classes formed the three groups of this study:

1. *Non-interventional group [(N) group]*:

The participants in this group were expected to learn target phrasal verbs incidentally.

2. *Interventional Implicit group [(II) group]:*

The participants in this group were expected to learn target phrasal verbs by the intervention of marginal glosses as an attention-drawing factor.

3. *Interventional Explicit group [(IE) group]:*

The participants in this group were expected to learn target phrasal verbs by the aid of marginal glosses and some production tasks.

Participants in the (N) group were considered as control group of this study. Both (II) and (IE) groups were considered as experimental groups.

B. Instrumentation

Four types of instrumentations including reading materials, test of homogeneity, pre-test, and post-test, were utilized to address the research questions in this study.

1. Reading materials

The passages used in this study were selected from two books: *English Phrasal Verbs* (Watcyn-Jones, 2001) and *English Phrasal Verbs in Use* (McCarthy & O'Dell, 2004). These passages were typed in a way that there was a marginal space on their right side for having the English definition or a one-word verb synonym for new phrasal verbs. At the end of each text, there were reading comprehension questions. In addition to these comprehension questions,

passages were accompanied with three types of tasks; reconstruction tasks (in the form of paraphrasing), fill in the blanks, and also story-telling tasks (by using pictures).

2. Tests

The vocabulary and reading part of the TOEFL was administered to ensure the homogeneity of the participants. This test included 90 multiple-choice items.

Pre-test: The purpose of pre-test (that was administered in the form of checklist) was to recognize a set of phrasal verbs that were not known by any of the subjects of the study. It consisted of 52 phrasal verbs; all selected from reading passages and were supposed as unfamiliar phrasal verbs for the participants of this study. Participants were asked to translate these phrasal verbs in either English or Persian. Based on the results of this test 40 phrasal verbs that were entirely unknown by the participants were selected as the target phrasal verbs in this study. The pre-test in this study was in the form of checklist. This test format had been successfully used in other studies (e.g. Knight, 1994; Kim, 2006).

Post-test: The post-test in this study was designed by the researcher. This test involved two separate parts with the equal number of items. The recognition part included 20 multiple-choice questions for 20 out of the 40 phrasal verbs that had been covered during the treatment. The production part involved 20 short texts (in the form of 2 or 3 line conversations) in order to provide the learner's with the proper and sufficient context for the production of intended phrasal verbs.

In order to revise the first version of the test, it was administered to a group of 25 intermediate female students of the same age range at the same institute. Item facility of all items (both recognition and production) of the test was calculated. Items with facility index beyond 0.63 or below, 0.37 were deleted from the pool of items. According to Farhady, Ja'farpur, and Birjandi (1994), items with facility indices beyond 0.63 are too easy, and items with facility indices below 0.37 are too difficult.

The reliability of the text was calculated by using KR21 formula. The reliability index for the recognition part was moderate (0.51), and the reliability of the production part was good (0.69).

In order to determine the content validity of the test, the views of researcher's reader and advisor as well as some other experts were obtained and applied.

C. Data Collection Procedure

In the second session of the course, the vocabulary and reading part of the TOEFL was administered to ensure the homogeneity of the participants. In the following session the pre-test that was in the form of a checklist was administered to choose the target items of the research. After designating target phrasal verbs through the results of the pre-test, the researcher started the treatment in the fourth session and continued for 10 consecutive sessions (nearly 4 weeks). At the thirteen session of the treatment, the production part of the post-test was administered to all three groups and the recognition part was administered in the following session.

Procedure in the control group: Participants in this group were just asked to skim the text. The time for skimming differed from 3 to 5 minutes depending on the text difficulty. They were then asked to answer the 3 comprehension questions just based on their text comprehension without any need for using phrasal verbs.

Procedure in the experimental groups: Participants in these groups received the same passages provided with marginal glosses. Both groups were provided with a brief explanation about phrasal verbs before working on texts. They had 3 to 5 minutes to skim the text. Then they were asked to answer the post-reading comprehension questions irrelevant to target phrasal verbs. After answering the comprehension questions, the interventional explicit group was asked to do production- based post-reading tasks.

D. Data Analysis

In this study, all of the test data were scored by giving one point for a correct response and zero for an incorrect response. For the production tests, only the production of the phrasal verb that was targeted in the given conversation was considered as correct. Errors related to spelling were ignored as long as they didn't change the meaning of the phrasal verb.

This study included a descriptive statistics for all groups, and a one-way ANOVA was used to measure the differences in these three groups. Then, using a Scheff étest, the results of the groups were compared.

III. RESULTS

After the administration of the post-test, the results obtained from these three groups on both recognition and production of phrasal verbs were compared by using a one-way ANOVA. Then in order to ensure where differences reported by ANOVA exactly occurred, a Scheff étest was used.

A. Homogeneity Results

Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics on the vocabulary and reading part of the TOEFL test that were administered to 63 students studied at the intermediate level of language proficiency at the Milad Language Institute. As the table indicates, there is a slight difference among means of these three groups of participants.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF TOEFL TEST BY INTERVENTIONIST AND NON-INTERVENTIONIST GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval For Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Incidental	21	48.71	3.48	.75	47.13	50.29	41.00	54.00
Implicit	21	48.33	3.52	.76	46.72	49.93	43.00	52.00
Explicit	21	49.09	3.52	.76	47.49	50.69	39.00	54.00
Total	63							

A one-way ANOA was run to compare the mean scores of the three groups on the reading and vocabulary parts of the TOEFL test. The F-observed value is .24 (Table 2). This amount of F-value at 2 and 60 degrees of freedom is lower than the critical value of F, i.e. 3.15.

Based on these results, it can be concluded that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the three groups on the reading and vocabulary parts of the TOEFL test. That is to say, the three groups were homogeneous in terms of their proficiency prior to the present study.

TABLE 2:
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE TOEFL TEST BY INTERVENTIONIST AND NON-INTERVENTIONIST GROUPS

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6.095	2	3.048	.248	.782
Within Groups	738.762	60	12.313		
Total	744.857	62			

B. Recognition Results

The descriptive statistics of the three groups on the recognition part of the post-test is presented in table 3. The overall test results reveal that the interventionist group with mean scores of 14.85 (explicit) and 10.71 (implicit) outperformed the non-interventionist (incidental) group whose means was 9.90 on the recognition of the phrasal verbs.

TABLE 3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE RECOGNITION OF PHRASAL VERBS BY INTERVENTIONIST AND NON-INTERVENTIONIST GROUPS

Type of teaching	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval For Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Non-interventionist	Incidental	21	9.90	1.48	.32	9.23	10.57	7.00	12.00
Interventionist	Implicit	21	10.71	2.55	.55	9.55	11.87	6.00	14.00
	Explicit	21	14.85	1.76	.38	14.05	15.66	12.00	17.00
Total		63							

A one-way ANOVA is run to compare the results of the recognition of phrasal verbs by interventionist (explicit and implicit) and non-interventionist (incidental) groups. The F-observed value is 37.57 (Table 4). This amount of F-value is greater than the critical value of F at 2 and 60 degrees of freedom, i.e. 3.15.

Since the observed F-value exceeded its critical value, it can be concluded that there are significant differences between the phrasal verbs as recognized by interventionist (explicit and implicit), and non-interventionist (incidental) learning groups.

TABLE 4:
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE RECOGNITION OF PHRASAL VERBS BY INTERVENTIONIST AND NON-INTERVENTIONIST GROUPS

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	296.413	2	148.206	37.573	.000
Within Groups	236.667	60	3.944		
Total	533.079	62			

The post-hoc Scheffe's test was run to compare the mean score of the interventionist group (explicit and implicit) with the mean of the non-interventionist (incidental) group on the recognition of phrasal verbs.

According to the results displayed in Table 5, the mean difference of 2.88 ($p < .05$) indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the interventionist and non-interventionist's mean scores on the recognition of phrasal verbs. Thus, the interventionist group outperformed the non-interventionist group on the recognition of phrasal verbs. Therefore, the first null-hypothesis, stating that there is no significant difference between the effects of interventionist (explicit and implicit) and non-interventionist (incidental) learning on the recognition of phrasal verbs by Iranian EFL learners, was rejected.

TABLE 5:
POST-HOC SCHEFFE'S TEST FOR INTERVENTIONIST VS. NON-INTERVENTIONIST GROUPS ON RECOGNITION OF PHRASAL VERBS

(I) Groups	(J) Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Interventionist	Non-interventionist	2.881*	.699	.000	1.484	4.278
* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.						

The following graph displays the means of the three groups on the recognition of phrasal verbs.

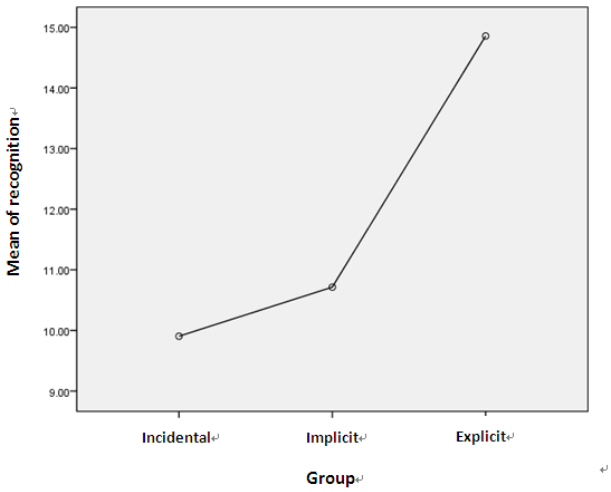

Figure 1: Recognition of phrasal verbs by the three groups

C. Production Results

Table 6 displays the descriptive statics of the three groups on the production part of the post-test. In this table, the interventionist group with mean scores of 5.61 (explicit) and 1.33 (implicit) outperformed the non-interventionist (incidental) group whose mean was 1.14 on the production of phrasal verbs.

TABLE 6:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PRODUCTION OF PHRASAL VERBS BY INTERVENTIONIST AND NON-INTERVENTIONIST GROUPS

Type of teaching	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval For Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Non-interventionist	Incidental	21	1.14	.96	.21	.70	1.58	.00	3.00
Interventionist	Implicit	21	1.33	1.19	.26	.78	1.87	.00	4.00
	Explicit	21	5.61	2.31	.50	4.56	6.67	2.00	9.00
Total		63							

A one-way ANOVA was run to compare the results of the production of phrasal verbs by interventionist (explicit and implicit), and non-interventionist (incidental) learning groups. The F-observed value was 52.35 (Table 7). This amount of F-value is greater than the critical value of F at 2 and 60 degrees of freedom, i.e. 3.15.

Since the observed F-value exceeded its critical value, it can be concluded that there is significant difference between the phrasal verbs as produced by interventionist (explicit and implicit), and non-interventionist (incidental) learning groups.

TABLE 7:
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE PRODUCTION OF PHRASAL VERBS BY INTERVENTIONIST AND NON-INTERVENTIONIST GROUPS

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	269.079	2	134.540	52.353	.000
Within Groups	154.190	60	2.570		
Total	423.270	62			

The post-hoc Scheffe's test was run to compare the mean score of the interventionist group (explicit and implicit) with the mean of the non-interventionist (incidental) group on the production of phrasal verbs.

The mean difference of 2.33 ($p < .05$) indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the interventionist and non-interventionist's mean scores on the production of phrasal verbs (Table 8). Thus, the second null-hypothesis, stating that there is no significant difference between the effects of interventionist (explicit and implicit)

and non-interventionist (incidental) learning on the production of phrasal verbs by Iranian EFL learners, was also rejected.

TABLE 8:
POST-HOC SCHEFFE'S TEST FOR INTERVENTIONIST VS. NON-INTERVENTIONIST GROUPS ON PRODUCTION OF PHRASAL VERBS

(I) Groups	(J) Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Interventionist	Non-interventionist	2.333*	.637	.001	1.059	3.608
* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.						

The following graph displays the means of the three groups on the production of phrasal verbs.

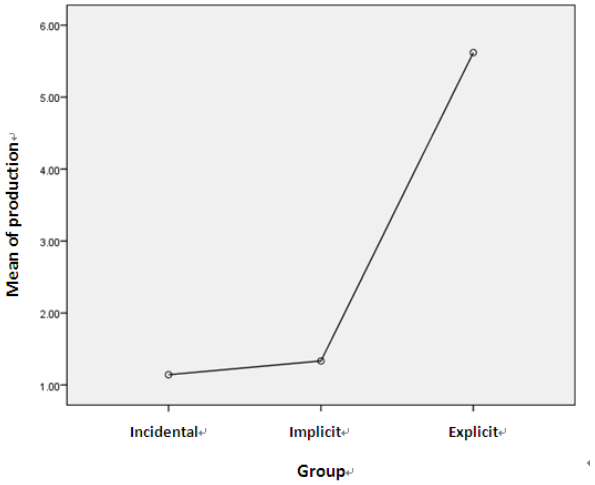

Figure 2: Production of phrasal verbs by the three groups

IV. DISCUSSION

The results of this study clarified that not only did the interventionist group outperform the non-interventionist group on both recognition and production of phrasal verbs, but also the performance of those engaged in interventional explicit group (output and input enhancement treatment) was superior to the performance of interventional implicit (input enhancement) group.

In what follows, the researcher will seek to explain the crucial reasons (either theoretical, or on the basis of previous studies) behind the success of interventionist over non-interventionist groups in both recognition and production of phrasal verbs. An attempt will be made to explain the superiority of interventional explicit (output and input enhancement) group through the interventionist category of this study.

A. Incidental Learning of Phrasal Verbs

The results obtained through the incidental group show any significant learning of phrasal verbs. This is in line with the result of study did by Hulstijn, Hollander, and Greidanus (1996). In that study learners were not successful in incidental learning because sometimes:

1. Learners fail to notice the presence of unfamiliar words when they do not obstruct the process of text comprehension.
2. Learners believed that they know the word meaning when in fact they do not. Therefore they guess wrong or unrelated meanings for the word.
3. This failure may also be due to the lack of frequency, since just a single encounter with a new word cannot guarantee its acquisition.

B. Input Enhancement and Learning of Phrasal Verbs

The results indicated that typographical input enhancement in the form of marginal gloss didn't have significant impacts on either recognition or production of these phrasal verbs. The results that we arrived at here are in line with those of White (1998). In her study she showed that although according to Schmidt (1990) attention played a vital role in the conversion of input to intake, the role of detection as a central component of attention, as was introduced by Tamlin and Villa (1994), should not be ignored. Therefore in this study although these marginal glosses made these phrasal verbs salient and helped learners to bridge their language gaps in the process of text comprehension, they didn't go through further cognitive processing for acquisition.

In this study, mere exposure to phrasal verbs seemed insufficient. It is also possible that other forms of input enhancement have more positive effect on implicit learning of phrasal verbs through noticing.

C. Explicit Teaching of Phrasal Verbs

In this study the interventional explicit group outperformed both interventional implicit and non-interventional groups for these reasons:

Pushed output: Considering output as an important factor in language acquisition is in line with the results of the study did by Izumi (2002). In that study, pushed output that was induced in the form of production tasks may draw learner's attention not only to target features but also to their interlanguage problems through their production attempts. Therefore, pushed output may lead learners to process the input effectively for their lexical development.

Quantity of attention: In this study both output and input enhancement tended to draw learners attention to phrasal verbs. Izumi (2002) believed that while through using input enhancement, attention is induced by external means; attention in output arises internally through production process. Therefore in the present study the accompaniment of output and input enhancement for the explicit teaching group can increase the quantity of attention paid to target features and facilitate the process of learning.

Depth of processing: More important than the quantity of attention is the quality of attention or depth of processing in the acquisition of these phrasal verbs. Izumi (2002) believed that quality of attention or depth of processing might fluctuate through different processing and various tasks. Hence, while in this study, the shallow processing level of input enhancement concurred with the deeper level of processing in production tasks, superior performance was evidenced.

Explicitness: Considering an implicit/explicit continuum, input enhancement alone was considered as an implicit way of drawing learner's attention to these phrasal verbs. On the other hand, on the more explicit side of the continuum is placed; a combination of output, input enhancement that is accompanied with the explicit explanations about the nature and the construct of phrasal verbs and correction feedbacks on the part of the teacher through performing production tasks by learners. This would help them to trigger further cognitive processes. It would enable learners to reach deeper levels of processing and stronger memory traces (White, 1998, Izumi, 2002).

V. Conclusion and Implications

Considering the results of this study, it seems that the idea of incidental learning as accidental, unintentional learning of information is ineffective that for it to happen there is a need for more exposure to target lexical items. Indeed in EFL contexts in which the only source of comprehensible input is classroom exposure and practice, attention drawing activities should be considered as an indispensible part of language teaching. However some means of internal attention drawing activities like production tasks through deeper levels of processing may strengthen the connections in the process of learning and result in more significant improvements. The other point to be mentioned is that we should always consider the facilitative role of instruction in the process of learning.

Researchers during the past decades confirmed that more than incidental exposure might be important for second language acquisition to occur. According to Brown (2001: 377) vocabulary learning requires "good grounds for intervening at the metacognitive level."

This intervention does not imply the rebirth of the same traditional burdensome methods of vocabulary teaching (Brown, 2001; Pica, 2005). Therefore, from this viewpoint, lexical items such as phrasal verbs have a central role in meaningful language acquisition. Learners should be guided through the provision of balanced amounts of implicit and explicit practices and instructions to the superior acquisition of these lexical items. The balanced intervention in the process of learning implies the congruity of input, input enhancement and output doses.

Curriculum developers should pay more careful attention to the role of output in second language vocabulary learning, especially some lexical units like phrasal verbs that are to some extent more common in informal language. Therefore, justified time and energy should be allocated to the provision of students with tasks that guide them to controlled production accompanied with the instructor's feedback and support.

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Skeleton Writing in Chinese Universities: Truly Effective?

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***Abstract*—English Writing Test is considered to be one of the most effective measures in SLL and SLT. In China, in order to improve the students writing performance in tests, skeleton writing is widely employed in college English teaching. As a result, it is not surprising to see skeleton writing being desperately used in all sorts of writing tests, ranging from College English Test Band 4 and College English Test Band 6 (known as CET4 and CET6) to postgraduate entrance examination. However, some people have doubted about the effectiveness of skeleton writing. In order to explore the effectiveness of skeleton writing, a survey was conducted in the Chinese academic year of 2008 and 2009 in eastern China. Results of this survey suggest that although most training staffs attached great importance to skeleton writing, students, especially those with relative low English level, can hardly benefit from it. This essay aims to offer the conclusion that skeleton writing is really of some help for few, but not for so many as has been expected.**

***Index Terms*—skeleton writing, college English test, China, effectiveness**

I. Background

Skeleton writing, (someone named it as model writing (Connors,1981), an equivalent to its Chinese version 模板作文) a term maybe not new to western academic circle (the English version maybe new to Chinese), has been a hot topic in China. What is skeleton writing? Generally speaking, it means that, before you write, something has already been written for you and this is called the skeleton and what you need to do is to stuff the skeleton with flesh and blood (Appendix A). It is expected that with the help of skeleton, writers could write well and better in practice. Some native speakers of English employ skeleton writing as a technique in their writing instructions. "I can create an outline — a sentence outline — for a five paragraph essay on an assigned topic in two shakes of a lamb's tail. So can your students."[1] The popularity of skeleton writing in China can date back to the turn of the 21st century when postgraduate examination was drawing more and more people's attention. At that time, some English training staffs first brought up the concept of "skeleton writing" with an attempt to help the students get a good score in English writing tests. From then on, the term "skeleton writing" became popular with both teachers and students and it has been widely used in all sorts of English examinations, for example, CET4&6, postgraduate entrance examinations, even college entrance examinations.

There is some debate, however, about the effectiveness of skeleton writing in English writing tests. Students, especially those with relatively low English level, applaud for skeleton writing. In their opinion, the use of skeleton writing is a guarantee for a high score, or at least, an eraser for the distinction of being poor or good at English writing. Also, some teachers, even scholars think high of skeleton writing. They believe that skeleton writing, if used properly, could improve the students' writing performance; thus they spare no efforts to introduce skeleton writing to students.

Taking a contrary view to this position, some people argue against such attitudes, worrying that their use of skeleton writing is based on a thorough misunderstanding of English writing and its side-effect may be far-reaching. As a matter of fact, skeletons, or models in writing instruction have survived for centuries (Corbett, 1965 and Covino, 1988) and criticism of them has arisen for nearly as long. The most common complaint about skeleton writing or model writing in English—the five-paragraph essay—is that it induces formulaic, empty writing. To them, skeleton writing, on the one hand, has cornered the students' imagination, inhibited students' identities as writers, and on the other hand, distorted or misrepresented the processes of English writing, which might result in exam-oriented education to a large extent. (Connors, 1981; Elbow, 1973; Johns, 1995; Leki, 1995; Murray, 1985; Shih, 1986; Silva, 1999; Spack, 1988).

If the Chinese university at which I am teaching is of any indication, there is certainly enough Evidence to suggest that skeleton writing occurs on a large and regular basis in Chinese higher education. College English teachers are continuously discovering that writings submitted to them by their students have had skeleton writing traces. What's more, it is not unusual to see in many English tests students have employed skeleton writing. For example, CET4&6. Is skeleton writing really academically acceptable in Chinese universities? Is it really effective in improving students' writing performance? Or, is it really of any help in improving students' English writing? The purpose of the present study is to explore the effectiveness of skeleton writing among Chinese students as well as English teachers. To do so, I

[1] www.you-can-teach-writing.com/create –outline.html

make an attempt to see both the teachers' and students' reactions to skeleton writing.

II. Survey Methodology

At the end of the second semester, all the freshmen of 2008 in Ludong University participated in their English final examination (which is usually called College English Test Band 1). Table 1 shows the results of the six departments and Table 2 shows overall totals of the freshmen. There were no apparent differences in their measures. And also, these scores were similar to the overall total mean.

TABLE 1
CET BAND 2 RESULTS FOR STUDENTS FROM 6 DEPARTMENTS.

Department	N	Minimum score	Maximum score	x	SD
Chinese	478	58	86	76.51	8.24
History	287	56	87	77.03	8.68
Economics	254	48	84	75.96	9.13
Physics	463	44	86	75.87	8.76
Computer	356	28	84	73.45	9.25
Civil Engineering	347	33	88	73.46	8.76

(N=number, x=mean, SD=standard deviation)

TABLE 2
CET BAND 2 RESULTS FOR ALL FRESHMEN OF 2008 EXCEPT THOSE OF P.E. DEPARTMENT

	N	Minimum score	Maximum score	x	SD
total	3466	18	91	74.37	20.45

(N=number, x=mean, SD=standard deviation)

Two classes, Class A and Class B, with 63 students respectively, participated in the study, which was conducted in the 3rd semester. Class A is composed of students from 2 departments, Chinese Department (31) and Civil Engineering Department (32) while Class B is made up of 63 among which 32 are from History Department and 31 from Computer Department.

In this study, Class A was exposed to the normal writing techniques and writing procedures (for example, the brainstorming, outline, proofreading, to name just a few) while Class B was equipped with skeletons only. A writing test followed immediately after the writing instruction of the two classes. In the test, the students were asked to write an article based on the outline given in 30 minutes in no less than 120 words (Appendix B).

To minimize the potential drawbacks caused by skeleton writing and to minimize the potential weakness of conventional writing teaching, in the forth semester, skeleton writing and conventional writing are both conveyed to Class A and Class B respectively.

A brief survey followed the writing test immediately for Class B. During the survey, the students of Class B were asked to answer some questions concerning their writing classes and writing test. The question-based survey was in both Chinese and English and the students could choose either Chinese or English when answering questions.

Next, a case study was conducted. The title of the CET 6 of 2009 English writing is "Should Parents Send Their Kids to Arts Classes?" Out of so many skeleton writings, the present writer picked up one and invited 67 college English teachers to score it independently. Then the article was taken to Jinan, the capital city of Shandong Province, which is one of the six scoring centers of China. There, the writing was scored again by another 67 teachers, who have undertaken the CET writing scoring for more than once and have accumulated some knowledge about skeleton writing.

III. Results

A. Writing Test

Table 3 and Table 4 indicates the writing scores of Class A and Class B (15 points being the full score)

TABLE 3

Class A	N	Minimum score	Maximum score	x	SD
Chinese Department	31	7	12	9.32	1.61
Civil Engineering Department	32	6	13	8.91	1.63

(N=number, x=mean, SD=standard deviation)

TABLE 4

Class B	N	Minimum score	Maximum score	x	SD
History Department	32	4	14	9.03	2.86
Computer Department	31	3	14	8.55	3.01

(N=number, x=mean, SD=standard deviation)

From the chart above, we can see that, there is subtle difference between the two classes after one-semester's writing

training. The mean score of the two classes is almost the same. However, there are 9 students from class B who scored more than 11 points while there are only 6 from class A. However, there are 21 who scored below 8 in Class B while in Class A the number is 12.

B. Question-based Survey

In the survey followed the writing test, students from Class B were generally positive in their response to skeleton writing, satisfied that it served as a wonder drug to their headache of English writing. "It is a wonder for me. I really wonder why my high school teacher didn't teach us that kind of skeleton writing," commented one. Another noted, "My English is poor, but I am sure I do well this time. I even admire my writing. It saved me lots of time."

But, still, a few held opposite ideas. "I could write nothing else down except the skeleton, and I don't know how to fill in and what to fill in the skeleton." Another wrote, "It looks like eight-part essays.[2] Is it the genuine English writing?"

C. Case Study

Table 5 shows the scores of one of the CET 6 writings " Should Parents Send Their Kids to Art Classes" (Appendix D), scored by 67 English teachers of Ludong University.

TABLE 5

	N	Minimum score	Maximum score	x	SD
English teachers	67	2	12	7.25	2.31

(N=number, x=mean, SD=standard deviation)

Table 6 indicates the scores of the same writing "Should Parents Send their kids to Art Classes?", scored by another 67 English Teachers who are familiar with skeleton writing.

TABLE 6

	N	Minimum score	Maximum score	x	SD
Scoring teachers	67	2	10	4.66	1.37

(N=number, x=mean, SD=standard deviation)

In the two scorings, the highest score was12, and the mean of Table 6 was much lower than that of Table 5.

Responses from the two groups of teachers were different too. The following is a sampling of the comments from some teachers, with their scores in parentheses.

Teachers scoring for Table 5

- I am surprised at his writing. Quite good at structuring and writing. (11)
- He could write good English. (11)
- Excellent at English writing. (12)
- He writes well in some parts but fails in other parts. (10)
- He is imitating to some extent, and it works. (9)
- He is coping some sentences and we can hardly see his own writing. (2)

Teachers scoring for Table 6

- Absolutely coping! (2)
- No flesh, no blood, except the skeleton! (2)
- He steals the structure. (3)
- What he lacks is his own writing. (4)
- Excellent at some parts (obviously coping) and rather poor at his own writing. (3)
- It is surprising that he has a very good memory at memorizing the structure but could not improve his English writing. (3)

Many other comments reflect similar sentiments to the above.

Overall, the 67 teachers from the scoring center thought that the writing was nothing but a failure.

IV. DISCUSSION: IS SKELETON WRITING REALLY EFFECTIVE?

The scores and accompanying comments by the 67 teachers from the scoring center seemingly contradict Class B's generally positive idea that skeleton writing is a wonder drug to cure their headache of writing. We can also see contradicting ideas among English teachers (67 of my colleagues, for example). Even in Class B alone, there are different opinions about the effectiveness of skeleton writing.

Is skeleton writing effective? It seems, at least to some extent, to be. In the study of Class A and Class B, nine

[2] It is a kind of examination-oriented essay which could date back to Ming Dynasty when the participants of imperial competitive examination had to adopt the form of the fixed eight parts in their writing. It was notorious for its bandage of intellectuals' imagination and thought and was abolished in Qing Dynasty.

students from Class B scored more than 11 points and the number in Class A was only 6. Also, the highest score (14) was in Class B.

Is skeleton writing really effective? It seems not. Garfinkel and Sacks (1970) stress that there must be certain shared understandings about the insufficiencies of models (skeletons). Writers must know the limits of the model. He or she must know that the model has intentional insufficiencies. Let's take another look at the study of Class A and Class B. Twenty-one students from Class B scored below 8 points and the number in Class A was only 12. Also, in the question-based survey, more than few students held negative, or at least, suspected ideas about skeleton writing, including those who scored more than 8.

- "I could write down nothing else except the skeleton and I don't know how to fill in and what to fill in the skeleton."(4/15)
- "It looks like eight-part essays. Is it the genuine English writing?" (11/15)

As for the sample writing, "Should Parents Send Their Kids to Art Classes?", the responses from the scoring center are further indications of some teachers' negative attitude, even hate, toward skeleton writing.

Taking all these factors into consideration, skeleton writing is not as effective as that has been expected and publicized. We say that it is effective only in that it can help students grasp the structure of the composition and only those whose English is good enough to manipulate it can develop the skeleton fully, can endow the skeleton with blood and flesh and make it vivid and live. In other words, only those with good English can benefit from skeleton writing and make it to its full potential. Otherwise, it served as nothing but a bondage to students' imagination and improvement, which is obviously against the expected function of skeleton writing.

For ordinary students and the sort below, skeleton writing is rather misleading. Models (skeletons) do not easily transfer to other writing tasks and models represent writing styles too narrowly (Elbow, 1994; Moffett, 1982; Murray, 1985; Swales, 1997). Skeleton writing in question is effective only in some argumentative writings (Should Parents Send their Kids to Art Classes? Say). Once faced up with other forms of writing, for example, expository writing or descriptive writing, Students would be at loss and in this case skeleton shows them no direction at all. If some of them accidentally get a high score with skeleton writing, the scoring teacher must be dozy off while scoring. For those who have been publicizing skeleton writing, generally speaking, there are only two purposes, if not the later one alone: to help students pass writing tests and to make money from various kinds of training programs or test-oriented books. It is not easy to write in either one's native language or second language. There is no shortcut in learning English writing. Only by writing can one learn to write. Only when one has a good command over English can he benefit some, not too much as has been publicized, from skeleton writing. Skeleton is the means, not the ends in writing.

V. Conclusion

Limitations to this study cannot be neglected. First, there is the matter of how much exposure students from Class A have experienced with the so popular skeleton writing. Though we have tried to keep them from that concept and tried to input conventional writing techniques, they are not living in vacuum thoroughly immune to outside circumstances.

Second, there is another matter of how much knowledge the 67 teachers of my colleagues have got about skeleton writing before they scored the sample writing. As far as I know, some of them are in strong favor of skeleton writing, training their students with great effort.

Despite the above points, the results suggest that we, especially English teachers, should be careful about concluding that skeleton writing is effective and is of great help to improve students' English writing.

Many people, varying from college English teachers to training program teachers, still teach students to write in skeleton forms, assuming that they will get a high score with it. Many students follow the suit, believing blindly that skeleton writing will help them stand out from so many ordinary writings and help them win in the end.

In fact, skeleton writing will not work unless you have an excellent command over English and know very well about conventional English writing (writing procedures, writing techniques, to name just a few). There is a popular proverb going like this: "When you give somebody a fish, he has a meal. But if you teach him to fish, he can make a living himself." thus we should teach them to fish, not teach them just to wait for the smelly fish.

Appendix A. A Sample Skeleton

It is generally believed that … is a hot topic which is widely talked about both at home and abroad. As for this topic, different people have different ideas.

There are many advantages which are closely related to this situation. In the first place…; In the second place…; What's more…

However, …has also brought us some disadvantages. On the one hand,… On the other hand, …for example….

In my opinion, we should make every effort to come out with possible solutions to this problem. As soon as this problem is solved or even partially relieved, we are bound to have a much bright future.

Appendix B. Directions for the Writing Test

Directions: For this part, you are allowed 30 minutes to write a short essay entitled ***Keeping Pets*** **.**You should write at

least 120 words following the outline given below.

1. The advantage of keeping pets
2. The disadvantage of keeping pets
2. Your opinion

APPENDIX C.

The following is an article written by a university student in College English Examination Bank 6 in 2009. The directions are as follows:

Directions: For this part, you are allowed 30 minutes to write a short essay entitled ***Should Parents Send Their Kids to Art Classes?*** You should write at least 150 words following the outline given below.

现在有不少家长送孩子参加各种艺术班

1、对这种做法有人表示支持

2、有人并不赞成

3、我认为……

Should Parents Send Their Kids to Art Classes?

Whoever in front of this subject will be greatly shocked. What is conspicuously illustrated in this topic about is that parents send their kids to art classes. Odd and funny as it seems to be, such happening are so wide spread that we cannot afford to ignore them.

Obviously we can easily define that the subject intends to reflect to us and the strong and deep message suggested here is that art classes have two sides. It will change some students' life and it also have harm to somebody. It is alarming that similar events are available in nearly all walks of life. If such stories go unchanged, it is hard to imagine that our society will be like years later. Failure to realize the severity of this grim situation will inevitably to decrease of chances of success. As a result, parents send their kids to art classes is harmfully.

Much can be done. What tops the agenda, I deem, is to help people develop a wholesome outlook on life and to cultivate noble and worthy value and qualities among them. Moreover, we should appeal the government to take nation-wide prompt actions. All the society should make sustained and controlled efforts to curb such practices. Only in this way, can we maintain a happy and health society as we as wish.

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Investigating the Effect of Visually-enhanced Input on the Acquisition of Lexical Collocations by Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners: A Case of Verb-noun Lexical Collocations

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***Abstract*—This study evaluates the potentially relative effectiveness of visual/textual input-based enhancement on the acquisition of Verb-Noun lexical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners. To this end, ninety-six intermediate learners were selected and randomly assigned to three equal groups. Having administered a pre-test, the three groups attended ten sessions of intervention in which all the learners received the same set of ten reading passages; nevertheless, the first experimental group (EG1) received reading passages in which the collocations bolded or CAPITALIZED. The subjects in the second experimental group (EG2) underwent a conventional-based treatment. The control group (CG) received no specific instructions. Later, the three groups took a post-test. The results indicated that both visually/textually enhanced input and conventional method of teaching have a statistically significant effect on the acquisition of target items. Moreover, it can be concluded that visual/textual input-based enhancement can be as beneficial as conventional method of teaching.**

***Index Terms*—visual/textual enhancement, conventional instruction, lexical collocations, Iranian EFL learners**

I. Introduction

A. Overview

The field of second language acquisition (SLA) is witnessing an increasing interest in the idea that drawing learners' attention to the formal features of second language (L2) input is beneficial, and in some cases necessary, for optimal L2 development (Schmidt, 1990, 1993; Sharwood Smith, 1991, 1993). This interest has challenged researchers to develop pedagogic techniques that enhance input, and has resulted in a large body of research on input enhancement. The idea behind input enhancement is that by making formal aspects of L2 input more salient learners will be more likely to notice targeted forms, resulting in more intake, the subset of the input data that becomes available for further language processing.

During the past decades input has become even more important in the work of researchers using cognitive models to second/foreign language learning (Ellis, 1999; McLaughlin, 1987; Sharwood Smith, 1993, 1994; Tomasello, 1998). From a cognitive perspective, access to input is considered as perhaps the most important requirement for language development. It has been indicated that input provides essential positive evidence including the language data that allows acquisition to occur (Gass, 1997). A fundamental question in the field of SLA is to what extent and in what ways learners' attention should be drawn to certain forms. One of the methods of formal instruction which focuses on the concepts of 'noticing' and 'consciousness-raising' is the focus-on-form (FonF) approach.

In a FonF instructional approach, learners' attention will be attracted to certain forms. One of the implicit methods of FonF instruction is 'input enhancement' (Sharwood Smith, 1991), which aims at increasing the learners' noticing threshold by making the input salient and easily recognizable through manipulating different aspects of it (Sharwood Smith,1993). Manipulation of input often takes the form of *visual/textual input enhancement*, in which the target forms become visually salient. In addition, given the importance of formal instruction in the present SLA research, this study will attempt to investigate the overall effectiveness of 'visual/textual input enhancement' as an important trigger in which the target items become visually/textually salient (i.e., Verb-Noun lexical collocations) while processing for meaning.

B. Statement of the Problem

The researcher thinks there is not enough study to investigate the effect of visual/textual input enhancement on the acquisition of preselected target features. Taking into account the learners' limited capacity in noticing all aspects of L2 input, current theorizing in SLA has underlined the importance of language teaching methods which are more likely to help the learners in noticing the information that might otherwise be ignored. Visual/textual input enhancement is one of the latest methods that take implicit 'attention-drawing' activities into account closely.

Apparently, one of the fundamental components of language proficiency which make a positive contribution to the ways learners speak, listen, read and write is a sufficient knowledge of lexical collocations. It has been indicated that prefabricated language chunks and routinized formulae have an important role in language acquisition and use (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992). Thus, it is of great importance that L2 learners have a good knowledge of the particular patterns in which words are frequently grouped. Firth (1968) argues that lexical collocations form a significant part of a words' meaning; that is, one cannot perceive the genuine meaning of a word without knowing its relevant collocations. Accordingly, if collocational associations are not learned as part of the L2 knowledge, the learners' speech or writing will be immediately decided upon as non-native or simply as odd. Some instances of wrongly-used lexical collocations are, *undertake suicide, *perpetrate a sin, *strong engine, *a rush of anger, etc.

II. Theoretical Framework

A. The Importance of Input Enhancement

Sharwood Smith (1991) contends that the most obvious way to try to affect subconscious processing beneficially is by making relevant target forms in the input salient. He further argues that making the input salient (input enhancement) has a highly positive effect on the rate and accuracy of L2 acquisition. Apparently, this salience does not involve directly manipulating the subconscious processes— this is by definition impossible— but it expands or restricts the information on which the processes may operate. On the importance of input enhancement Sharwood Smith (1994, p.181) writes the following lines:

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

White (1998) has also stressed the importance of input enhancement. They have suggested that input enhancement can help L2 acquisition in two main ways: by drawing learners' attention to certain properties of L2, and by helping them 'unlearn' their incorrect analyses of L2. Thus, input enhancement appears to affect learners' knowledge and performance in the second language, and it seems reasonable to expect language teachers and syllabus designers to make use of input enhancement.

B. Visual Input Enhancement: Previous Studies

Visual input enhancement is an implicit and unobtrusive means to draw the learners' attention to linguistic forms contained in the written input. The basic method of enhancement is simply increasing the perceptual salience of the target forms via a variety of typographical techniques (e.g. highlighting, underlining, bolding, capitalizing, shadowing, color coding, etc.), which is also known as *visual/textual enhancement*. Thus, the enhancement embedded in the overall reading lesson aims to achieve the integration of attention to form and attention to meaning.

Previous studies on the effects of visual input enhancement— both those that used short-term treatments with rather limited exposure to the input (Alanen, 1995; Leow, 1993; Robinson, 1996; Shook, 1994; Williams, 1999), and those that adopted longer-term treatments with a greater amount of input exposure (Doughty, 1988, 1991; White, 1998) —produced quite mixed results. Three of these studies (Doughty, 1991; Shook, 1994; Williams, 1999) yielded positive findings for the facilitative effects of input enhancement, whereas four other studies (Alanen, 1995; Robinson, 1997a; White, 1998) showed only limited effects. Finally, the other two studies (Doughty, 1988; Leow, 1993) found no significant effects at all. It should be mentioned, however, that various differences in these studies make direct comparison among them difficult.

In short, visual/textual input enhancement serves to draw the learners' attention to certain linguistic forms in the input that might otherwise go unnoticed or unlearned (Sharwood Smith, 1991). Sharwood Smith (1993) argues that visual/textual input enhancement contributes to the 'input-to-intake' process because it highlights language forms that learners tend to ignore. This claim is also in line with the current theorizing in SLA that 'noticing' is essential to L2 acquisition (Schmidt, 1990, 1995). It is, therefore, natural that input enhancement should have gained considerable popularity in the field of SLA.

C. Lexical Collocations

Benson (1989) argues that typical lexical collocations consist of nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs. That is, lexical collocations, in contrast to grammatical collocations, do not contain prepositions, infinitives, or clauses. Verb + Noun collocations, the topic of my research, are classified as lexical collocations. According to Benson (1989), lexical collocations fall into six major categories:

1. V. + N. → e.g. *withdraw an offer/reach a verdict*
2. Adj. + N. → e.g. *rough estimate/reckless abandon*

3. N. + V. → e.g. *bomb explodes/ alarms go off*
4. N. + N. → e.g. *bank manager/flock of sheep*
5. Adv. + Adj. → e.g. *totally unaware/deeply absorbed*
6. V. + Adv. → e.g. *appreciate sincerely/apologize humbly*

D. The Necessity of Teaching Lexical Collocations

The lack of lexical collocational competence is noticeable when non-native speakers of English need productive language knowledge. Students either use only the limited number of lexical collocations they know or under the influence of their first language "create" unnatural and farfetched collocations. Most intermediate and advanced students know such common lexical collocations as *have a quarrel*, *make a decision*, and *take the responsibility*, but few know the similar collocations like *pick/provoke/start a quarrel*, *arrive at/reach/take* (BrE) *a decision*, and *assume/bear/shoulder/undertake the responsibility*. Lexical collocational familiarity of English learners lags far behind their passive language knowledge. One reason for this is that a large number of 'verb + noun' collocations are "arbitrary and non-predictable". For example one can say: *commit a crime* and *perpetrate a crime*, *commit a fraud* and *perpetrate a fraud*. However, one can only say *commit suicide*, not **perpetrate suicide*; *make an effort*, not **do an effort*. One can say *hold a funeral*, but not **hold a burial*. Likewise, *make an estimate* is frequently used, but not **make an estimation* (Benson, 1989). Therefore, the overgeneralization of collocational range is quite risky. In fact, Benson who based his observation on citations from various newspapers and magazines even concluded that "many native speakers of English need help with Lexical collocations" (Benson, 1990). Thus, from many researchers we can reasonably infer that, since collocational capacity can not be spontaneously acquired, the teaching of (lexical) collocations is absolutely integral to the encoding of a language by non-native speakers.

Moreover, the existing literature on collocations obviously shows that a good knowledge of collocations and high language proficiency are closely interrelated (Ellis, 1999; Gitsaki & Taylor, 1997; Zhang, 1993). Emphasizing the importance of lexical collocations to linguistic competence, Ellis (1999) argues that learners' fluent use of word sequences (i.e. frequent collocations, phrases, and idioms) is a very important index of native-like competence. Schmidt and McCarthy (1999) also noted that an increase in the learners' knowledge of collocations will lead to an improvement in their oral skills and reading comprehension. Briefly, it can be claimed that native-like performance of L2 learners relies on their stock of collocations. Simply put, learners' lack of collocational knowledge makes them sound odd and not very competent in their language use--prevalent problem in the present EFL situation in Iran.

Thus, the importance of lexical collocations on the one hand, and the significance of formal instruction (in this particular case, visual/textual input enhancement) on the other hand, have encouraged the present researcher to conduct such a research.

III. Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to determine whether visually/textually enhanced input has any statistically possible significant effect on the acquisition of Verb-Noun lexical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners. Thus, an attempt made to investigate whether Verb-Noun lexical collocations taught through visual/textual input enhancement (making the input salient for the learners by **bolding** or CAPITALIZING) are learned better by the Iranian EFL learners at an intermediate level. This study also takes the effects of the conventional teaching method into consideration.

It needs to be noted that, given the limitation of space, the study focuses only on one of the six types lexical collocations proposed by Benson (1989); namely, type one, Verb-Noun collocations. The selection of this particular Verb-Noun Collocations is motivated by the following two reasons:

1. Common use:

The Verb-Noun collocations are among the most common collocations in English. According to Benson, Benson, and Ilson (1986) many lexical collocations in English consist of a verb and a noun, such as *bring in an acquittal*, *file a complaint*, and *put on airs*.

2. Source of difficulty for non-native speakers (NNS's):

Collocational studies conducted by various researchers in EFL/ESL, such as Bahns and Eldaw (1993), Newman (1988), and Aghbar (1990) have indicated that lexical collocations and, more specifically, the Verb-Noun collocations are responsible for many ESL/EFL students' errors and thus pose difficulties for them. Benson, et al. (1986) have also touched briefly on the problems non-native speakers have with the Verb-Noun combination. The authors then state that students learning English as a foreign language have a great deal of difficulty in selecting the correct verbs.

Regarding the objectives of the present investigation, the research null hypotheses addressed in this study are as follows:

H0 (1): Visually/Textually enhanced input does not have a statistically significant effect on the acquisition of Verb-Noun lexical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

H0 (2): Conventional method of teaching does not have a statistically significant effect on the acquisition of Verb-Noun lexical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

H0 (3): There is no statistically significant distinction between visually/textually enhanced input and conventional method of teaching regarding the influence these two methods exert on the acquisition of Verb-Noun lexical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

A total of 128 male students aged between 19 and 28, with Persian as their mother tongue were selected in this study from some language schools in Esfahan, a city in Iran. In order to classify them in almost homogenized groups and screen the required number of subjects, they were given The Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT). Then, those who scored one standard deviation above and below the mean (i.e., mean±1) were selected for the main part of the study. So the total number of the subjects of this study was 96. Furthermore, all the students participated in the research project voluntarily.

B. Instruments

1. The Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT)

In order to have a representative sample of the population under study a multiple-choice CELT was administered as the standard of the homogeneity of the learners. Having obtained the CELT results, the researcher decided to choose the participants whose score range was one standard deviation above and below the mean (i.e., mean±1). The rationale behind such application was to make sure that the EFL learners of all groups were all at the intermediate level of language proficiency and; therefore, could serve the purpose of the researcher.

2. Pre-test

Before the instructional treatment started, the subjects were pre-tested in order to ensure that all three groups were equivalent in terms of their general knowledge of Verb-Noun lexical collocations. The pre-test comprised 30 multiple-choice items from which Verb-Noun lexical collocations were missing, and the subjects were required to complete the sentences by selecting the correct choice.

3. Post-test

In order to determine the effect of instructional intervention on the acquisition of the target forms (i.e., Verb-Noun lexical collocations), a 30-item multiple-choice post-test parallel to that of the pre-test was also constructed by the researcher.

4. Reading Passages

The third instrument was ten reading passages selected for the purpose of presenting the participants with the Verb-Noun lexical collocations. Several passages were selected from the accessible collocation books on the market. The readability of the selected passages was determined based on Fog's readability formula and. Finally, ten passages which had the almost the same readability indices (about 19.80) and were of the average same length-210 words- were chosen to be used for reading materials. One important consideration in selecting the passages was to select texts that would not require culture-specific or discipline-specific background knowledge. It is clear that all the reading passages were authentic and they were geared to the proficiency level of the subjects in the research since they were all extracted from language teaching materials designed for intermediate EFL learners. Furthermore, the subjects in all the three groups read the same set of reading materials.

C. Procedures

1. Pilot study

In addition to the main study, in order to standardize and validate the tests, this study involved a pilot study. In this phase of the study the poor items were either revised or replaced by better items. To do so, 84 multiple-choice questions were made of the selected passages to be used for the pre-test and post-test. Then, the tests were administered to 30 subjects with similar characteristics as those of the target groups. Based on the psychometric characteristics of the items, i.e., item facility, item discrimination, and choice distribution, the tests were modified and certain items were discarded the final version had 30 multiple-choice items for the pre-test and 30 for the post-test. The face validity of the tests was also established through the expert opinion of the advisor and two English teachers teaching intermediate EFL learners in several language schools. Since the pre- and post-test utilized in this study were researcher-made, Cronbach's alpha test was run to measure their reliability. The results of the pilot tests indicated reliability indices of 0.763 and 0.821 for the pre-test and post-test, respectively. Needless to mention, such reliability indices proved that the researcher-made tests were acceptable for the purpose of the study.

2. Main Study

In order to accomplish this research, as mentioned before, ninety-six male EFL learners aged from 19 to 28 participated in the study. It should be mentioned that no matter how old or educated they were, all participants were intermediate learners studying English at the intermediate level of language proficiency in some of the language schools in Esfahan, Iran. Through considering the normal distribution of the subjects' scores on the proficiency test, those scores which were one standard deviation above and below the mean were decided to be in the group of subjects. The participants were randomly assigned to three control and experimental groups (32 students each). Then, to evaluate the

learners' knowledge of Verb-Noun lexical collocations prior to the application of any type of intervention, a 30-item multiple-choice pre-test designed to elicit the target items in question for all three groups (i.e., two experimental and one comparison group). Next, instructional treatment was given during students' regular time class, and it lasted for ten sessions. Participants in all the three groups separately attended these ten sessions of instruction in which they were all given reading passages identical in their semantic content. Both of experimental groups and the control group were taught by the same person using different instructional ways specially constructed for each group. As for the students in Group One (EG1), the perceptual salience of the Verb-Noun lexical collocations in the reading passages was made via a variety of different typographical techniques such as **bolding** or CAPITALIZING, while this was not the case with Groups Two and Three. In other words, during the instructional sessions the students in Group One were taught through the unobtrusive and implicit means of visual/textual input-based treatment. In teaching the target items to students in the second group (EG2), the researcher applied one instructional treatment, *termed conventional instruction*, embodied a strong interface position, incorporating explicit instruction in English and Persian with immediate production practice to promote classroom SLA. Explicit teaching involves, exactly as the name implies, 'actually teaching' the target items, where learners are given explanations about the target features and students are directly taught how to use it correctly. Conventional instruction involved instructor presentation of rules and examples followed by an immediate production task (e.g., fill-in-the-blank, rewrite a paragraph). Unlike the experimental groups, the students in Group Three, the comparison group (CG), simply read the texts and ask for help in case of difficulties. After completing the treatment phase of the study, to determine the potential effect of instructional treatment on the acquisition of the target forms (i.e., Verb-Noun lexical collocations), a 30-item multiple-choice post-test parallel to that of the pre-test was also constructed by the researcher.

3. Scoring Procedure

As far as the scoring of *The Comprehensive English Language Test* (CELT) was concerned, each correct answer was assigned a single point, and all the correct answers added up to a total sum. There was no negative point for the items not answered at all. Likewise, in scoring the pre-test and the post-test, each item was graded dichotomously: one point for a correct item and zero for an incorrect one. There was no negative point for wrong answers or the items not answered at all. Therefore, since there were thirty items in each test, the grades were added up to a total sum of thirty.

V. Analysis and Interpretation of Results

In order to investigate the aforementioned null hypotheses, a number of descriptive and inferential statistical procedures were used. The results obtained through such analysis will be explained and delineated in the following section. For the groups to be comparable and for an experiment like this to be meaningful, the experimental and control group members were expected to indicate no significant differences concerning the Verb-Noun collocations under investigation at the present phase. In other words, members of the all three groups were expected to enjoy the same level of knowledge regarding the target items in question. In fact, this kind of homogeneity among the subjects made it possible for the researcher to compare the groups at the end of the study, and to see whether different kinds of intervention yielded different results. In order to meet the above-mentioned requirement, a pre-test was given to all three groups to gauge their knowledge of target items in question. Table 1depicted the descriptive statistics of the participants' mean scores on the pre-test across the three groups.

Table 1.
Descriptive statistics for each group's performance on pre-test

	Groups		
	EG1	EG2	CG
Mean	13.8000	14.1522	14.0584
Std. Deviation	2.215	2.183	2.114
Variance	4.905	4.766	4.471
Minimum	12.00	11.00	12.00
Maximum	18.00	19.00	18.00

Table 1 tells us that the means are statistically very close to each other on this pre-test (13.80 ≈14.15 ≈14.05). Therefore, it can be deduced that the learners in the three groups did not differ greatly from one another in terms of their knowledge of the lexical collocations in focus. That is, the participants' prior knowledge of Verb-Noun lexical collocations was statistically almost equal. In order to investigate the impact of visual/textual input-based treatment on the subjects' performance on Verb-Noun lexical collocations (i.e., the first null hypothesis), a paired-samples t-test was run. This t-test was intended to compare the obtained mean scores of the participants in Group One (taught via visual/textual input enhancement in the treatment phase) on the pre- and post-test to indicate the effectiveness of the treatment. The descriptive statistics, along with the results of the t-test for Group One, are presented in Tables 2 and 3, respectively.

TABLE 2.
PAIRED-SAMPLES DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR GROUP ONE

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
pair 1	PRE-TEST	13.8000	32	2.21533	.43014
	POST-TEST	21.6333	32	3.01128	.54978

TABLE 3.
PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR GROUP ONE

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 Pre/Post-test	-13.613	1.81092	.40493	-14.46000	-12.765	-33.617	19	.000

By looking at Table 2, it can be deduced that that the mean score obtained on the post-test (21.63) is higher than the one obtained on the pre-test (13.80). However, to ensure whether this difference between means was significant a paired-samples t-test was employed. Table 3 demonstrates that there is a significant difference in the scores obtained from the pre- and post-test because the probability value is less than 0.05 (the critical value). Accordingly, the first null hypothesis was rejected because visual/textual input enhancement was shown to exert a positive effect on the acquisition of the given Verb-Noun lexical collocations.

In order to examine the second null hypothesis, a paired-samples descriptive statistics along with the paired-samples t-test result are given in table 4 and 5.

TABLE 4.
PAIRED-SAMPLES DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR GROUP TWO

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
pair 1	PRE-TEST	14.1522	32	2.18352	.30127
	POST-TEST	22.1000	32	2.66267	.30355

TABLE 5.
PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR GROUP TWO

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 Pre/Post-test	-9.0000	2.4960	.55813	-10.1682	-7.8318	-16.125	19	.000

On a closer inspection of Table 4, one can clearly see that the subjects in Group Two gained a higher mean score on the post-test after receiving the treatment (Post-test=22.1000>Pre-test=14.1522).

In addition, It can be concluded from the information indicated in Table 5 that there is a significant difference in the performance of the participants on the pre-and post-test because the probability value is less than 0.05 (the critical value). It can be maintained that conventional instruction has a positive effect on the acquisition of Verb-Noun lexical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners. In a word, the second null hypothesis was rejected.

The descriptive statistics in table 6 reveal that the mean score obtained by Group Two (22.1000) is greater than mean score obtained by Group One (21.6333) which is, in turn, higher than the mean score belonging to Group Three (14.3617). In other words, the members of the experimental groups (EG1 and EG2) achieved better results those of the control group (CG).

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON THE POST-TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1	32	21.6333	3.01128	.54978	20.2265	21.9735	24.00	32.00
2	32	22.1000	2.66263	.30355	24.2125	26.4522	25.00	32.00
3	32	14.3617	1.61316	.29452	13.9210	15.1357	14.00	20.00
Total	96	19.3633	7.28704	.59200	20.3333	21.1833	14.00	32.00

Moreover, to determine whether or not the observed differences were significant at the critical value (Sig.) of $p<0.05$., a one-way between groups ANOVA was conducted. In fact, the results of the ANOVA helped clarifying the third null hypothesis. Table 7 presents the results of the ANOVA.

TABLE 7.
THE RESULTS OF ANOVA ON THE POST-TEST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	310.689	2	155.344	12.756	.000
Within Groups	962.092	79	12.178		
Total	1272.780	81			

Since the Sig. value is less than (0.05), then it can be mentioned that there is a statistically significant difference somewhere among the mean scores for the three groups. By looking at Table 7 carefully, one can conclude that the three groups differed significantly with respect to their mean scores on the post-test because the significant value is observed to be 0.000, which is less than the critical value (0.05).

The researcher also ran a Scheffe Post-hoc test to indicate where the differences among the three groups (i.e., sets of scores) occur. In other words, the post-hoc test was employed to show where exactly the differences lie. Table 8 provides the results of the post-hoc test.

TABLE 8.
THE RESULTS OF THE POST-HOC TEST

(I)TEACHING	(J) TEACHING	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	EG2	-.7333	.49087	.299	-1.9036	.4369
	CG	10.5667*	.49087	.000	9.3964	11.7369
2	EG1	.7333	.49087	.299	-.4369	1.9036
	CG	11.3000*	.49087	.000	10.1297	12.4703
3	EG1	-10.5667*	.49087	.000	-11.7369	-9.3964
	EG2	-11.3000	.49087	.000	-12.4703	-10.1297

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Referring to this table, the difference between Group Two (EG2) and Group Three (CG) is significant. Similarly, the difference between Group One (EG1) and Group Three (CG) seems to be significant. And accordingly, it can be claimed that Group Three is significantly different from Groups One and Two, but there seems to be no statistically significant difference between Groups One and Two. Therefore, the third null hypothesis of the present study is not rejected. In other words, there is no statistically significant difference between visual/textual input enhancement and conventional-based instruction in terms of the influence they exert on the acquisition of Verb-Noun lexical collocations.

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

A. Discussion

According to the findings obtained in the light of running different statistical tests, it was deduced the subjects in Group One, who were taught via visual/textual input enhancement, appeared to have benefited from this implicit and unobtrusive Focus on Form method of formal instruction. This was based on the assumption that using typographical cues to enhance the targeted items would increase their perceptual salience, which in turn would push participants to notice the enhanced structures and select them as intake, leading to better performance on the post-test.

The most convincing explanation for such a finding may come from the works of Sharwood Smith (1991, 1993, 1994), who is the originator of input enhancement. Sharwood Smith (1994) contends that "the most obvious way to try to affect the subconscious processes beneficially is by making relevant evidence in the input specially *salient*" (p.178). Therefore, it can be claimed that the findings of this study lend support to Sharwood Smith's speculations (1994) that input enhancement has a positive impact on the rate and accuracy of L2 acquisition. Besides, the results of the research question provide further empirical support for (Doughty, 1988; Shook, 1994; Williams, 1999).

The second null hypothesis, stating that the conventional method of teaching does not have a statistically significant effect on the acquisition of Verb-Noun lexical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners, was also rejected. The results attributed to the second null hypothesis seem to be well matched with the view of researchers in favor of explicit instruction. However, some opponents do not advocate explicit methods (Skehan, 1996b; Thornbury, 1997). Skehan (1996b), for example, comments that:

"The belief that a precise focus on a particular form leads to learning and automatization (that learners will learn what is taught in the order in which it is taught) no longer carries much credibility in linguistics or psychology."

This shows that conventional instructions are somehow capable of teaching target items mostly through context-reduced, non communicative exercises, such as repetition, memorization, transformation of structures, etc.

However, the use of explicit instruction in foreign/second language teaching has been recommended by researchers who believe in the insufficiency of implicit instruction as a means of inducing changes in the learners' interlanguage system (Jourdenias, 1998; White, 1998; Izumi, 2002).

The results of the analysis of the third null hypothesis revealed that that there was no statistically significant difference in the performance of Groups One and Two after receiving various types of interventions. In other words, the students in visual/textual input enhancement group did not perform significantly different from the students in Group Two. Therefore, the third null hypothesis was not rejected, and it was revealed that an implicit and unobtrusive

method of formal instruction such as visual/textual input enhancement can be as effective as conventional-based treatment which involves a lot of practice and explanation.

And accordingly, it can be claimed that the results of the present study are not in the same line with the views of the advocates of explicit instruction who maintained that learners receiving explicit instruction demonstrate higher levels of intake than those experiencing more implicit conditions (Robinson, 1997a; Rosa & O'Neill, 1999).

On the other hand, visual/textual input enhancement, which was employed in the current study to expose participants to the unaccusative structures in L2 English, rests on the implicit end of the implicit-explicit continuum, focuses on the written mode of language, and is preemptive by nature. The significantly advantageous effect of input enhancement observed from this study suggests that the processing of L2 form can be aided by such an implicit and preemptive type of instructional technique. Importantly, the benefit of enhancement was significant and substantial when compared to the control group condition. It may have been that L2 participants in this study were able to successfully draw their attention to the perceptually manipulated input materials. The findings, therefore, confirm the theoretical expectation in the focus-on-form literature regarding the favorable role of added salience (which was achieved in this study through a manipulation of the external input properties) in garnering more attention from L2 learners. The learning benefits of L2 participants may then be accounted for by the function of the added salience. Precisely speaking, an input made perceptually salient will be more likely to be noticed and processed by learners and to be incorporated into the learners' developing language system.

On the other hand, Sharwood Smith's claim that visual/textual input enhancement promotes the rate and accuracy of second language acquisition is strongly supported by the findings obtained in the present study.

B. Conclusions

Based on the findings of the present study, both the conventional explicit method of teaching and the implicit Focus on Form method of visual/textual input enhancement were beneficial to learning. Actually, the results of this research proposed some evidence in favor of the facilitative role of formal instruction in second language acquisition. Such results are consistent with a lot of researches aimed at proving that formal instruction is advantageous (Long, 1983; Norris & Ortega, 2000). However, the present findings seem to run counter to Krashen's (1982) view that comprehensible input is the necessary and sufficient requirement for L2 acquisition, and that there is no need for formal instruction.

It was also indicated in the present research that visual/textual input enhancement is not just one of a variety of techniques that may aid learners in acquisitional processes but as a kind of Focus on Form approach contributes to L2 acquisition. In a word, textual enhancement can result in better acquisition of enhanced information in the text.

Furthermore, it can be concluded from the obtained data that Focus on Form approaches like visually/textually enhanced input can be as conducive and effective as explicit instruction which require a lot of practice. Whereas practice cannot occur without some degree of noticing, the obverse is not the case; noticing can occur without practice. Hence, as the findings of this study show, it is perfectly possible to teach target forms in the sense of helping learners to notice and learn Verb-Noun lexical collocations without having them involve in activities that require repeated practice of the target items concerned.

Finally, it can be claimed, based on the comparison made between Groups One and Three in this study, that language learners have a limited capacity in noticing and that, therefore, they cannot attend to all aspects of L2 input. As mentioned before, the participants in Group One received the same reading materials as those in Group Three did. Nevertheless, for the students in Group One, the specific category of lexical collocations in focus made salient via **bolding** or CAPITALIZING. Such being the case, these subjects were indirectly helped to notice target items, and this made up for their limited capacity in noticing. Therefore, they indicated a good gain of the Verb-Noun lexical collocations in question. On the other hand, the learners in Group One, whose attention was not drawn to the target items in focus, did not show a significant intake of the Verb-Noun lexical collocations.

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Using Literature and Multiple Technologies in ESL Instruction

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***Abstract*—Many instructors are using literary texts along with language structure books in English as a Secondary Language (ESL) classrooms. Since literature is often written to portray a particular cultural or authentic experience, the material presented may not be familiar to ESL students. Also, the students may find such texts structurally complex and impossible to understand. To overcome these challenges, instructors need to implement strategies that will make the literary materials relevant and useful to student learning. The current study describes how multiple technologies were successfully employed in the presentation of Chinua Achebe's 1958 novel, *Things Fall Apart.* In addition, ESL students' reactions to the integration of technology in instruction were explored. Findings from this study have pedagogical implications for instructors who plan to incorporate literature and technology into their ESL curricula.**

***Index Terms*—technology, literature, ESL instruction**

I. Introduction

Using technology as a supplementary tool to support learning among students is a teaching strategy that continues to gain popularity today. Instructors are currently using various forms of technology to help improve understanding of their course content. Trends in technology have indeed altered the educational landscape and have caused changes in the way courses are developed and delivered (Hicks, Reid, & George, 2001). Although Smith & Ayers (2006) are of the view that technology hinders learning, contrary findings on this topic suggest that when used appropriately, technology helps enhance various aspects of learning (Ehrmann, 2002).

One area in which the effects of technology integration have been realized is in the education of students learning English as a second language (ESL). A report from the National Center for ESL Literacy Education (2002) discussed how some professionals use technology such as audio and video tapes, cameras, overhead projectors and software programs to enrich their instructional activities. Empirical research conducted to examine the influence of this approach showed that the use of technology helped motivate ESL learners to develop strategies for successful learning (Mayer, 1999, Moreno, Boire, & Vagge, 1999, Jelfs & Whitelock, 2000, Mansoor, 2002). Although the findings from past studies have demonstrated that technology usage may lead to positive learner experiences in ESL classrooms, it must be pointed out that most of the studies were conducted in situations where simplified materials designed for ESL learners was used. The question still remains as to whether this trend will persist when literature is included in the ESL curriculum.

Many scholars have either argued for or against the use of literature in ESL programs. Arguments forwarded against its use include the fact that the language used in the literature is structurally complex, conceptually difficult to understand, and is unique to a particular culture or authentic situation, therefore does not support the goals of teaching grammar in a language classroom and helping students meet their academic and occupational needs (Kay, 1982). Kay presented the following counter-argument:

Certainly, in so far as literature can foster an overall increase in reading proficiency, it will contribute to these goals. An evaluation of reading proficiency rests on an understanding of what is involved in the reading process…..reading necessitates the ability to interact with a text by decoding the language and comprehending the concepts presented (p. 530).

If this argument is supported then the next move is to determine how instructors can successfully use literature in ESL classrooms, specifically with the integration of technology and explore the extent to which technology use helped the instruction in Literature and improved ESL students' understanding of Literature and English proficiency skills. Given that little research has been conducted in this area (Pellicer-Sanchez & Schmidt, 2010), such a study is important in order to provide ESL instructors with an evidence-based frame of reference.

A. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to describe how technology was used to successfully teach literature in an ESL class and explore the affect on students' vocabulary skills and their reactions to the use of literature and technology in their learning. For the purposes of this study, a novel written by Chinua Achebe (1958) entitled *Things Fall Apart* was used. Some of the language used in the text is very authentic to the Igbo culture in Nigeria. In addition, this book portrays colonization, an experience and a theme that was very unfamiliar to the ESL students who participated in the study.

B. Research Questions

The questions that guided this study include:

1. What did the ESL students acquire from the use of literature in their classroom?
2. How did the students perceive the effect of technology integration in the teaching of literature on their learning?
3. In what specific ways did the variety of technology used help student understand the concepts presented in the authentic text?

C. Significance of the Study

Several benefits may be derived from this study. First, faculty who teach literature may find it useful to know how technology facilitates the teaching and learning of literature. Second, ESL faculty might realize the benefits of integrating literature instruction with technology and its implications for ESL students' learning. Finally, education administrators may realize through this study the importance of technology integration in the teaching and learning of literature especially to ESL students.

II. Review of Literature

In this review themes related to the current study are presented. First the approaches and methods in language teaching in ESL classrooms are reviewed. Next, the importance of including literature or literary texts in the ESL curriculum is addressed. Finally, issues related to technology integration in ESL instruction are discussed.

A. Approaches and Methods in ESL Teaching

According to Li (2006), language acquisition among young children is a gradual process that involves building vocabulary from messages received through communication and using the language in a highly supportive, non-stressful environment. Li goes on to point out that

"it is exactly these same conditions that foster the acquisition of a second language. The teacher is responsible for providing the understandable language (comprehensible input), along with whatever supports are necessary in order for the students to understand the message. Using approaches and materials that add context to the language such as props, gestures, and pictures, all contribute to the students' acquisition and eventual verbal production of language" (p. 56).

The above statement suggests that, the language presented by the teacher, the environment in which the language is presented, and the strategies used in presentation are very important considerations for the instructor if the aim is to facilitate student comprehension and language skills. A comprehensive presentation by Richards and Rodgers (2001) revealed some of the strategies that have been applied in language instruction over the years. These include Grammar-Translation, Direct, Reading, Audio-Lingual, Cognitive, Counseling Learning, Comprehension-Based, and Communicative approaches.

The Grammar-Translation method involves having students translate sentences from their native language into the target language. Mostly, with this approach the emphasis is less on student ability to speak and more on grammar and translation. When faced with questions that require speaking, students are allowed use gestures and other nonverbal responses. The Direct approach on the other approaches does not allowed students the opportunity to apply their native tongue. Students are immediately immersed into studying the new language they plan to acquire.

Another approach that is used in language instruction is the Reading approach where the emphasis is placed on being able to read and build vocabulary in the secondary language. This approach requires more control over the frequency and usage of the vocabulary. Similarly, the Audio-Lingual method involves focusing attention on pronunciation and oral drillings.

The last four approaches have some similarity to the afore-mentioned methods but however have some unique characteristics. The Cognitive approach, for instance, involves emphasizes on rule acquisition and the instructor views reading and writing as important as students' ability in listening and speaking. That students are able to understand and comprehend the language are the main objectives put forth in the Counseling Learning, Comprehension-based and Communicative approaches. In these methods listening comprehension, language use, and fluency of use are viewed as important. These will lead into students' ability to read and write the language over time which allows speaking, reading, and writing over time. Finally the Communicative Approach emphasizes where language use and fluency of use is emphasized.

With all these approaches it is essential that the instructor provides a supportive environment, adequate communicative practice, and applicable learning activities to assist students. Another element of importance is the language learners' acquisition of vocabulary. According to Nation (2001) learning a second language involves learning vocabulary or words. Researchers have noted that extensive reading helps improve learners' vocabulary knowledge and

skills (Mezynski, 1983, Krashen, 1989, Anderson, 1999, Fraser, 1999). In addition, the provision of meaningful input, communicative teaching methods, and authentic materials is essential to ensure the development of learners' vocabulary and communicative competence.

B. Using Literary Texts in Language Instruction

The review of teaching methods used in ESL classrooms showed that reading, listening, speaking, and writing are four important activities emphasized in language learning. Language textbooks provide the opportunity for practicing these essential components. However, using only textbooks in ESL instruction has been found to be insufficient.

For instance, from a three-month in-depth investigation of the use of ESL textbooks with Taiwanese students from 56 participating high schools, Chen, Chen, and Sun (2010) found that the books used offered few opportunities for students to expand their vocabulary beyond the first 2,000 words and academic words. Chen, Chen, and Sun went on further to suggest the use of novels as a good written supplementary source, as they involve extended reading. An assessment of the literacy skills among the Taiwanese students in Chen et al's study showed a significant improvement in reading scores among the participants when literary texts were included in instruction. The use of literature provides the opportunity for ESL students to interact with the language as they get to learn new words or vocabulary.

In another study by Horst, Cobb, and Meara (1998) in which 34 second language learners were included as study participants, the results revealed that students learned new words, built associations between them as a result of using reading literary materials. More importantly, through the use of the materials the students acquired vocabulary and knowledge of the words learned lasted over a period of at least 10 days.

In addition to helping students build vocabulary, other suggested benefits of using literature books are that they are motivating and authentic, provide a narrative and plot to stimulate interest, build up interest for other cultures, and help build fluency (Horst, 2005). Furthermore, literature books are often less expensive and may come with other supplementary material such as tapes, CD-ROMs, and movies that make comprehension easier.

The afore-mentioned studies have submitted that reading or using literature in ESL classrooms does encourage vocabulary learning. Although, the evidence suggests that these materials can ensure language proficiency levels at all levels of education, one drawback that has pointed out is that the texts do not present curricular items in a particular sequence as textbooks do (Gareis, Allard, & Saindon, 2009). For instructors who emphasize sequencing, this might be an important issue worthy of consideration. One way to resolve this issue might be for such instructors to be very selective in the choice of the text used and considerate about when such texts need to be included in the curriculum. Also, since literary materials might present some cognitive difficulties for students, instructors might want to consider the inclusion of other presentations or supplementary materials to support learning.

Learning a "new" language could be difficult and the process may present challenges for most learners. It is therefore important that instructors in such classrooms find ways to encourage and support student learning. Since the use of technology has been deemed as one of the ways to positively support the teaching and learning process in general, it might be a good option for consideration in ESL classrooms.

C. Using Multiple Technologies in Language Instruction

The rapid development of technology and evidence presented regarding the effects of technology integration in instruction has made this approach popular in the teaching and learning process. Through the use of word processors, presentation software, multimedia, hypermedia, drill and practice programs, the Internet, and other procedures and tools, students from all walks of life are able to engage in instruction and the learning environment designed to meet their specific needs.

Language teaching is one area in which the application of technology has been encouraged. So far, technological equipment such as radio, TV, cassettes, CD-ROMs, DVDs, and communicative tools such as e-mails, chat rooms, discussion boards, and internet conferences are being used in language classes. According to Usun and Kömür (2009), technology such as movies and music can help instructors in language classes by providing them a good opportunity to develop and create different, enjoyable tasks for their classes. Wang (2004) also added that the use of technology helps meet language learners communication needs as well as help them develop their language skills in the classroom. Using various kinds of technological devices gives language students the sense of freedom, motivation, and encouragement they need for learning (Genc- Ilter, 2009).

Audio and visual technologies in the form of graphics, pictures, maps, and videos have been used in ESL instruction. Audio materials encourage listening skills while the visual presentation not only provide a focus of attention but also makes it easier for language learners to fill in any information they do not understand. The concern though is that some students may view the visual content passively and may garner very little meaning from the presentation. Presenting the visual information first and then and then following up with the audio is one strategy that has been suggested to prevent this problem.

It must be pointed out that using both audio and visual presentations simultaneously lead to a higher effect when compared to a single presentation at one time (Mayer, 2001).Together, these presentations attract the students' attention and help them understand the gist of the subject matter being presented. Audio-visual materials present students with a lot of information, especially in the form of cues such as facial expression, hand movement, and gestures which hold their attention and may encourage even the novice learner to focus on the message at hand. In addition, the

representations enhance learners' listening comprehension and helps with understanding of difficult materials (Ginther, 2001). Video segments are known to be the best presentation since they spark interest by presenting information using multimedia formats and the language learners are able to link such presentations to enable comprehension.

Results from some empirical studies conducted on the subject support the points mentioned above. Pawling (1999) investigated 11 participants reaction to language learning using CD-ROM packages. The packages included multi-media presentations of video, text, photograph and sound. The findings showed that the use of the CD-ROM promoted collaborative learning while ensuring autonomous learning.

Similarly, Tsai and Jenks (2009) conducted a quasi-experimental study to explore the effect of using a *CD-ROM* program as a supplement in teaching English language students. A total 87 students participated in the study. Two intact classes were assigned to the control and the experimental groups for four weeks. The students in the experimental group were assigned to two weekly one-hour sessions of use of a Teacher Guided Multimedia *CD-ROM* program while the control group received traditional instruction. The results from a vocabulary test showed that the experiment group achieved better English vocabulary acquisition compared to the control group.

Sarica and Cavus (2008) on the other hand studied e-*learning among English language learners. The c*ourses offered *learning* through chat rooms, net meetings with the entire class, and pen pal search engines. The findings showed that the e-learning approach helped enhance student learning. However, using 14 third-year university students as participants in a study where language was taught by way of the Internet, Kartal and Uzun (2010) observed that the students lacked physically, contextually and pedagogical skills at the end of the program.

In short, most of the research indicate that the use of technology in language classes helps improve the four skill areas recommended for success, that is, listening (Belz, 2002), speaking (Kung, 2003), writing (Anderson and Speck, 2001), and reading (Case & Truscott, 1999, Deeler and Grey, 2000). Genc- Ilter (2009) strongly recommends the following for successful integration of technology in the language curriculum: instructors need to focus on the importance of using authentic and interactive activities, materials should be selected with the needs and interests of the students in mind, the lessons should meet pedagogical requirements, and the activities should be well supported by the technology.

III. Method

A. Research Design and Participant Selection

This study used a qualitative approach to describe how technology was used to successfully teach literature in an ESL class and explore students' reactions to the use of technology in the ESL classroom. An IRB was used to seek permission to conduct the study. Purposeful sampling was used in selecting participants for the study. Contact with the participants was initiated by way of recruitment letters handed out during a class visit. Students who indicated their willingness to take part in the study were asked to complete an informed consent form prior to participation.

The study participants comprised of 10 Thai students who were studying English as a second language, six females and four males. Five of the students were Language and Vocational Training third year (LVT) students and the other five were first-year in the International English Program (IEP). In addition to majoring in ESL, the IEP students were also majoring in International Business. Chinua Achebe's 1958 novel, *Things Fall Apart,* was used with a variety of audio-visual devices to teach literature to this group of ESL students. The technological devices included David Orere's 1987 movie on *Things Fall Apart*, a video interview by the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) Book Club (2006) with the book's author, Chinua Achebe, and a CD-ROM package consisting of listening exercises. In addition, computer technology, the Internet, and an overhead projector were used in the presentation of literary materials to the students.

B. Data Collection and Analysis

Data for the study were collected by way of one-on-one interviews. Two 45-minute semi-structured interviews were conducted with each participant during the semester of instruction. The first interview was conducted at the beginning of the semester to determine how much students knew about colonization and post colonial literature. During the interview, students' vocabulary skills were also evaluated. The second interview was conducted at the end of the semester to determine the extent of improvement in students' vocabulary as well as their knowledge on colonization experiences as a result of employing the literary materials and technology. Specifically, students' perception of the use of technology in the teaching of literature in the ESL classroom was assessed.

The interview data was transcribed, coded, and analyzed for themes as suggested by Patton (2002). In reporting the findings of the study, a lot of effort was made to ensure participant confidentiality. Pseudonyms were used in place of the participants' actual names. Also, to ensure accuracy, member checking was to make sure that the transcribed data reflected the actual responses of the students.

IV. Findings

The results of the study are reported in two phases. The first phase reports data from the first interviews while the second phase reports data from the interviews conducted at the end of the semester.

The first phase of data collection helped the instructor of the class determine the teaching strategies that would help reach the needs of the students. Students' responses confirmed that they had no prior understanding of colonialism and postcolonial literature. One male student said: *I think I can [define] colonialism…but I do not know of any colonial literature.* Another said: *That's a big word [colonialism]…I do not understand literature [written in English] …I need [to] the English first.*

Regarding vocabulary, the LVT students had a medium proficiency level. Almost all of them could construct basic grammatically correct sentences in English using the appropriate vocabulary and that could be explained by the fact that they had previously taken 2 years of consistent English classes, and before that, many of them had taken ESL classes in primary school. The IEP students had a higher level in vocabulary, due to a higher volume of English course hours they had taken. In each of these classes, the researcher focused (among other tasks and assignments) on improving the vocabulary proficiency of the learners. To that effect, he used the vocabulary instructions provided by the course manual, plus other activities that he created. After reading each text, the students were asked to read the new words in the text, plus their definitions. After that, the instructor would ask volunteer students to construct an English sentence containing the new word they had learned in the reading of the day.

The second set of interviews revealed changes in student understanding of the novel in general, the terminology in the novel, specifically, as well as their use of the vocabulary. Also students indicated that they found the use of technology in the teaching of literature in this course effective.

Influences of Multiple Technologies

The students perceived the technological devices as education tools that helped enhance their understanding and engagement with the colonization and postcolonial experience portrayed in the book. The general reactions from the students show that the technology enabled easier and accurate evaluation of the characters and events in the literature. One of the LVT male students stated:

The use of videos and CDs made it easier for me to understand the issue of colonization in Things Fall Apart. I was able to understand and analyze Okonkwo's behavior with a lot of details in my assignments. Seeing how Okonkwo walks on the TV screen enabled me to realize how aggressive this character is.

The students realized that weaving technology within the Literature curriculum equips them with high listening and comprehension skills that in turn facilitate their discussion of the literary text. One of the LVT female students said:

The use of listening and comprehension CDs in this class prepared me to *understand Things Fall Apart when we studied it. I was able to understand everything people said in the video because our instructor had initially had several listening and comprehension assignments and sessions with us.*

Using technology in this class produced a familiarity between students and the setting of the novel Another LVT female student stated that:

The use of the internet enabled me to locate geographically where Africa (Nigeria precisely) and Britain are. I was therefore able to link the areas in Things Fall Apart with the mental map that I acquired after seeing Nigeria and Britain on the screen when our instructor pulled the map of the world from the internet and projected it.

The participants also indicated that the use of technology in this class enabled them to have more interaction and feel more proximity with the literary material; it saved the participants enormous efforts that would have been invested in trying to imagine or picture the characters as they are portrayed in a written text. It appeared the technology made it easier for students to draw comparisons between the plot in the book, the setting and conflicts in the text, and their personal environment and society. One female student in the LVT section said:

Seeing Okonkwo in the video enabled me to judge him better as a character: his bushy hair made me think that he resembles a spirit, a being that is super human and can even be scary. Being able to see Okonkwo made me think that he is a good man: he did not speak much, he was "a man of action" as good men are in Thailand.

One female IEP student also voiced a similar opinion:

The use of the movie and the internet made me understand the book so well that I can have a strong opinion after watching it: the colonizer was trying to change the "nationality" of the Africans, and nationality is called ***sanchaat*** *in Thai language. Watching the movie on Things Fall Apart and listening to Achebe's interview and listening to our instructor as he showed us the map of the world helped me acquire many new English words and expressions like "colonization, brutality, intrusion, usurpation, subaltern, oppression" and several other words that I had never heard or understood before.*

The data showed that the use of technology in this class empowered the students to such an extent that remarkable and striking inferences were made in their study and discussion of the text, and the learners felt that they improved their skills in Literary criticism and beyond that, their overall level in English language improved. One female LVT student said:

Watching the video enabled me to conclude that the missionaries came to Nigeria in search of better living conditions just like the Thai people migrated from China searching for better living conditions. Had I limited myself to reading the book, i would not have been able to arrive at such a conclusion. Watching the movie empowered me as a critic. It gave me an understanding and a confidence that I would not have had from the reading of the book only. The fact that we watched the movie and discussed it and listened to CDs helped me to overcome my limits in the English class.

Another feature that emerged from the study is the tendency to substitute the movie for the literary text, instead of combining the use of the printed text with the movie. One male IEP student voiced that:

I tried to read Things Fall Apart but I could barely understand it. The words were so difficult for me that I had to pick my English Thai dictionary almost ten times on each page. When we started to watch the movie, I stopped reading the book and by the time we finished the movie, I had a total understanding of the book.

She goes further to reiterate the numerous and amazing inferences that the movie enabled her to produce in her assignment on *Things Fall Apart*:

The yam festival in Things Fall Apart made me think about Lamjai festival, which is a seasonal festival in Thailand when we enjoy lamjai, a delicious fruit that I thought is as important to the Ibo people as lamjai is to us, Thai people. I can also compare the jam festival in Things Fall Apart to the OTP phenomenon which means "One Tombon, One Product", in other words a call for economic self sufficiency.

One female IEP student pushed the power of technology in terms of comparing societal features to the highest level. Her opinion is the most complex one, and it speaks for itself. She said: *Okonkwo died–committed suicide-to empower his people, just like the Thai* ***Seub Nakasatearn*** *who shot himself because his boss would not listen to him in his great effort to protect wildlife in Thailand.*

The student later pointed out that after Seub's death, considerable changes occurred in the protection of wild animals in Thailand. She went on further to say:

Okonwko also reminds me of the Thai ***Srithanonchai*** *who was killed many years ago by the ruling authorities (around 100 or 200 years ago) because he was extremely smart. The issue of race is also a key aspect herein the picture; Okonkwo is a "black guy" who killed the head messenger in a white man's court, and the white man's behavior is "racism".*

Another important feature that technology brought into this study is the specific details that contribute to add an interesting twist to the plot. Watching the movie enabled the students to grasp certain feelings and emotions that are difficult to capture in a simple reading of the text, especially for ESL students. One of the male IEP students stated this as portrayed in the following lines and she ends her comment with the ease with which she could draw a comparison between her society with pre-colonial Nigeria:

Looking at the arrival of the British colonizers in Nigeria made me realize how aggressive the British were, and I would not be able to notice the accuracy of that phenomenon if I had just read the book. In fact, the perseverance of the British colonizers made me think about the religious conflict that is currently going on in southern Thailand. I see the Thai Buddhists as the British colonizers in Things Fall Apart: They are trying to impose their religion (Buddhism) on Muslim southern Thai people.

The female IEP student who had previously compared Okonkwo to the Thai hero Srithanonchai also unveils the minute details that technology allowed the students to perceive in their study of the literary material:

The colonial experience is fully exposed in the movie, to such an extent that one can make a judgment on that experience, and I can say that the colonial experience was good: the white master did well by building a court of justice and other facilities, and Okonwko and his friends in Things Fall Apart deserved to be imprisoned because justice had to be done.

V. Discussion

The data gathered in this study supports Kay's (1982) argument that "Literature does indeed have a place in ESL curriculum. For many students, literature can provide a key to motivating them to read in English. For all students, literature is an ideal vehicle for illustrating language use and for introducing cultural assumptions" (p. 536).

In addition, using literature in combination with the multiple technologies in the ESL classroom made it easier for the ESL students to understand the material which was initially construed as difficult to grasp. The study also shows that using audio-visual materials in the form of movies on a book prepares students to a more complete and complex reaction to the material and it also generates critical thinking as NCLE (2002) stipulates. The use of listening materials also prepares students and equips them with a better ability and predisposition to understanding and analyzing literary materials as some of the students pointed out in this research. The universal nature of the human experience is expressed best by the use of audio visual materials in the Literature classroom. The spoken word in movies transports students beyond their personal, individual and restricted world to a global world where human experiences mingle and overlap, as the colonial and the non colonial experience intersected in this research. The current study confirms what several researchers (Koskinen,Wilson, & Jansema,1985; Neuman & Koskinen,1992) demonstrated in their advocacy of the use of television and closed- captioning in the ESL classroom, but this research also goes beyond what they said. This research reveals that the use of literary materials with audio-visual technologies such as listening CD-ROMs, movies or videos based on the literary materials, and the computer technology and the internet may help ESL students more than the use of single technologies such as televisions with closed-captioning. This project showed that carefully selecting an audio visual material and introducing students to it while placing specific emphasis on vocabulary and prior knowledge factors as Koskinen et al.,(1985) reiterate , facilitates the teaching of Literature in the ESL classroom.

VI. Recommendations

Based on the results of this study, it is recommended that technology and other literary materials be used in the ESL classroom. Videos and movies based on books encompass several benefits that cannot be achieved when and instructors limit themselves to the print culture. Both ESL and Literature faculty need expose students to the use of audiovisual technology. ESL student exposure to literature is also recommended. Such an approach is somehow similar to the concept of English Studies that currently exists in the English department in certain colleges, a strategy that encourages students to combine Literature, Writing (Composition), Language and Pedagogy in their study of texts. Using technology and Literature in the ESL classroom helps train "strong readers" as Robert Scholes states in *The Rise and Fall of English*: readers who competently and confidently engage literary materials while bringing their own personal experience into that of the characters in the text. Several questions and issues face the practice advocated in this research and they can be considered as the basis for subsequent research. Questions given the issue of limited funding these days, how can ESL programs efficiently and successfully match technology applications to the instructional needs and goals of ESL programs? This is a challenge that instructors and educational administrators face, making this an area worthy of investigation. Finally, the digital divide remains a huge obstacle to overcome. The rift between those who have access to technology and those who do not is giant and must be considered.

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A Qualitative Analysis of ELT in the Language Institutes of Iran in the Light of the Theory of 'World Englishes'

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***Abstract*—This study seeks to analyze English language teaching and learning in the informal context of education in Iran from the perspective of the theory of "World Englishes". The qualitative data consisted of a total of 182-minute recording of 25 subjects' interviews and observation of seven 100-minute classes. The results revealed that most Iranian teachers' and learners' viewpoints are in contrast with the key concepts and tenets of the theory of "World Englishes" and that their teaching and learning practices are far from adherence to this theory. These findings further supported the claim that Iran's ELT still lives in the modernist era by believing in a world English rather than world Englishes and in the importance of conforming to it.**

***Index Terms*—native speaker, modernism, standard English, world Englishes**

I. Introduction

Followed by lots of innovations, emanating from the postmodernist theories which underscore the role of pluralistic options in science, it seems that education in general has underwent radical changes in the light of postmodernist notions. One of the manifestations of postmodernism in second language education is the theory of World Englishes. This theory highlights the diversity of English language, holding the view the there is no one Standard English (Kachru, 1991).

The remarks of the Nigerian writer, Chinua Achebe, best express the opposition to the adoption of a Standard English and highlights the legitimacy of new Englishes which are developed through acculturation and indigenization of English, i.e., influencing English language by local cultures and languages (Kirkpatrick, 2007).

I feel that English language will be able to carry the weight of my African experience ...But it will have to be a new English, still in communication with its ancestral home but altered to suit its new African surroundings (Achebe, 1975, p. 62, cited in Widdowson, 2003, p.42).

This way he urges the non-native English-using countries to develop a kind of nativised English which best suits their context of use, reflects their nationality, and is capable of expressing their own experience and way of thinking.

To the knowledge of the researchers, since there is a paucity of research into the theory of World Englishes in the context of Iran, this study aims at analyzing English teaching and learning in the informal context of education in Iran, from both descriptive and explanatory perspectives, in the light of the theory of World Englishes.

II. Theoretical Background

The coinage and promotion of the term *World Englishes* is mainly associated with Kachru (1982). The remarkable influence of Kachru in this field is not confined to his writing of many books and articles; but is also clearly evident in his editorship of the academic journal *World Englishes* as well as his being responsible for anchoring the annual conferences on world Englishes held by the *International Association for World Englishes* (IAWE). The underlying philosophy of Kachruvian approach argues for the "importance of inclusivity and pluricentricity in approaches to linguistics of new varieties of English" and deals with some other related topics including creative writing, critical linguistics, pedagogy, pidgin and creole studies, and the sociology of language (Bolton, 2004, p. 367).

Bhatt (2001), also, argued that World Englishes paradigm particularly emphasizes multilingualism, multicultural identities, multiple norms of use, and bilinguals' creativity. Moreover, representing liberation linguistics ideology, it severely problematizes the sacred cows of the traditional theoretical and applied linguistics including interference, interlanguage, native speaker, speech community, Standard English, and traditional English canon.

World Englishes has its philosophical roots in the two dominant schools of thought of the present time, i.e., Postcolonialism and Postmodernism.

Postcolonialism, according to Bressler (2007), emerges from colonialization period in the 19th century when Great Britain was "the largest colonizer and imperial power" in the world (p. 236). But this political, social, economic and ideological domination of England gradually started to disappear by the turn of the century through a process called **decolonization**, which reached its peak in 1950, by the independence of India. It was the birth of postcolonialism as a liberation movement.

Postcolonialism accounts for the radical social changes occurred during Postmodern era which led to "a significant delegitimization of authority and to a more egalitarian society" (Pishghadam & Mirzaee, 2008, p. 5). The aim of postcolonialism is to destablize the stabilized institutions, and in SLA, in particular, decolonizing the colonized ELT is its main goal (Bressler, 2007). Some of its common themes include national identity, resistance, appreciation of differences, and protection of indigenous languages and cultures. Postcolonialism is much similar to postmodernism in its subjects and concerns.

In order to arrive at a full understanding of postmodernism, it is better to set out with a brief explanation of modernism, from which it has developed.

Modernism, as a linear positivist movement, is rooted in the European Enlightenment starting in the mid-18th century (Pishghadam & Mirzaee, 2008). It is based on the role of observation and scientific method and highlights the significance of objectivity, reductionism and rationality. All in all, the scientific and social advancements of that period led to such great vanity that man considered himself as the center of the universe and believed in the possibility of finding the ultimate truth, and in the ideas of *the best* and *absoluteness*.

Postmodernism, on the other hand, as a nonlinear constructivist movement, believes in a world with no center, where relativism (vs. absolutism) and subjectivism (vs. objectivism) as the two dominant viewpoints of the time, cast doubt on all the formerly taken-for-granted beliefs and where the deluding ideas of *the best* and *the perfect* no more make sense (Pishghadam & Mirzaee, 2008). This era, starting in the late 20th century, is also marked with a belief in the death of metanarratives and grand theories, claiming that no one can ever find the ultimate truth. It, instead, sheds light on the significance of pragmatism and calls for trying different methods and styles and evaluating them based on their appropriateness and applicability to the given context. In the same vein, it moves toward divergence through the appreciation of differences and celebrating local reality, truth, and values.

One of the cornerstones in the theoretical foundation of World Englishes is communicative competence (Berns, 2006; Kachru & Nelson, 1996). It, in fact, occupies a fundamental position in World Englishes discourse and this high significance lies in the fact that, by highlighting the interdependence between the notion of appropriateness and the sociocultural context, it embraces a pluricentric view of language use. The case of speech acts is a good example here. Cross-cultural studies reveal that speech acts have different linguistic realizations from one culture to another and it is the sociocultural context that determines which linguistic realization is the appropriate one in a given situation.

Still, another reason concerning the importance of communicative competence to world Englishes involves its questioning the validity of a standard English (Berns, 2006). It is argued that, since each setting has its own cultural and social values and since local norms are shaped in accordance with these values, each setting calls for its own nativized variety of English, the one that corresponds to its set of values and norms. As a result, it seems quite absurd to think that Standard English–which culturally represents the Judeo-Christian tradition–can be used cross-culturally and in different international settings without impeding successful communication and intelligibility. It follows that no single communicative competence can claim the capacity to match all different local cultures and settings.

All in all, World Englishes ideology denies the validity of communicative competence as a monolithic notion just as it opposes the adoption of a variety as a standard and model (Berns, 2006, p. 723).

In fact, one of the most important achievements of World Englishes in the last three decades has been to challenge the standard language ideology and replacing it by the liberation linguistics ideology (Bolton, 2004; Bhatt, 2001). The standard language ideology, according to Bolton (2004), is the traditional view in English studies which has awarded the American and British English the authority to provide and prescribe the norms of usage in all international English using contexts.

This tension between the prescription of a world standard English and the legitimacy and autonomy of world Englishes calls to mind the double-voicedness of Bakhtin's (1994) centripetal and centrifugal forces. Centripetal forces, as a modernist feature, are those calling for centralizing, homogenizing and convergence, which in the present context, contribute to the conformity to an authoritative and prescriptive standard variety which is believed to be the best. On the other hand, centrifugal forces, as a postmodernist feature, involve decentralizing and divergence and thus appreciate the diverse features and functions of English worldwide.

As pointed out earlier, liberation linguistics severely confronts the traditional Standard English ideology, in an attempt to legitimate and empower the new varieties of English as well as their speakers.

Representing such liberation ideology, Milroy and Milroy (1999) argued that prescribing a standard variety is in fact bestowing prestige to just one variety at the expense of suppressing all the others (cited in Davis, 2006).

Widdowson (2003) argued that the main importance of Standard English lies in a belief in its guaranteeing effective communication and standards of intelligibility. In his view, Standard English, which is usually defined in reference to

its grammar and lexis, is primarily a written variety sanctioned for institutional use. Furthermore, he believed that Standard English is a *shibboleth*, marking the right sort of person. He elaborated on this issue arguing that while grammatical conformity, due to the in-built redundancy of language, is not crucial for effective communication, Standard English places much importance on it (rather than on lexis). The reason, according to Widdowson, is that grammar "is so often redundant in communicative transactions that it takes on another significance, namely that of expressing social identity" and so adopts the role of a distinguisher between members of the community and the outsiders (p. 39).

Moreover, Widdowson (2003) striped the attitudinal goodness totally away from Standard English by noting the double standards concerning the issue. He elaborated on it explaining that the stability implied by Standard English is in contrast with the dynamic nature of language and that while Standard English calls for conformity, "proficiency only comes with nonconformity" (p. 42). So you are proficient in English to the extent that you do not conform to Standard English and do not submit to what it dictates to you. In other words, mastery means taking the possession of the language, bending it to your advantage, developing innovations in it, and being able to speak your mind rather than speaking the language.

The ideology of World Englishes, in the same vein, calls the label *native speaker* into serious question and strongly denies a special status for it. It specially opposes the prevailing view that native speakers are necessarily better at speaking English and hence they would make better English teachers (Jenkins, 2003). Moreover, it argues that since English is used for international communication and is, thus, used among speakers from different nationalities, it simply makes no sense to talk of its non-native speakers. This argument gets even more powerful when one considers the ever increasing situations in which English is used as a lingua franca among its L2 speakers rather than between its L1 and L2 speakers.

Cook (1995) made attempts to empower non-native speakers by proposing his *multi-competence* model (cited in Brown, 2007). According to the main tenet of this model, L2 user's mind is much more flexible than that of monolingual native speaker since they have access simultaneously to two competences rather than one; therefore, they have higher language and culture awareness. Thus, they should not be compared to monolingual native speakers; but should be considered in their own right.

Similarly, Widdowson (2003) strongly denied the native speakers' claim of the ownership of English language and their right to determine how it should be spoken around the world. He argued that the custodians of Standard English are not in fact natural native speakers but they are a minority of people, a particular self-elected subset of educated native speakers who have the power to impose this standard variety.

All in all, World Englishes is a relatively new theory, which has gained its worldwide currency only in the late 20th and early 21st centuries (Bolton, 2004). Having its philosophical roots in postmodernism and postcolonialism, this theory has remained somehow obscure in the modernist educational context of Iran (Pishghadam & Mirzaee, 2008), and as far as the researchers know, there has been no study conducted in Iran in the field of English teaching and learning concerning World Englishes. So, due to this dearth of research in the educational context of Iran in this field, this study aims at revealing whether the main tenets of this theory have adherents among English teachers and learners and whether they are put into practice in this context.

III. Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to analyze English language learning and teaching in the language institutes in Iran, with respect to the theory of "World Englishes".

This study, therefore, is seeking to answer the following questions:

Q1: What are English teachers' attitudes toward the whole idea of World Englishes?

Q2: To what extent do English teachers practically adhere to the whole idea of World Englishes?

Q3: What are English learners' attitudes toward the whole idea of World Englishes?

Q4: To what extent do English learners practically adhere to the whole idea of World Englishes?

IV. Methodology

A. Participants and Setting

This study was conducted on 25 participants, i.e. 13 teachers (2 males and 11 females, within the age range of 24 to 55) plus 12 learners (6 males and 6 females, within the age range of 18 to 30). The interviewed teachers included 4 M.A. graduates, 2 M.A. students, and 7 B.A. graduates in the fields of English language teaching and English language and literature.

One of the qualifications needed for the English learners to be chosen as the subjects of this study was their level of proficiency, i.e., they needed to be at intermediate or higher levels, since it is believed that at such levels they have already established a sense of what different varieties of English are, formed attitudes toward these varieties and have probably selected one as their own model. The researcher relied on the institutes' placement tests in determining the learners' level of proficiency. The participants were not chosen randomly from a larger population and the two criteria for choosing them were simply accessibility and their tendency to cooperate.

B. Instrumentation

Two types of instrumentation were used in the present study. First, two sets of questions used in the interviews of the teachers and learners; Second, an open-ended checklist used in the observations of the classes.

It should be stated that both sets of questions and the checklist were designed in proper consultation with pertinent experts, and based on the key concepts of theory of "World Englishes" presented in the research and literature in this field reviewed earlier (e.g. Kachru, 1991; Widdowson, 2003) and the good guidelines they provided as to which phenomena are worthy of attention when exploring attitudes toward and adherence to this theory.

C. Procedure

The data collection started in January 2009 and took around four months.

As for the interviews, the subjects were interviewed based on the set of questions exploring their attitude toward and practical adherence to the key concepts of the theory of "World Englishes". The data of this part consisted of 182-minute audio-recorded interviews (77 minutes of students' interviews and 105 minutes of teachers' interviews).

Teachers' interviews were conducted in English while those of students were conducted in Persian in order to get them to express themselves more exactly and easily as well as to remove their stress due to the presence of the recorder. These interviews were, then, transcribed and analyzed from the viewpoint of World Englishes through content analysis, i.e., reading and re-reading the transcriptions, and looking for similarities and differences in order to find themes and develop categories.

Furthermore, seven interviewed teachers' classes were observed based on the open-ended checklist. As mentioned earlier, the checklist was made according to the guidelines provided by the reviewed literature and research, highlighting the aspects of teaching which were worthy of attention when observing the classes. These include, for example, the use of L1 in the class, teaching of culture, error correction, and conformity to certain accents and varieties. These seven 100-minute observations were audio-recorded and the significant parts were, then, transcribed. Considering the fact that people do not always act the way they think they do, the primary reason for such observations was to see whether what the teachers believe was necessarily the same as what they actually did in their classes. These observations, also, allowed the researcher to gain better insight into what actually happened in class (possible practical adherence to the key concepts of World Englishes) and provided her with the helpful tools to interpret the results of the teachers' interviews.

As for the order of the last two procedures, observing the classes preceded interviewing the teachers in order to avoid making them conscious of what their classes were being observed for, and consequently prevent some possible changes in their teaching.

V. Results

A. Teachers' Interviews

The results of this part revealed that most of the teachers considered American as the standard and best one to teach because "*it's more common worldwide*", "*American is genuine, real, spoken by natives, it's not just made up*".

They also considered new Englishes as unimportant and illegitimate varieties of English. The reason one of them gave is worthy of attention:

-"*They are not acceptable because if you use them everyone understands you are foreigners and your speaking English is not good, they should be acceptable to the natives*".

Not surprisingly, they considered students' familiarity with these new Englishes quite unnecessary, "*Since they don't play any role in learning English, American accent is sufficient*".

As for the use of L1 in the class, again most of the teachers stated that they never used Persian in their classes and that they did not let their students use it either because, according to some of them, it is the only opportunity students have, so you should put them in a completely English atmosphere, i.e., a normal situation and that the use of Persian turns it into an abnormal situation and brings about distraction to learning.

Two interesting reasons, two of the teachers referred to frankly, deserves much attention:

-"*It (Persian) sometimes helps but, you know, our students think that if their teachers speak in Farsi, they are not knowledgeable enough to explain that in English, but in many cases I myself find it very helpful but because I think that my students might misjudge me, I never use it*".

-"*Since in that case students would start speaking in Persian and make English sentences according to Persian structures and grammar and this way everyone would understand they're speaking Persian English*".

Regarding error correction, interestingly, all the interviewees stated that, especially in speaking, they just corrected the more important errors, or to use the terms some of them used, "*the vital ones*", "*the crucial ones and as indirectly as possible*", since correcting all the errors would be discouraging to the students and would make them lose their confidence.

But still three of them added they would correct all the errors if it was possible, in order to make them sound more native-like.

Still another significant result of these interviews was that almost all of the teachers expressed their emphasis on introducing and teaching the American and British cultures and considered it one of the important parts of teaching English since:

-"*One of the most important problems of our students is that they think in Persian and want to talk in English, if they know the culture, they will be able to speak in English better*".

-"*When you speak a language it's better to know everything about the culture and all its ups and downs, it shows that you are a native-like person and then if you would be in the English environment you wouldn't have any problems with native people*".

As for trying to sound native-like, just three teachers stated that they did not mind it and that just correct pronunciation mattered to them, "*because you are not a native, so why do you have to pretend to be a native?*" one of them added.

Not surprisingly, all the other respondents expressed their high concern for, and great importance of, sounding native-like. Some common reasons they referred to include exposing students to native and original accents and being a good model for them, speaking real English and perfectly, and as the representatives of the textbooks they teach, not sounding different from what students hear on CDs.

Finally, confessing that they were indeed impressed by those who have good American or British accent, most of the teachers added that it did not, however, influence their evaluation or, at least, they tried so.

There is still another point repeatedly mentioned in the respondents' answers in order to justify their emphasis on conforming to a so-called standard variety, i.e. students' going to an English country. Considering the ratio of those students who are learning English in order to live or educate in an ENL country to all the others with other motivations, such reasons seem quite unjustified.

B. Learners' Interviews

The results of these interviews illustrated that most of the respondents highly preferred to have a native teacher since they believed that, all in all, native teachers are superior to the nonnative ones and, most interestingly, the main reason, they all referred to for this superiority, had to do with having better accent and pronunciation:

In addition, almost all of the respondents expected their teachers to have a native accent. One student stated that since we are learning another country's language, we need to obey all the rules of this language and its native accent because "*the language is theirs and we don't have the right to make changes in it*". She also added that just as when an American is learning Persian s/he tries to speak it with a native accent, we, as English learners, should make the same effort.

Further, according to another student, the teachers' having a native accent is important "*since students are much influenced by their teachers"* and, as a good handwriting makes you interested, *"when a teacher speaks with a good accent, the desire (inclination) to speak with the same accent is evoked in the students*".

These students, also, considered evaluation based on accent an acceptable criterion for evaluation since, as some of them put it, "*it makes us try to acquire the same native accent*".

As for error correction, most of the students believed that, ideally, it is better to correct all the errors, even the tiniest ones in order to learn perfectly.

Regarding the significance of familiarity with other varieties of English, two of the respondents, surprisingly, expressed their complete unfamiliarity with other varieties (other than American and British), saying that they had never heard any of them.

Further, seven students out of the other ten, considered familiarity with such varieties, and especially taking some time of the class to this end, quite unnecessary; "*unless you are going to live in one of the countries with such varieties*", some of them added.

As for the use of Persian in the class, half of the respondents were strongly against it due to the same reasons of its being the only opportunity for them in the EFL context of Iran and providing a normal situation in the class.

The other half of the respondents took a more moderate view stating that it is ok sometimes to use Persian in teaching grammar when students do not get the point or in some other cases when students cannot express themselves in English.

Finally, all the interviewees, except one, preferred their accent to be as native-like as possible mostly because they considered it an indicator of their perfect learning.

The only respondent who opposed this view stating that he did not mind having a nonnative accent explained the reason through a remarkable simile,: "*our accent is like our face, it just says where we come from*", so it suffices to be able to communicate successfully and there is no need to have a native-like accent.

To wrap this part up, it is worth analyzing the respondents' answers with an eye toward the aims and motivations they stated for studying English.

Among the twelve respondents, just one of them was planning to immigrate to an ENL country, i.e., the U.S.; two of them were going to immigrate to ESL countries of Malaysia and New Zealand; two of them were learning English for business; and the rest of them needed English in order to be able to use English books and journals related to their education and, also, to use computer and internet.

As evident in the interviews, there seems to be a discrepancy between respondents' motivations for learning English and their emphasis on learning and, speaking with, a native accent. Most interestingly, the respondent who was planning

to live in Malaysia and the one who needed English to have business with Arab countries and India were among those who had the greatest of such emphasis.

C. Observation

The results of the observations are presented in four parts corresponding to the four important implications of World Englishes on English teaching, to which especial attention was granted while observing the classes.

1. Use of Persian in the Class

Just in two classes, the teachers sometimes used Persian and allowed their students to use it as well in some special cases. One of such cases was the teacher's giving a Persian equivalent for some English word after students did not get its meaning in spite of her explanation in English. Here is an example from the data:

1. T: So that person should be punished in some way, for example he or she should get suspended.
SS: Suspended? ((looking confused))
T: Yes, get suspended.
S: What's the meaning?
T: It means …uh…to be forced to stay away from your job for a period of time.
S: Fire?
T: Not fired. It's just for a period of time. ((students still look confused)) *Moa'llagh shodan* {get suspended}

Another case was the teacher's giving a Persian equivalent for some expression or idiom. In such cases, again, the teacher first explained in English. This time students got it but still to make it more tangible to the students, the teacher preferred to provide them with the Persian meaning as well.

As mentioned earlier, students were also sometimes allowed to use Persian in the class. For instance, it was allowed to use Persian when they could not express what they had on their minds in English. Following is an example of this case:

2. S: After I left there, I got very sad for that, I mean, …I am…I feel sorry because I didn't help him, I am really *Pashimunam* {I regret it}
T: Aha, so you regret that you didn't help him.
S: Yes, I regret that.

Still another case when the use of Persian in the class was allowed was stating few words as funny comments either by the teacher or by the students. Such funny comments, sometimes, changed the mood of the class and refreshed the students.

In the other five classes, teachers did not speak a word in Persian, though sometimes it seemed quite necessary and helpful. A case in point was when the students did not get what the teacher meant in spite of her explanations:

3. S: What's the meaning of potential here?
T: Here it means …possibility.
S: They are synonyms?
T: Not always, the original meaning is the ability which is not developed yet.((students look confused)) for example, he has the potential for progress.((students still look confused but this time the teacher neglects it and goes on teaching))

These teachers did not let their students use Persian in their classes either, and one of them even made fun of them for doing this:

4. SS: xxx
T: Hello? What's up there?
S: Writing *vase jalase bade*? {is the writing for next session?}
T: Are you speaking Bengali or what? I don't understand you.
S: ((somehow shy)) sorry …is the writing for next session?

And also there was another case when a student tried to talk to her teacher about her problem with the grammar point in English but she could not express herself well, so she started speaking in Persian about it but she was not allowed and thus was interrupted by the teacher.

2. Error Correction

Although in the interviews all the teachers stated that they just corrected the more important errors and those which impede communication, the observation of four of their classes did not confirm it. These four teachers' corrections included the errors which seemed to be so trivial and sometimes just an indicator of the Persian accent. They corrected such errors by interrupting the students and giving them the right form or pronunciation and after that students usually repeated it. Here are some examples of such error corrections:

5. S: He knows how to use a computer /kʌm'pju:tər/
T: Computer /kəm'pju:tər/
6. S: It's important to have lot of informations=
T: Information, it's uncountable.
7. S: Turkish /törkiʃ/ coffee=
T: Turkish /t3:kiʃ/
8. S: If you don't have up-to-date information=
T: Up-to-dated

9. S: It's quite necessary /ne'səsəri/ because=
T: Necessary /'nesəsəri/
10. S: Thomas /tömʌs/ likes to=
T: Thomas /ΘʌməS/
11. S: He came from Toronto /'törentö/ so=
T: Toronto /tə'ra:ntö/
12. S: They met in a rainy day=
T: On a rainy day

3. Culture and Pragmatic Norms

Investigating the way teachers deal with teaching culture and pragmatic norms in English classes was relatively more difficult than investigating the other aspects since not every lesson in English textbooks highlights a significant cultural point. That is why, just in three of the seven classes significant points in teaching culture and pragmatic norms were observed. In one of these classes the teacher was teaching different English expressions used as greeting. He did not, however, talk about or refer to different greetings used in other cultures and countries and just taught the ones used in English culture:

13. T: How do you start a conversation in English? I mean the greetings, what are they?
SS: [How are you? [What's up?
T: Yes, nice ((teacher writes them on the board)) what else?
S: What's the news?
T: Yea, what's new ((writes it on the board)) what else?
SS: [How's everything? [xxx
T: Right, and how are things? How is it going? ((writes them on the board))

In another situation, the teacher explained the importance of dogs in English culture stating that in America, you cannot kick a dog away or insult it like here, "*Dogs are so respectable there, they're members of families, you should be very careful how to treat them*", he added.

Finally, another teacher explained the importance of your hairstyle and the way your hair looks in western countries. "*It's so important for them that they even have an idiom about that, to have a bad hair day, it sometimes says about your personality and the kind of person you are*", she stated.

As obvious in these examples, it seems that the teaching of cultural points and pragmatic norms in our English classes is confined to introducing and highlighting those of American and English cultures, and nothing about the culture of other English using countries is mentioned.

4. Accent

There were two contradictions between what teachers stated in their interviews and what they actually did in their classes. First, one of the teachers who had stated that having a native accent is important to him since he did not want to sound different from what students hear on the textbook CDs, had a British accent while the books he taught (Interchange) were American. And the second teacher who had stated that the accent you choose depends on the textbook you teach, had American accent while the textbook she taught (Rising Star) was British. In addition, in three of the observed classes, short discussions about English accents came up, in two of which the teachers just talked about and compared British and American accents. It was only the third class in which the teacher shortly referred to other English varieties and accents and highlighted the importance of having correct pronunciation over a good accent.

14. T: So, what's the difference between pronunciation and accent, do you know?
S: For example, in our country we have different accents, like Esfahani or Mashhadi accent, but pronunciation is a… is the base of word.
T: Can you give an example?
SS: In English?
T: yes, of course. ((the teacher laughs))
S: Water /waṭər/in American and water /wötə(r)/ in British.
T: Very good, which one is better?
SS: [American [American is easier [American is better.
T: Easier to speak?
S: Yes, but British is easier to understand.
T: Aha, by the way, you didn't give an example for the difference between pronunciation and accent…((students thinking)) for example, it's water /waṭər/, it's not water /vaṭər/, u see? /w/ is the correct pronunciation and /v/ is wrong…so which one is more important: pronunciation or accent?
SS: Pronunciation.
T: Why?
S: Because we have just one correct pronunciation but we have different accents.
T: Good, ok, do we have wrong accents? For example, can we say that Mashhadi accent is wrong and Tehrani accent is right?
SS: No.

T: Or for example, Arabic or Indian accent is=
S: Not good.
T: Not good? Why? Is it wrong?
S: No, it's not wrong but it's not beautiful.
T: Aha, it's not beautiful in your opinion, but it's not wrong, yea? It's just like other accents, like American and British and Australian.

Finally, it was observed in another class that the teacher did not work on the pronunciation part of that unit in Interchange book (Richards, Hull, & Proctor, 2005) –the part which was teaching a point in American accent (unreleased consonants) –and simply skipped it.

To conclude, the data gained from the observed classes –the exclusive use of English with no helpful systematic use of Persian in some classes, and correcting trivial errors and sometimes those relating to Persian accent, and sometimes too much emphasis on the stress of words, and also teaching and highlighting Judeo-Christian tradition while teaching English language, and finally, not familiarizing students with other varieties and accents of English –is in line with the results of interviews and, one the whole, confirms them.

VI. Discussion

The results of the interviews and observations are highly indicative of the fact that most of the teachers and learners consider American English to be the best and standard variety and also quite superior to the other accents. They also revealed the great emphasis these teachers and learners expressed on acquiring and speaking with this accent. The main problem with such view and efforts is that, as Kirkpatrick (2007) put it, "accents are closely bound up with feelings of personal and group identity" (p. 37); thus, the English learners who are obsessed with acquiring a native accent and do their best to speak with that accent are very likely to be subject to deculturation and loss of local identity (Pishghadam & Kamyabi, 2008).

In addition, from a psychological perspective, such perfectionism in learning as well as teaching –in the from of correcting trivial errors and minute deviation from native norms –has been proven to have significant psychological hindering effects on the students learning (Akhoondpoor, 2008).

Another significant finding of this study was a belief in the traditional sacred cows of English among the interviewed teachers and learners. These sacred cows, according to Bhatt (2001), include *native speaker, standard variety,* and *interlanguage*.

As evident in the results of the students' interviews, most English learners preferred to have native teachers and thought that they were necessarily better at teaching, as well. This fact is an example of what Jenkins (2003) referred to as the bias against local teachers and for native ones displayed by English learners in the Outer and Expanding circle countries.

Moreover, some of the teachers' and learners' remarks were quite indicative of their beliefs in the idea of native speaker as the standard setter as well as the guardian and owner of true language and in the idea of American and British Englishes as the standard varieties of English to which we should conform.

The findings of this study regarding the emphasis on conformity to native norms, further, confirmed those of Timmis' (2002) survey in revealing a significant attachment to native speaker norms, especially in expanding circle countries, which was greater among learners than teachers.

In addition, the unwillingness and even reluctance some of the learners and teachers expressed in, respectively, getting familiar with new Englishes and using them in their classes illustrates that they consider such varieties as interlanguages which, according to Jenkins (2003), are seeking to reach the target language, and according to Bhatt (2001), rather than being regarded in their own rights, are constantly compared to the target language.

Such view about new Englishes (considering them to be unimportant and illegitimate) among English teachers has a serious consequence as well, namely, "linguistic insecurity", as Kachru and Nelson (1996) put it, which, in turn, leads to "linguistic prescriptivism" (p. 89). Regarding our case, it follows that the refusal to accept the existence of a Persian variety –or at least, accent –of English leads to regarding some Persian English pronunciation of words and the sentences made based on some Persian structures or pragmatic norms as errors and therefore correcting them (such corrections were observed in some classes and stated in some interviews).

This view point is exactly in line with the one calling for complete conformity to a so-called standard variety of English which was strongly problematized by Widdowson (2003) and Bakhtin (1981, cited in Lin & Luke, 2005).

According to Widdowson (2003) such conformity implies stability which is in contrast with the dynamic nature of language and, by leaving no space for innovation and no opportunity for making the language yours by appropriating it for your needs and context, it literally impedes your proficiency in that language.

Similarly, Bakhtin (1981) opposed such linguistic prescriptivism by distinguishing between two kinds of discourses: *authoritative discourse*, i.e. "language or discourse imposed on person", and *internally persuasive discourse*, i.e. "hybridized and populated with one's own voices, styles, meanings, and intentions" (cited in Lin & Luke, 2005, p. 93-94). Making this distinction, he called for local creativity and heteroglossia in English classes and argued that, to this end, we should change English from an authoritative discourse to an internally persuasive one, "so that English can

become a tool that students can use to construct their own preferred worlds, preferred identities, and preferred voices" (p. 94).

Another significant finding of this study was most teachers' and learners' preference for exclusive use of English in the class. While Cook (1995, cited in Brown, 2007), through his multi-competence model, called for the recognition of L1 in language classes and highlighted the great help systematic use of L1 can provide in learning an L2 and while Hancock's (1997) study problematized the long-standing assumption that all L2 use in the class is good and all L1 use is bad, these teachers and learners still believe that L1 use interferes will L2 learning and either hinders it or slows it down.

Such view among teachers and learners is seemingly interwoven with the wrong idea they have got of the normal situation of English around the world. As evident in some of their remarks, they still consider monolingualism to be the norm, while, due to the rapid global spread of English, long ago the norm has changed and turned into multilingualism and multiculturalism (Bolton, 2006; Kachru & Nelson, 1996; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Skutnabb-Kangas, 1998, cited in Pennycook, 2004).

Finally, another significant point in the results of observations and teachers' interviews which deserves serious attention was that teaching of English in our classes, seemingly, acted as a "Trojan horse for the cultural values of its native speaker community" (Timmis, 2007, p. 125). Such *enculturation* can most clearly be evidenced in sentences like *In English this speech act is like this* while *in English* is, in fact, a disguise for in *American or British culture*. Such way of teaching English in our classes –whether consciously or unconsciously –is a realization of Kachru's (1991) statement, "English is essentially learnt as a tool to understand and teach the American and British cultural values, or which is generally termed the Judeo-Christian tradition"(p. 10, cited in Jenkins, 2003, p. 63).

It is, of course, unfair to direct all the blame to the teachers, here, ignoring the fact that a big part of this blame lies with the materials developers who, rather than aiming for "an intercultural communicative competence", as Alptekin (2002) put it, just present and highlight native speaker communicative competence in the textbooks (p. 63, cited in Timmis, 2007, p. 128).

VII. Conclusion

The whole findings of this study can best be interpreted in light of research questions when presented in two parts: descriptive (describing the present situation), and explanatory (explaining why it is like this).

The descriptive part, which deals with the transcribed observation data, describes what actually happens in the English classes, i.e. teaching and learning practices. Based on the findings, American English was considered to be the best variety to teach and teachers were expected to have either American or British accent. Similarly, such findings revealed both learners' and teachers' great emphasis on conformity to the American (or British) English. This emphasis was quite evident in their efforts to sound native-like and their aiming for passing for natives and, also, in some teachers' error corrections –considering trivial deviations from these varieties as errors. Still, according to these results, both teachers and learners preferred the exclusive use of English in the class. In addition, they were quite unwilling to get familiar with new Englishes and use them in their classes. Finally, the teachers highlighted and prescribed American and British cultural norms in their classes and considered it as an important aspect of teaching English. Thus, regarding the second and fourth research questions, all these teaching and learning practices tend to assert that our ELT is seemingly far from adherence to the whole idea of the theory of "World Englishes".

The explanatory part, on the other hand, which is based on the transcribed interview data, discusses the reasons and derives behind such teaching and learning practices and, thus, deals with teachers' and learners' beliefs and attitudes. As discussed at length earlier, most teachers and learners believed in the American and British Englishes as the standard varieties of English –the real and genuine English –to which all English users should conform. They, also, believed in the special status of native speaker both as a perfect model in learning English and as a benchmark for measuring all English users' proficiencies in English. Furthermore, they regarded the variety of English they speak with as an interlanguage which should be constantly compared to the American or British Englishes and eventually match them. They, also, believed in monolingualism to be the norm and in American and British people as the owners of English whose culture should be taught along with it around the world. Finally, based on the findings, most teachers and learners considered new Englishes as illegitimate and unimportant varieties of English. Thus, regarding the first and third research questions, it seems that our English learners' and teachers' viewpoints are in complete contrast with the key concepts and tenets of the theory of "World Englishes", the ones which call for legitimacy and empowering the new varieties of English and strictly problematize any special status for native speaker and native varieties.

All in all, a remarkable macro-level ramifications of the whole findings of this study is that most of our teachers and learners still believe in a **world English** rather than **world Englishes** and that the ideas of "the best" and "the perfect" and the importance of unification have their followers among them. Thus, as Pishghadam and Mirzaee (2009) argued that Iran's educational system still lives in the modernist era –due to different reasons including teaching the same books all over the country and the existence of General Exam (unification) –it, unfortunately, seems that their claim is completely true about our ELT (our ELT is a clear confirmation for such claim).

The most important implication of this study can be bringing about an awareness, for both teachers and learners, of there being no best and standard variety of English, i.e., American and British Englishes are two varieties of English just the same as its other varieties, with no higher status.

The immediate effect of this awareness, on teachers would be stopping them from trying to sound native-like, and on learners would be preventing them from placing a very high premium on acquiring and conforming to American or British Englishes.

In addition, considering the fact that, today, most communication through English is taking place within non-natives rather than with natives, the special status of native-speaker would lose its credit in their minds and, thus, they would aim their teaching at successful cross-cultural communication rather than intelligibility to native speakers.

As a consequence, teachers would no more consider students' trivial deviations from the native accent –in the form of Persian English pronunciation of some words –as errors and would, also, be more tolerant of students' English sentences made based on some Persian structures or pragmatic norms –as a sign of the Persian variety of English.

Furthermore, considering the fact that, today, the norm is multilingualism and multiculturalism, another result of this study can be encouraging teachers to regard their knowledge of another language and not being a monolingual as an asset and to appreciate their sharing an L1 with their students and, putting aside the dated assumption that English is best taught monolingually, to take advantage of the great their L1 can provide in their teaching.

Also, an interesting result of this study can be encouraging teachers to provide students with occasional exposure to different varieties in order to change learners' negative attitudes toward these varieties as well as familiarizing them with these varieties and their cultures.

In addition, the most remarkable outcome of this study for teachers will be making them treat the material and textbooks they are teaching more critically. Such critical view will be of special importance while dealing with teaching the English culture. Put simply, teachers would be more careful not to prescribe American and British cultural values and pragmatic norms presented in the textbooks. They would, instead, introduce them along with those of other English using cultures (including ours) and this way they would focus on an intercultural communicative competence and highlight the potential of English for representing different cultures.

Finally, the ultimate attainment of this study can contribute to a paradigm shift in English language teaching and testing, the one that puts aside the importance of native speaker both as a model in learning English and as a yardstick against which all the learners should be measured.

To wrap this part up, regarding Iran as an expanding circle country which has not yet developed its own variety of English, the researcher takes a view similar to that of Willis (1999) in urging teachers to expose their students to a native variety –which is in fact the only choice due to the available teaching material –but to adopt a **conscious-raising** methodology which places a very low premium on conformity (cited in Timmis, 2007). To clarify on such methodology, it is worth stating Willis' explanation:

See language as a meaning system and encourage learners to develop their own systems. Carry out C-R [conscious-raising] work which encourages learners to focus on forms, but place a very low premium on testing for conformity. Cut out the focus on forms which have little communicative value (e.g. question tags). Look for productive generalizations (e.g. V+N+Infin) and pay much less attention to exceptions like *suggest*. (p. 136)

As is clear from any scientific research, nothing can be self evident unless verified by observation or experimentation. To do any type of observation or experiment, one may face with some limitations and problems. This study could have come to somewhat more different results than it did, if it were not confronted with the following limitations. First, because the study was conducted in Mashhad, the obtained findings cannot be safely generalized to other situations. Second, in this study gender was not taken into consideration as a variable, which can be a good topic for further research.

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Improve College Students' Autonomous English Learning Effectiveness with New Learning Model

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***Abstract*—Studies on autonomous learning based on the theories of constructivism and the advantages of technology present new ideas for modern English teaching in China. In this paper, we put forward a new learning model in developing learner autonomous learning in Henan College of Finance and Taxation (HCFT), taking English reading course as an example. The most significant findings are that in the new learning model the guided experimentation promoted students' English language much better than that of traditional ways of learning, and that most of the experimental students became more positive and effective in college English language learning.**

***Index Terms*—joint-program college student, autonomous English learning, learning model, learning content, learning advancement**

I. Introduction

"Teaching is a complex act because it deals with a complex organism, human beings" according to Armstrong *et al.* (2009). In fact, in a teaching class which consists of thirty or more students, teaching is a much more complex job since these students usually come with varying needs, abilities, motivations and prior experiences. According to Biggs (1999), engaging with preferred individual learning styles is regarded as an important aspect for promoting the learning process.

Many foreign researchers studied autonomous learning by classroom case studies such as Lee (1998) and Spratt et al. (2003). However, autonomous learning studies in China were mainly conducted on a theoretical level and case studies are not adequate for a long time according to Gao (2005), who claimed that case studies in this field in China should be encouraged and strengthened. Still, the studies on autonomous English learning were focused on traditional college English education program.

With the development of joint-program college education in China, the special curriculum requirements of the program and the needs of the students made it necessary to study the proper and effective way of English teaching and learning in college education. However, very few studies on this topic have been conducted in China till now.

A. Research Background

In 1981, Holec Henry introduced the concept of "autonomous learning" in his book named Autonomy and Foreign language learning. After that, many scholars such as Lee (1998), Littlewood (2000), Gardner and Miller (2002) studied the issue and made greater contribution to the field.

In China, studies on autonomous English learning began in 1990s. From 2004, scholars who studied the issue from different perspectives have been making heated discussions on this topic:

(1) Studies on the ways and methods of developing autonomy: for example, Liang (2004) claimed that the learning responsibility should be transferred to students from teachers.

(2) Studies on the strategies in autonomous English learning: O'Malley and Chamot (1990) studied the foreign language learning strategies; Wen (1995) studied the great importance of meta-cognitive learning strategies in learning a foreign language; Wan (2004) and Zhou (2005) studied the teaching and learning strategies in calling for and conducting autonomous English learning.

(3) Other studies such as the relationship between teachers and students in autonomous English learning, and gender differences in autonomous English learning also gave us new idea on the topic and are helpful with college English teaching and learning practices.

B. The Significance of the Study

In our research, the English language level of the joint-program students had faced even greater challenges. The joint program referred to here is that between Henan College of Finance and Taxation (HCFT) and Victoria University. The students were first-year college students in HCFT.

As a whole, the existing college English language teaching has some problems. Specially speaking, the traditional college teaching method does not take the special needs of individual students into account and pays little attention to

the learning strategies of the learners. Zhao (2008) found that many Chinese College students spend as many as 12 years studying English, but students who are just taught in classroom environment by teachers "are more likely to hold a somewhat passive attitude, and low motivation, towards what is being learnt". Just because students have not been exposed to the actual communicative environment for so many years, they are not able to communicate in English with a real target language community or environment. In a word, the problem with them was that their English language learning habits needed great improvement since they had been less able to manage their English learning effectively in their English learning activities for several years in middle school.

It was important to consider how best to improve the teaching and learning styles in order to qualify them to an adequate degree in English language competence during the first year of their college education. Therefore, in the experiments, autonomous English learning was introduced at the beginning of their first year. The experimental students were informed that computer-aided autonomous English learning was quite different from the teaching style of the middle school and also quite new in Chinese college teaching system.

C. The research Purposes and Questions

It was expected that students would learn to manage their English language learning activities during the first-year, and over time became independent of teachers, which would make a better preparation for their future study abroad.

In our teaching and learning experiments during the year, the research questions were:

(1) Could the new teaching and learning model save classroom teaching time? If so, how much time could be saved in our experiments?

(2) What were the benefits that the experimental students would get from the new learning model psychologically?

D. The Theoretical Framework

Constructivist Teaching: Constructivism is a philosophical orientation in teaching theories. According to the theory, learning is constructed by the brain as it seeks to relate new knowledge to prior knowledge. Therefore, each student will have a unique construction.

Autonomous-learning: Autonomous-learning is a modern learning theory based on the theory of constructivism. It is also a student-focused learning model which emphasizes the learning environment and cooperative learning. Autonomous learning was first developed by Holec (1981), which means that students take charge of their own learning by carrying out their own learning plans according to their own needs. Furthermore, Learners acquire knowledge actively in a structured learning environment, and over time become independent of teachers. While teachers act as mediators during the process, learners take responsibility for planning, regulating, evaluating and managing their learning process.

Cooperative learning theory: Cooperative learning theory was developed in America in the 1970s as a teaching theory and strategy system. Cooperative learning emphasizes class communicative activities and is aimed at developing students' social skills and language abilities. Millis et al. (1997) suggested that there are two key characteristics of cooperative learning. The first is its ability to create genuine communities within classrooms. The second characteristic is equally compelling. Deep learning is promoted by well-structured, sequenced assignments where students learn independently outside of class and then "process" the material cooperatively, in meaningful ways, to receive feedback on learning.

Information technology applied in education: Online education is now an established phenomenon and a growing industry. Researches carried out by an American psychologist suggest that information technology can be very helpful with education. It can save between 30%-50% of the learner's time in accomplishing the courses and between 40%-50% of the education expense for the institution; at the same time, learners can have access to approximately 30% more information about the courses and be 80% more efficient during the learning process (Tan, 2002; Zhou, 2009).

II. The Design of the Experiments

A. The Subjects

The students were from four teaching classes: two classes (Group A, 64 students) were involved in the experiments while the other two classes (Group B, 62 students) were taught in a traditional way. The teaching material was those already designated by the faculty to teach these students.

B. Data Analysis

In this paper, the independent sample t-test in SPSS software was used to determine whether the means of the students' English scores (including reading scores and listening scores) of the two groups were statistically different from each other.

In our research, the two groups were compared on the outcome of the whole year's study. The students' English scores of Group A and B in the examinations during the process were compared by statistical method using t-tests. The second comparison was based on the fact that the two groups were at the same level statistically in their English competence when they were admitted to the college as joint-program students.

At the same time, the relationship of autonomous learning time spent by the experimental group and the learning

effectiveness would help to find out how much classroom teaching time was saved by adopting autonomous learning model.

III. The Specific Teaching Practices in Class in Developing Students' Computer-aided Autonomous English Language Learning Skills

In the second semester, the classroom time of Group A was shortened to 6 periods, but another 4 periods of computer-aided learning were offered per week in order to strengthen the students' autonomous learning competence. The students in Group B were still taught in a traditional way, working in classrooms for 8 periods and in computer-room for 2 hours each week.

A. Teaching Contents and Learning Materials

In order to prepare students for their computer-aided English language learning and give them adequate information support during the process, the teaching and learning contents through the first year were organized like the following table. Especially, the learning materials on IELTS were expected to help the joint-program students in their future tests for studying abroad, while the learning materials on College English Test were served to prepare students who would stay in China in the future. See table 2.

B. Teacher's Role and Teaching Methods in Both Settings

Teacher's role and teaching methods in this empirical study varied according to different teaching and learning settings. Teachers made use of the texts to warm up students for the new teaching and learning model. In this sense, this unit was also used as a good training of English learning skills as well as to make students aware of the new learning process. In learning this unit, students were asked to discuss questions related to learning strategies in English to perceive the differences between traditional learning model and the computer-aided learning model.

Generally speaking, students were encouraged to make best use of the learning materials selected via Internet in exploring each topic, which is offered in each unit in their course books. Teachers also required them to analyze and re-organize these materials for their classroom presentation to check their language level. After evaluating students learning outcome, further suggestions from the teachers would be given to individual student for their future learning. See table 3.

C. Teaching and Learning Advancement-Exemplified by Unit 6 As His Name Is, So Is He! (In Book 2 of New Horizon College English)

According to the teaching plan for the second semester during the year, each unit was covered during one and half a week. In another word, it took teachers and students about 3 or 4 periods in computer-rooms. During the learning of a unit, students were required to fulfill different tusks step by step. Combining the learning and practicing activities both in classrooms and computer-rooms, students experienced data selecting and digesting, language practicing, evaluating and being evaluated, and eventually being helped and suggested by the peers and the teachers based on the process. See table 4.

Notes:

1. The questions can be asked as following:

(1) Do you think a person's name is important? Why or why not?

(2) Try to tell the differences between Chinese names and English names.

(3) Do you know the meanings of some Chinese and English names? Try to explain using examples.

(4) What do parents consider when giving a name to a baby in China?

(5) Talk about the meaning of your own name and guess your parents' expectations for your future.

2. The suggested titles of the essay are as follows:

(1) I Love My Name

(2) Your Name and Your Future

(3) How to Choose a Beautiful Name?

D. Class Monitoring

Over one hundred years ago, an educational research claimed that "to teach well is to question well" (De Garmo, 1903). In autonomous English Language learning, "learners must be free to monitor and evaluate" (David et al., 2009) their learning activities.

In our reading classroom teaching, questions were raised by teachers before they had explored a certain topic or theme. After students' autonomous learning and exploring, they were expected to construct their own knowledge. Teachers also encouraged students to raise questions if they have any. Teachers also asked more questions to check and promote their learning. Therefore, questioning acted as an important step in developing and ensuring students' autonomy.

Teachers in the joint-program reported that they must carefully monitor learners when students used computers, particularly when the computers are connected to the Internet. If even a single learner, either accidentally or purposefully, contacts a pornographic site during a class period, bad effects are almost certain. Equally seriously,

students might survey the materials in Chinese to have fun or something.

E. Student Assessment

Generally, student assessment is divided into two parts: one is by examination scores and the other is to measure students' daily working performance. However, the former has been too much emphasized in the traditional education system in China. Stiggins et al. (2004) pointed out that "assessment is an important dimension of the learning process and should also be defined as assessment for learning". That is to say, "sound assessment procedures become a learning experience" eventually. Besides, learners usually "desire indications of success" and "data gathered from fair and appropriate assessment procedures can provide these affirmations. Stiggins (1997) also claimed that "evidence of success motivates learners to continue working and creates an expectation of future success". Performance assessment is especially useful in evaluating learner behaviors associated with such tasks as working with others, giving oral presentations, participating in discussions, using computers, etc according to Armstrong et al. (2009).

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

1. Self-assessment

Besides using weekly working log to reflect on learning performance, students were required to answers questions at the end of each semester. By answering these questions, students were directed to conduct self-assessment about the each semester's English learning and prepare the next semester's work according to the their existing conditions in autonomous English learning and the final learning objects and requirements.

These questions were designed for students by the teachers both from Australia and China to help each joint-program student to assess himself/herself:

(1) Check your weekly autonomous learning log. Did you complete the planned activities in reading and vocabulary?

(2) How would you evaluate your autonomous English learning work this semester?

(3) Has your English reading and vocabulary improved as a result of your autonomous learning? Describe these improvements.

(4) Which activity or activities have been the most useful during this period?

(5) Was there anything you needed to change in your original plan this semester?

(6) What else could you do to improve your autonomous learning in English course?

(7) Next semester what changes will you make to your autonomous learning plan?

2. Assessment by study team

There were also some questions designed by joint-program teachers for study teams to review the individual student:

(1) Has the student answered the self-evaluation questions thoughtfully and in detail?

(2) Has the student used correct grammar in report sentences?

(3) Is the spelling accurate?

(4) How would your study team evaluate the student's autonomous English learning work this semester?

(5) Do you have any suggestions for how this student could improve her/his autonomous English learning next semester?

Apart from giving more perspectives about each student' learning performance, assessment by study teams could be more objective and helpful for the joint-program teacher in understanding and recognizing the students' all kinds of achievements and problems during the learning process.

3. Assessment by teachers

Traditionally, teachers evaluate students mainly by the scores in an examination, which cannot give a true picture of an individual student's learning performance. In the new model, examination was still used as a means in measuring students' advancement. However, by observation, daily communication, interviews and questionnaires, teachers evaluated students also in several other aspects:

(1) Student's learning attitude and habit development in autonomous learning.

(2) Student's involvement in cooperative learning.

(3) Student's performance in computer-rooms.

(4) Student's improvement in language skills.

(5) The evaluating information from her/his study team.

(6) Scores in tests and examinations.

The combination of the six aspects was recognized in the final marks of the individual students. However, each aspect is usually interacted with other aspects. This comprehensive and detailed teacher assessment system also noticed and respected the differences during the learning process within an individual student and between different students. The practices were also in agreement with the theory of constructivism.

IV. Outcomes and Findings of the Teaching Experiments

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

At the end of the first semester and the second semester, all the first-year joint-program students took the final

examination in English reading, listening and writing using the same papers. Score compared were conducted in reading scores, between Group A and B were showed in table 5.

From the table, it was found that, at the end of the first semester, the reading scores of Group A have significant difference from that of Group B, with the former group being higher than the latter one in the two courses. This suggested that the English language level of Group A, the experimental group, was higher than Group B after three months' computer-aided autonomous learning.

Equally important, at the end of the second semester, the scores of the two groups had no significant difference, which suggested that the advancement of Group A was the same as Group B during the whole year's learning. Given 2 hours' decrease of classroom teaching time and 2 hours' increase of computer-aided autonomous each week in the second semester, it meant the higher effectiveness of English learning of Group A.

B. Post-interviews of the Students

At the end of the second semester, twelve students with different language levels from Group A were chosen at random to be interviewed about the autonomous learning process and their self-evaluation during it.

The questions asked in the interview are as followed:

(1) Have you realized the differences between computer-aided autonomous English learning and traditional learning in terms of your responsibility?

(2) Have you fully got involved in computer-aided autonomous English learning up till now?

(3) Have you applied the autonomous learning strategies into your daily learning activities? If so, how to?

(4) Please give an overall comment on your first year college English learning and your language improvement.

(5) What are your ideas and feelings about the future English learning?

From the interview, it was noted that 90% of the students who were involved in the experiments claimed that they had gained knowledge about the responsibility of themselves in college English language learning and had been trying to apply more and more of the strategies into their daily learning activities. Each student perceived and told about their different advancement in English level and English learning skills, with most of who felt satisfied with the whole years' English learning process and outcomes. All the experimental students showed an active and expecting attitude towards the future language learning and using.

On the other hand, according to the teachers who taught the classes, the students in Group B, who experienced the traditional learning process, showed much less awareness and tended to be less proactive in their English learning.

C. Questionnaires

In the second semester, the second questionnaire was given to Group A to find out the further developments of their computer-aided autonomous English learning skills and their learning attitudes, with 60 copies of the questionnaire being available. Answers to Questionnaire 2 were shown at the end of the paper. From the students' answers to the questionnaire, it was noticed that most of the students understood more about autonomous English learning and the majority of the students got more involved in it. See table 6.

D. Teachers' Findings in Class during the Teaching Process

It is found that the classroom teaching became more and more active and efficient. Experimental students learned more about each unit before class and they could explore further during the classroom learning and co-working. Teachers found it easier to achieve the teaching purposes working with the experimental students since both teachers and students have enjoyed class with the new teaching and learning model.

E. Answers to the Research Questions in this Paper

According to above mentioned data, the answers to the research question (1), (2) and (3) are:

(1) Teaching experiments also suggested that the new teaching and learning model saved classroom time. Specifically speaking, 2 periods' time was saved each week, which would up to 32 periods in the whole semester.

(2)According to the time spent on autonomous English learning and the activities taken part in by the students during the time, the findings of the interviews and questionnaires, the experimental students (in Group A) felt quite positive about computer-aided autonomous English language learning and got more motivated during the first year. After the students found that they had learned a lot they eventually became proactive not only during the process but also in the future English learning.

APPENDIX TABLES

TABLE 1
MARKS COMPARISON BETWEEN GROUP A AND B IN THE FIRST TEST GIVEN IN OCTOBER, 2008

Course Scores	Group	Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error Mean	Variances	t-test for Equality of Means	
							T	Sig. (2-tailed)
Reading Score	A	64	20.33	6.999	.875	Equal variances assumed	.663	.509
	B	62	19.53	6.457	.820			

TABLE 2
TEACHING CONTENTS AND LEARNING MATERIALS

contents and Materials	Functions and purposes
Theories on autonomous English learning	Preparation students for their first-year English learning
Computer working skills	Technology supporting for computer-aided learning activities
New horizontal Reading and Writing(Second Edition)	Main course book on students' reading and writing skills development
Reading materials selected by teachers via Internet	Expanding students reading scope and developing their autonomous learning interests
Reading materials selected by individual students via Internet	Practicing student's autonomous learning skills and developing their autonomous learning motivation
Learning materials on IELTS	Preparation students for IELTS
Learning materials on College English Test	Preparation students for College English Tests

TABLE 3
TEACHER'S ROLE AND TEACHING METHODS IN BOTH SETTINGS

Teaching and learning settings	Teacher's role and teaching methods
Classroom setting	1 giving students directions on meta-recognition and recognition strategies and English learning methods; 2 advising and supervising students on their weekly learning plan and learning log; 3 suggesting questions to be explored by students in each unit; 4 organizing group work such as discussion and presentation; 5 evaluating individual and group work of students.
Computer-room setting	1 helping solving students' problems in using a computer; 2 offering relevant network stations; 3 helping individual student select appropriate learning materials and work on them; 4 supervising students' Internet-surfing activities; 5 evaluating students' learning process and outcomes via Internet and giving further suggestions

TABLE 4
TEACHING AND LEARNING ADVANCEMENT OF UNIT 6

Time	Teaching settings	Teaching and learning methods	Teaching and learning contents	Teaching goals or purposes
1-2 periods	Classroom setting	Warming up activities	5 or more questions (see note 1)	Preparation for the learning of the unit
3-4 periods (teacher supervising ,directing)	Computer-room setting	Autonomous learning including listening, reading, speaking and writing	Searching for the relevant materials on the topic and do all kinds of practices in English	Practicing autonomous language learning skills and preparing for the future classroom activities
5-6 periods	Classroom setting	Oral presentation on some topics	1 the meaning of some names 2 stories about the influence of one's name on his/her life	Practicing oral English skills, helping develop students' cultural sense in learning a language, peers evaluation
7-8 periods	Classroom setting	Text-reading (discussing among students, teachers' questioning and directing)	Focusing on the language points and the writing strategies of the texts	Teachers evaluating students' language level and their learning progress, giving needed direction to individual student
Autonomous learning via Internet (teacher supervising)	Computer-room setting	Autonomous language learning activities	English learning and practicing via Internet by listening, reading, speaking and writing	Offering an opportunity for students to enjoy all kinds of learning materials
9-10 periods	Classroom setting	Doing exercises	important language points in this unit (omitted)	Students consolidating on language points, knowledge expanding and self-evaluation
11-12 periods	Classroom setting	Group discussion and working with partners On writing an essay	Summarizing the learning of the unit, writing an essay with partners about names. (see note 2)	Reflecting on the whole learning process, giving and receiving advice from peers and teachers.

TABLE 5
READING MARKS COMPARING BETWEEN GROUP A AND B

Date	Group	Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error Mean	Variances	t-test for Equality of Means	
							T	Sig. (2-tailed)
08-12-31	A	64	70.41	9.742	1.218	Equal variances assumed	3.951	.000
	B	62	63.71	9.360	1.179			
09-06-31	A	64	23.08	6.701	.838	Equal variances assumed	.538	.592
	B	62	22.47	6.002	.762			

TABLE 6
RESULTS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE SECOND SEMESTER

Questions and answers	Results (Student number and percentage)			
	Answer A	Answer B	Answer C	Answer D
Question 1	33(55%)	22(37%)	5(8%)	
Question 2	25(42%)	30(50%)	5(8%)	
Question 3	35(58%)	17(28%)	14(23%)	3(5%)
Question 4	9(15%)	25(42%)	18(30%)	15(25%)
Question 5	48(80%)	12(20%)	18(30%)	16(27%)
Question 6	25(42%)	24(40%)	11(18%)	
Question 7	30(50%)	15(25%)	15(25%)	
Question 8	10(17%)	41(68%)	9(15%)	
Question 9	15(25%)	40(67%)	5(8%)	
Question 10	39(65%)	16(27%)	5(8%)	
Question 11	20(33%)	23(38%)	17(28%)	
Question 12	12(20%)	32(53%)	16(27%)	
Question 13	28(47%)	21(35%)	22(37%)	
Question 14	24(40%)	14(23%)	22(37%)	
Question 15	25(42%)	32(53%)	3(5%)	
Question 16	10(17%)	47(78%)	3(5%)	
Question 17	31(52%)	28(47%)	15(25%)	
Question 18	37(62%)	10(17%)	13(22%)	
Question 19	37(62%)	12 (20%)	11(18%)	
Question 20	17(28%)	33(55%)	10(17%)	
Question 21	20(33%)	39(65%)	1(2%)	
Question 22	12(20%)	12(20%)	36(60%)	
Question 23	13(22%)	43(72%)	4(7%)	

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Teaching Methodology and Motivation: Comparison of Iranian English Private Institute and High School

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Abstract—**This study investigated 50 state high school and private institute learners in Najafabad, 25 each, to see if there was any relationship between teaching methodology and motivation. First, 100 students were selected randomly. A Nelson test was administered to the students to select and homogenize the intended number of students for the study. Next, 50 students (25 from the state high school and 25 from the private institute, whose scores on the Nelson test were between one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean) were selected to answer a motivation questionnaire. The analysis of the results gained through the check lists about teacher's role, learner's role, teaching objectives and teaching activities, showed that the teaching methodology in these settings was different. While high school teachers were at the center of the classroom; learners in the private institute had an active role in the learning process. Task based, realia and audio visual materials are common in the private institute but text based materials are common in the high school. The focus of teaching activities in the private institute is on different kinds of skills and drills. In the high school practice on different kinds of imitations and drills are common activities. Oral skills, practice on fluency, and accuracy are common objectives in the private institute. In the high school, the focus is on language components (grammar and vocabulary).Although there was no significant difference between these two groups with regard to proficiency, the analysis of the learner's responses to the motivation questionnaire showed that the private institute learners were more motivated to learn English than the high school learners. The findings of this study are useful for teachers to apply motivated methods to improve learners' motivation. Also, students who take responsibility for their learning enjoy freedom and power to make decisions in their learning. Knowing that learning is a product of one's own activities, a student feels more rewarded and enhances his courage to get involved in an active learning process.**

Index Terms—**motivation, teaching methodology, task based, Realia, audio visual materials, private institute, Nelson Test**

I. Background

Language teaching came into existence as a profession in the twentieth century. Its foundation was developed during the early part of the twentieth century, as applied linguists focused on the fields of linguistics and psychology to support what was thought to be a more effective teaching methodology. Language teaching in the twentieth century was characterized by frequent changes, innovations and development of language teaching ideologies (Richards & Rodgers, 2003).

Method– a systematic set of teaching practices based on a particular theory of language and language learning– is a powerful concept, and the quest for better methods has been a preoccupation of many teachers throughout the twentieth century (Richards & Rodgers, 2003).

As methods link theory and practice, they represent a contribution of applied linguistics to language education. Methods do not necessarily arise from a priori theorizing, they could be derived from successful practice (Krashen, 1987). Richards and Rodgers (1986, 2001, as cited in Davies, 2006) describe methods in terms of three levels: approach, design, and procedure. Approach refers to the underpinning theory of language and language learning. Design covers the specification of linguistic content, the role of teacher and learners, and instructional materials. Procedure means the techniques and activities that are used in the classroom.

Despite the claims of proponents of some methods, no consensus has emerged as the best way to teach a language; there have been some ideas to abandon what Richards (2002, as cited in Davies, 2006) calls the supermethod and to concentrate on equipping teachers with a repertoire of methods and skills that can be used in different contexts.

The general consensus is to consider methods as sociocultural products, that is, the products of their times. In fact no method is inherently superior to another; instead, some methods are more appropriate than others in a particular context (Adamson, 1988).

A. Motivation

At the turn of the twentieth century there has been an uprising interest in the investigation of the role of learner's characteristics in a foreign and second language learning (hereafter referred to as FLL/SLL) process (Brown, 2000). A major trend in language syllabus design has been the use of information from learners on curriculum decision-making (Nunan 1993). Students should be active agents of their learning, not merely passive receivers of information. Learning is a product of learners' own actions and is based not only on the learners' prior skills and knowledge but also on their experience and interest. If learners have role in defining and choosing the goals, the course content, and methodology, learning will be more relevant to them (Decorte, 1993).

In order to create a learning environment in which students' needs are addressed, teachers need to understand their students' interests and concerns, in short, their motivation. If considering preferences felt by learners is crucial for effective language learning, negotiation is needed between teachers and students. Information has to be exchanged about the role of teacher and learners, so that compromises are reached between what learners want and what the teacher can provide (Brindly, 1989).

Although many teachers admit that learners differ in terms of needs and preferences, they may not consult learners in conducting language activities. The basis for such reluctance to cooperate may be that learners are not capable to express what they need to learn and how they want to learn it.

Many research projects suggest a meaningful relationship between motivation and student's performance. Schmidt (1993) argues that motivated learners are more likely to pay close attention to the language input than those who are not so motivated. Niezgoda and Rover (2001) suggested that motivation might influence English learners' sensitivity to grammatical errors. Cook (2001) also points out that highly motivated learners can notice pragmatic functions of language. A similar observation was made by Tateyama (2001) who found that highly motivated learners showed a better performance in a role-play (Csizer & Dornyei, 2005).

One of the influential studies of student motivation was conducted by Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert (1972). During 12 years they studied Foreign Language Learning in Canada, the United States, and the Philippines in order to investigate how attitude and motivation affect success in language learning. They identified two types of motivation: instrumental and integrative.

Instrumental motivation refers to motivation to learn a language in order to reach instrumental goals: promoting a job, reading technical material, translation and so on.

In integrative motivation learners wish to integrate himself/herself into the culture of the second language group, to identify with them, and become a part of the target language society. Many of Lambert studies (1963) found that higher scores on proficiency test in a Foreign Language followed integrative motivation. In a number of previous studies, positive attitudes toward learning English was found to be one of the most important factors in a motivated behavior (Crooks & Schmidt, 2000). If learners have a positive attitude toward learning a second or foreign language, they are more motivated to learn that language.

In summary, literature suggests that most learners begin their academic career with integrative and instrumental motivation toward achievement (Entwisle *et al*., 1986; Stipek & Ryan, 1997).

B. Statement of the Problem

Teaching methodology plays a significant role in the EFL learning process, and most learners may feel disappointed if the method of teaching is not appropriate for them.

Regarding language teaching in Iran, Bakhshi (1997) notes: ″One of the problems is an old belief that just knowing about the language and its grammatical patterns suffice teaching English, so there are no rooms left for advancement through insight of linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, methodology, and pedagogy″ (p.14). It seems that one of the deficiencies is that most teachers lack sufficient knowledge of various methods and skills to implement them. Teachers do not use classroom activities that increase students' commitment for learning English .This makes students feel reluctant to the task of learning. In other words, if teachers base their methodologies only on cognitive considerations, they would neglect the psychological aspect of human behavior. So, language teachers must be aware of the psychological state of learners (motivation & needs) to understand the affective condition for learning.

One of the few research works that sheds light on the relationship between teaching methodology and motivation was done by Ferando *et al* (1999). They found if teachers employed a suitable methodology, students' motivation would increase and they could perform better on exams. This study attempts to investigate this issue in an Iranian context. In this study, the researcher wants to compare teaching methodology and motivation in the high school and the language institute because these factors are different in these two setting. In the high school teacher has the central role but in the private institute learners have central role and in the private institute learning English is an optional course but an obligatory one in the high school then the researcher wants to find the relationship between teaching methodology and motivation.

C. Objectives of the Study

The importance of testing in educational setting necessitates the investigation of its relationship with various factors involved in the process of teaching. Therefore, the present study was designed to show if there is any relationship between teaching methodology and student's motivation. Methodology has been defined differently by scholars but, in this study, it is defined in terms of teacher's role, student's role, teaching materials, teaching activities, and teaching

objectives based on Richards and Rodgers (2003). High school and English language institute were selected as two places, where different approaches to the above mentioned factors, were expected to be founded. Consequently, it was decided to see what teachers do in each setting, and then to see if there was any relationship between methodology and motivation in each setting. The objectives of the study are restated in the following research questions and null hypotheses.

II. Procedures

A. Research Questions

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

1. Is the methodology used in high school different from the methodology used in English language institute in terms of teacher's role, student's role, teaching materials, teaching activities, and teaching objectives?
2. If the answer to the first question is positive, is there any difference between learners' motivation in high school and English language institute?
3. Dose the teaching methodology have any relationship with the type of motivation (instrumental and integrative)?

B. Significance of the Study

Motivation and teaching methodology are important factors in language learning. Teachers should be aware of the relationship among these variables. In sum, this study is expected to enrich knowledge of English teachers about the relationship between teaching methodology and motivation and help them to handle test anxious students more skillfully.

C. Participants

The participants of this study ranged from 15 to 17 year-old students selected randomly from 50 high school female students and 50 female students studying English as a foreign language (EFL) in a private English institute in Najafabad. Learners in these two settings enrolled in the second grade and their major was computer. Since the number of students in each class in both settings was 25, the participants were selected from two classes with the same teacher and setting. Then, a Nelson test was administered to the students to select and homogenize the intended number of students for the study. Next, 50 students, 25 from Mahjub high school and 25 from Parto private institute, whose scores on the Nelson were between one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean, were selected to take part in the study; to answer questions of a motivation questionnaire. Care was taken to choose those high school students who were not studying in the language institute simultaneously.

D. Instruments

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

1) A Nelson test (1999, as cited in Dadkhah's thesis, 2002). It consisted of 40 multiple-choice items on grammar and vocabulary to estimate the proficiency level of the learners. The validity of the test was established by consulting with my supervisor and advisor (see Appendix A for a copy).

2) A set of checklists to identify similarities and differences between teaching methodologies in the high school and the private institute. They were prepared by the researcher based on Richards and Rodgers (2003). The checklists consisted of teacher's role (Appendix B), learner's role (Appendix C), materials of the course (Appendix D), teaching activities (Appendix E), and teaching objectives (Appendix F), were used when the researcher and two other observers observed the English classes in the high school and the private institute for three sessions. The observers' duty was to observe the procedures of the classrooms including the role of teacher, role of learners, materials used in the class, objectives of the course pursued by the teacher and activities used in the class to identify similarities and differences between teaching methodology in these two settings. The checklists were to be filled by each of the three observers.

3) A motivation test. It was developed by Celce Murcia (1991) and consisted of 41 questions in six parts. Part one consisted of eight questions dealing with the view of participants regarding the reasons for learning English. Part two consisted of five questions to measure students' attitude toward learning English. Part three consisted of seven items to measure students' attitude about the English textbooks. Part four consisted of one question to rate the extent of students' satisfaction with achievement in English. Part five consisted of 17 items to measure the students' attitude toward the preferred ways and activities for learning English. Part six consisted of three items to rate the extent to which students agree with the way of error correction. This questionnaire was translated into Farsi to avoid participants' confusion. According to Seliger and Shohamy (1989), one of the main problems with questionnaires in a foreign language (FL) is that participants often have problems in providing answers in FL and there is no assurance that the questions are properly understood and answered correctly. Also, the participants of this study were in the second grade and not proficient enough in English; therefore, this questionnaire was used in Farsi, the native language of the participants.

The validity of the test was measured by consulting with my supervisor and advisor and the researcher measured its reliability via Cronbach's alpha (r=0.81). The participants were asked to rate their attitudes on a 5-point Likert scale (see Appendices H & I for a copy).

E. Data Collection and Procedure

Data were collected through the following stages: At first 100 students from the high school and the private institute, 50 each, were selected randomly. Then, via the administration of the Nelson test, 50 students (25 from the high school and 25 from the private institute) were selected as the participants of the study. Then the motivation questionnaire was distributed among the participants. They were asked to read the questions carefully and express their feeling by choosing one of the alternatives written in front of each statement. They were told nothing about the aim of the study to avoid halo effect. Also it was optional for the students to write their names at the top of the papers. The selected students were tested in terms of the relationship between teaching methodology and motivation.

III. Results and Analysis

A. The Results of the Analysis of the Observers' Responses to the Checklists

The Results of the Analysis of the Observers' Responses to the checklists of teachers` Role, learners' role, teaching materials, teaching activities, and teaching objectives will be presented.

The Results of the Analysis of the Observers' Responses to the Teachers` Role Checklist

Table 1 gives a summary of the observers' findings for both groups, that is, the high school (group1) and the private institute (group2) classrooms, on the teachers' role checklist, and Figure 1 gives the graphical representation of the same results.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE TWO GROUPS ON THE TEACHERS` ROLE CHECKLIST

Group Statistics

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
teacher as a facilitator and a counselor	1	16	.25	.447	.112
	2	16	1.25	2.236	.559
teacher as having central role	1	16	3.06	2.265	.566
	2	16	2.63	1.668	.417

As Table1 shows, the mean and the standard deviation scores for teacher as a facilitator and a counselor in the private institute are respectively 1.25 and 2.23. The mean and the standard deviation score of the central role for the teacher in the high school are respectively 3.06 and 2.26. By comparing the means of the two groups shown in the above table it can be said that the teacher in the high school has the central role in the classroom and decides what to teach and how to teach but in the private institute, she is as a facilitator and counselor in the class. Figure 1 shows the graphical representation of the teachers' role in the high school and the private institute.

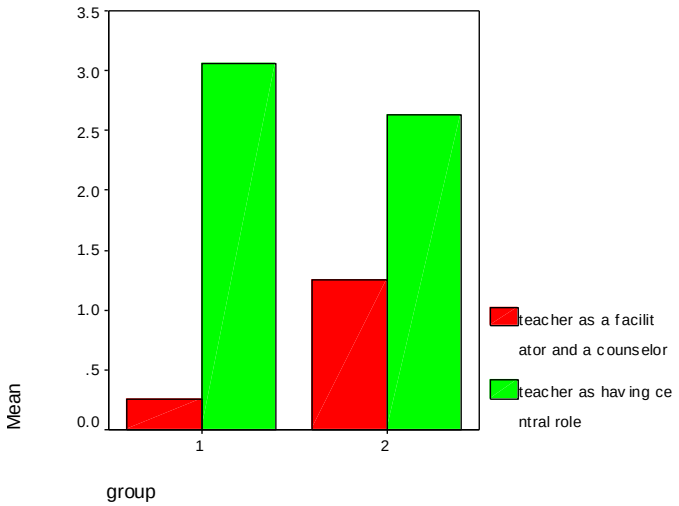

Figure 1. Graphical representation of the teachers' role in the high school and the private institute

Figure1 represents the mean differences of the teacher s` role in the high school and the private institute. In the private institute teachers are as facilitator and counselor for their learners but they have central role in the high school.

The Results of the Analysis of the Observers' Responses to the Learner s` Role Checklist

Table2 gives a summary of the observers' findings for both groups on the learners' role checklist, and Figure 2 gives the graphical representation of the same results.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE TWO GROUPS ON THE LEARNERS` ROLE CHECKLIST

Group Statistics

	GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
active	high school	9	2.00	2.598	.866
	language institution	9	6.33	7.566	2.522
passive	high school	9	8.33	7.906	2.635
	language institution	9	3.67	3.905	1.302

As Table 2 shows, the mean and the standard deviation scores for active role of learners in the private institute are respectively 6.33 and 7.566. The mean and the standard deviation scores for passive role of learners in the high school are respectively 8.33 and 7.90. By comparing the means of the two groups shown in the above table, it can be said that learners have an active role in the private institute but a passive role in the high school. Figure 2 gives the graphical representation of the learners' role in the high school and the private institute.

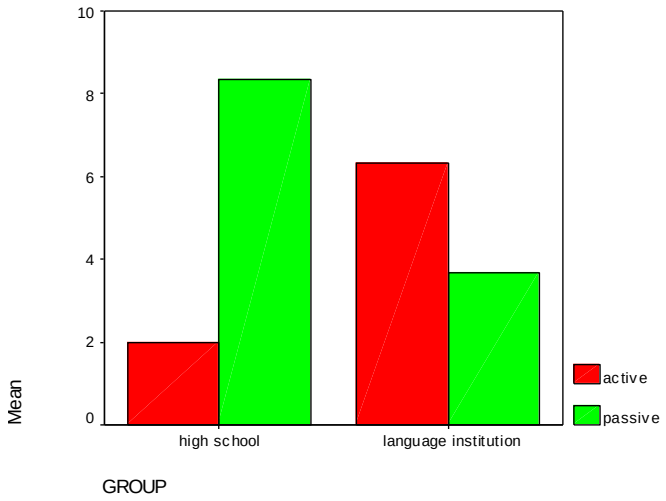

Figure 2. Graphical representation of the learners' role in the high school and the private institute

Figure 2 shows the mean differences of the learners' role in the high school and the private institute. In the private institute learners have active role but they are passive in the high school.

The Results of the Analysis of the Observers' Responses to the Material Checklist

Table 3 gives a summary of the observers' findings for both groups, that is, the high school and the private institute classrooms, on the material checklist. Figure 3 gives the graphical representation of the same results.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE TWO GROUPS ON THE MATERIAL CHECKLIST

Group Statistics

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
task based materials	high school	5	.20	.447	.200
	language institution	5	1.00	2.236	1.000
using realia	high school	5	.20	.447	.200
	language institution	5	1.00	2.236	1.000
text based materials	high school	5	1.00	2.236	1.000
	language institution	5	.80	1.789	.800
audio visual materials	high school	5	.40	.548	.245
	language institution	5	2.00	2.739	1.225

As Table 3 shows, the mean scores of task based, realia and audio visual materials in the private institute are respectively 1.00, 1.00 and 2.00. The mean of text based materials in the high school is 1.00. By comparing the means of the two groups shown in the above table it can be said that task based, realia and audio visual materials are common in the private institute but text based materials are common in the high school. Figure 3 gives the graphical representation of the materials used in the high school and the private institute.

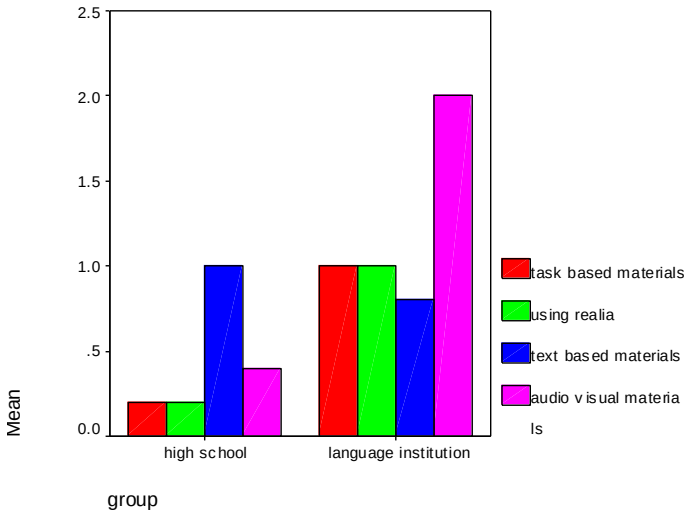

Figure 3: Graphical representation of the materials in the high school and the private institute

Figure 3 represents the mean differences of the materials in the high school and the private institute. In the high school, text based materials are common but in the language institute, realia, audio visual, and task based materials are more used.

The Results of the Analysis of the Observers' Responses to the Teaching Activities Checklist

Table 4 gives a summary of the observers' findings for both groups, that is, the high school and the private institute classrooms, on the teaching activities checklist, and Figure 4 gives the graphical representation of the same results.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE TWO GROUPS ON THE TEACHING ACTIVITIES

Group Statistics

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
different drills	1	22	2.73	1.956	.417
	2	22	3.09	1.540	.328

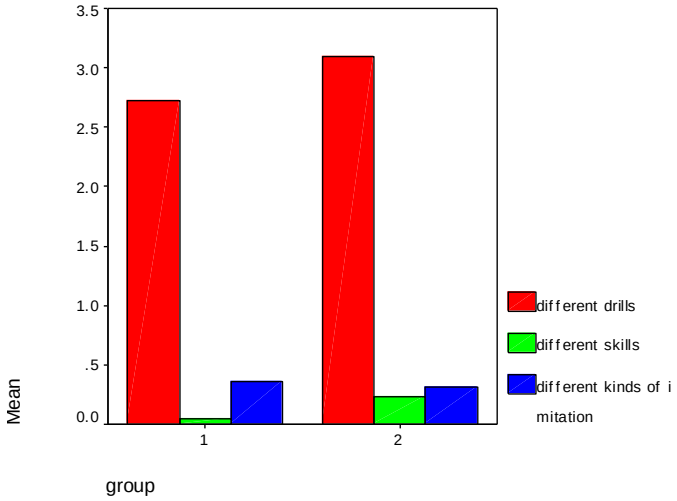

Figure 4: Graphical representation of the teaching activities in the high school and the private institute

As Figure 4 shows, the focus of teaching activities in the private institute is on different kinds of skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) and drills (elicitation, restatement, replacement,…). In the high school practice on different kinds of imitations (choral and individual imitation) and drills are common activities.

The Results of the Analysis of the Observers' Responses to the Teaching Objectives Checklist

Table 5 gives a summary of the observers' findings for both groups on the teaching objectives checklist, and Figure 5 gives the graphical representation of the same results.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE TWO GROUPS ON THE TEACHING OBJECTIVES CHECKLIST

Group Statistics

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
oral skills	high school	15	.27	.458	.118
	language institution	15	1.67	2.440	.630
language components	high school	15	.67	1.345	.347
	language institution	15	1.47	2.200	.568

As Table 5 shows, the mean and the standard deviation scores on oral skills (speaking and listening) in the private institute are respectively 1.67 and 2.44. The mean and the standard deviation scores of language components (vocabulary and grammar) in the high school are respectively 1.47 and 2.20. By comparing the means of the two groups shown in the above table it can be said that command of oral skills are common in the private institute but command of language components, such as vocabulary and grammar are common in the high school. Figure 5 gives the graphical representation of the teaching objectives in the high school and the private institute.

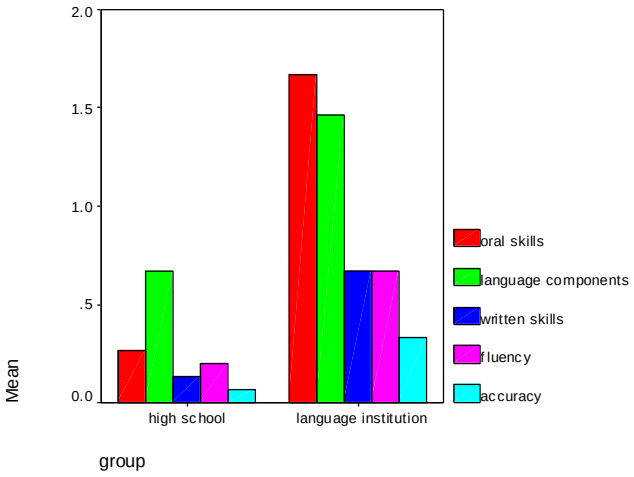

Figure 5: Graphical representation of the teaching objectives in the high school and the private institute

Figure 5 represents the mean differences of the teaching objectives in the high school and the private institute. As this figure shows oral skills, practice on fluency, and accuracy are common in the private institute. In the high school, the focus is on language components (grammar and vocabulary).

Teaching methodology consists of the role of teacher, the role of learners, teaching objectives, teaching activities and materials used in the classroom (Richard and Rodger, 2003). According to these tables and graphs, it is clear that teaching methodologies are different in the high school and the private institute.

B. The Analysis of the Learners' Responses to the Motivation Questionnaire and the Relationship between Teaching Methodology and Motivation

Table 6 gives a summary of the findings for both groups, that is, the high school and the private institute learners, on the motivation questionnaire, and Figure 6 presents the graphical representation of the same results.

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE TWO GROUPS ON THE MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE

High School					Language Institute				
Min	Max	Mean	SD	variance	Min	Max	Mean	SD	variance
99	205	183.08	20.845	434.493	153	230	195.24	18.622	346.773

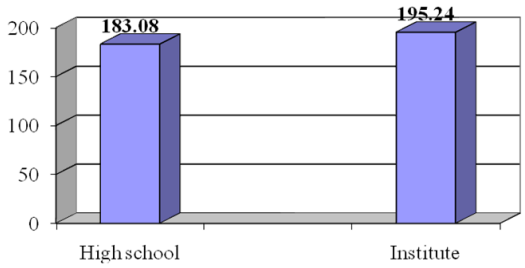

Figure 6. The graphical representation of the results for the motivation questionnaire

As Table 6 shows, the mean and the standard deviation scores of the high school students on the motivation test are respectively 183.08 and 20.84. For the language institute students the mean and the standard deviation scores are 192.24 and 18.62 respectively. In the high school group, the highest score and the lowest score are 205 and 99, but in the private institute the highest score is 230 and the lowest score is 153. The above table shows that the mean score for the motivation obtained by the language institute students is higher than that obtained by the high school learners.

In order to find out whether or not this difference is statistically significant, a *t*-test was run. Table 7 shows the results of this *t*-test.

TABLE 7.
THE RESULTS OF THE T-TEST FOR THE MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Group	No.	Mean	SD	SEM	df	t	p
High School	25	183.08	20.845	4.169	48	-2.229	.031
Institute	25	195.24	18.622	3.724			

Table 7 reveals that the amount of *t*-observed (*t*= -2.229) is significant at the probability level of p= .031, which is smaller than .05. In other words, motivation is significantly higher for the language institute students than for the high school students. In the previous part, it was identified that teaching methodologies were different in these two settings then it seems there is a relationship between teaching methodology and motivation.

C. The Results of the Analysis of the Learners' Responses to Different Parts of the Motivation Questionnaire

The motivation questionnaire is divided into six parts. The researcher compared the learners' responses to 4 parts in the high school and the private institute because these 4 parts are more related to this research.

Table 10 shows the descriptive statistics of different parts of the motivation questionnaire for each group and Figure 9 presents the graphical representation of the same results.

TABLE 10.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF DIFFERENT PARTS OF MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE FOR BOTH GROUPS

Group	Parts of motivation	No.	Mean	SD
School	Instrumental	25	15.498	1.5831
	Integrative	25	16.212	4.0901
	Coercion index	25	14.280	4.7734
	Attitude	25	14.347	3.1979
	Textbooks	25	14.808	1.6036
	Achievement	25	14.784	4.5559
Institute	Instrumental	25	17.046	1.6848
	Integrative	25	18.480	2.2683
	Coercion index	25	10.920	3.0911
	Attitude	25	17.270	3.1531
	Textbooks	25	15.480	2.9189
	Achievement	25	17.976	4.1151

As this table shows the mean scores of the private institute in instrumental motivation, integrative motivation, attitude toward learning English, attitude towards English text books, and overall achievement are higher than the high school learners. The mean score of the high school learners in the coercion index is higher than the private institute.

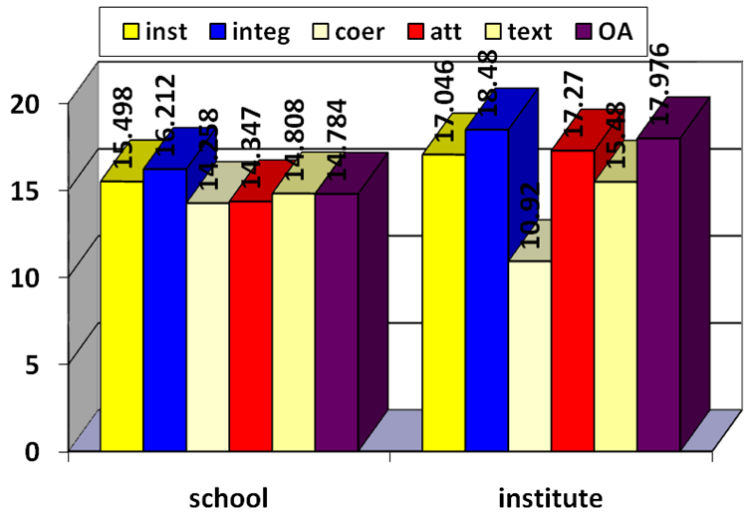

Figure 9. Graphical representation of the means in different parts of the motivation questionnaire for both groups

As figure 9 shows the mean score in each part of the motivation questionnaire for the private institute learners is higher than the high school learners except in the coercion index.

1. The Results of the Analysis of the Learners' Responses to the First Part of the Motivation Questionnaire

The first part of this questionnaire deals with the learners' reasons for learning English. It consisted of 8 questions: 4 items ask instrumental motivation, 2 items are about integrative motivation and 2 questions are about coercion index.

The Analysis of the Learners' Responses to the Instrumental Motivation Questions

These questions of the questionnaire deal with the instrumental motivation:

1. *I think it will some day help me get a good job.*
2. *Proficiency in English is a sign of good education.*
3. *I study English to go to the university*.
4. *English is the language of progress and modernization.*

As Table 10 shows, the mean and the standard deviation of the private institute students on the instrumental motivation questions are respectively 17.04 and 1.68. The mean and the standard deviation of the high school students on the instrumental motivation questions are respectively 15.49 and 1.58. By comparing the means of the two groups shown in the table 4-10 it can be said that the amount of instrumental motivation is higher for the private institute learners. A *t*-test was applied to find out if there is a significant difference between these two groups. Table 4.11 reveals the results of this *t*-test.

TABLE 11.
THE RESULTS OF THE T-TEST FOR THE INSTRUMENTAL MOTIVATION

Group	N	Mean	SD	df	t	p
High School	25	15.49	1.58	48	-3.348	.002
Institute	25	17.04	1.68			

It can be seen in Table 11 that the amount of *t*-observed (*t*=-3.348) is significant at the probability level of p= .002 which is smaller than .05. In other words, instrumental motivation in these two settings is different. The amount of instrumental motivation is higher for the private institute learners.

The Analysis of the Learners' Responses to the Integrative Motivation Questions

These questions of the questionnaire deal with the integrative motivation:

1. *I think it will help me to better understand English- speaking people.*
2. *I like English.*

As Table 10 shows, the mean and the standard deviation of the private institute students on the integrative motivation questions are respectively 18.48 and 2.26. The mean and the standard deviation of the high school students on the integrative motivation questions are respectively 16.21 and 4.09. By comparing the means of the two groups shown in the above table it can be said that the amount of integrative motivation is higher for the private institute learners. A *t*-test was applied to find out if there is a significant difference between these two groups. Table 13 reveals the results of this *t*-test.

TABLE 13.
THE RESULTS OF THE T-TEST FOR THE INTEGRATIVE MOTIVATION

Group	N	Mean	SD	df	t	p
High School	25	16.21	4.09	48	-2.425	.019
Institute	25	18.48	2.26			

It can clearly be seen in Table 13 that the amount of *t*-observed (*t*=-2.425) is significant at the probability level of p= .019 which is smaller than .05. In other words, the amount of the integrative motivation is significantly higher for the private institute students than the high school students.

The Analysis of the Learners' Responses to the Coercion Index Questions

These questions deal with the Coercion Index:

1. *It is a part of the school curriculum.*
2. *My parents want me to learn it.*

As Table 10 shows, the mean and the standard deviation of the private institute students on the coercion index questions are respectively 10.92 and 3.09. The mean and the standard deviation of the high school students on the coercion index questions are respectively 14.28 and 4.77. By comparing the means of the two groups shown in the above table it can be said that the amount of coercion index is higher for the high school learners. In other words, high school learners attend the English classes only because it is a part of the school curriculum not because of their motivation. A *t*-test was applied to find out if there is a significant difference between these two groups. Table 15 reveals the results of this *t*-test.

TABLE 15.
THE RESULTS OF THE T-TEST FOR THE COERCION INDEX QUESTIONS

Group	N	Mean	SD	df	t	p
High School	25	14.28	4.77	48	2.954	.005
Institute	25	10.92	3.09			

As Table 15 shows the amount of *t*-observed (*t*=2.954) is significant at the probability level of p= .005 which is smaller than .05. In other words, the amount of the coercion index is significantly higher for the high school students than the private institute students.

2. The Analysis of the Learners' Responses to the Second Part of the Motivation Questionnaire

The second part of this questionnaire deals with the learners' attitude toward learning English and consisted of 5 questions:

1. *Studying English is an enjoyable experience*.
2. *I would study English in school even if it were not required*.
3. *I do not like to spend my time on subjects other than English*.
4. *I think learning English is the best experience in my life*.
5. *Learning subjects other than English is a waste of time*.

As Table 10 shows, the mean and the standard deviation of the private institute students on questions about learners' attitude are respectively 17.27 and 3.15. The mean and the standard deviation of the high school students on these questions are respectively 14.34 and 3.19. By comparing the means of the two groups shown in the above table it is clear that the private institute learners have positive attitude toward learning English. It can be said that learners' motivation cause positive attitude to learning English and vice versa. A *t*-test was applied to find out if there is a significant difference between these two groups. Table 4.16 reveals the results of this *t*-test.

TABLE 16.
THE RESULTS OF THE T-TEST FOR LEARNERS' ATTITUDE TOWARD LEARNING ENGLISH

Group	N	Mean	SD	df	t	p
High School	25	14.34	3.19	48	-3.255	.002
Institute	25	17.27	3.15			

It can clearly be seen that the amount of *t*-observed (*t*=-3.255) is significant at the probability level of p= .002 which is smaller than .05. In other words, the amount of the positive attitudes toward learning English is significantly higher for the private institute students than the high school students.

3. The Results of the Learners' Responses to the Third Part of the Motivation Questionnaire

The third part of this questionnaire deals with the learners' attitudes toward their English textbooks and consisted of 7 questions:

1. *The topics and reading texts in our English textbooks are enjoyable.*
2. *The materials and activities in our book are interesting*.
3. *Reading texts and topics encourage me to read more English*.
4. *The pictures of the book help me to understand English better.*
5. *Reading passages present an up-to-date picture of the target language people.*
6. *Reading texts and topics are in harmony with the students own needs and interests*.
7. *The reading texts are interesting*.

As Table 10 shows, the mean and the standard deviation of the private institute students on questions about the learners' attitude toward English textbooks are respectively 15.48 and 2.91. The mean and the standard deviation of the high school students on these questions are respectively 14.80 and 1.60. By comparing the means of the two groups shown in the above table it can be said that the private institute learners have positive attitude toward their English textbooks and this attitude can increase their motivation. A *t*-test was applied to find out if there is a significant difference between these two groups. Table 17 reveals the results of this *t*-test.

TABLE 17.
RESULTS OF THE T-TEST FOR LEARNERS' ATTITUDE TOWARD ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS

Group	N	Mean	SD	df	t	p
High School	25	14.80	1.60	48	-3.176	.003
Institute	25	15.48	2.91			

As Table 17 shows the amount of *t*-observed (*t*= -3.176) is significant at the probability level of p= .003 which is smaller than .05. In other words, the amount of the positive attitudes toward English textbooks is significantly higher for the private institute students than the high school students.

4. The Results of the Learners' Responses to the Fourth part of the Motivation Questionnaire

This part, consisted of one question, asks learners' satisfaction with their achievement in English:

1. *I am satisfied with my achievement in English*.

As Table 10 shows, the mean and the standard deviation of the private institute students on overall achievement are respectively 17.97 and 4.11. The mean and the standard deviation of the high school students on this question are respectively 14.78 and 4.55. By comparing the means of the two groups shown in the above table, the private institute learners are more satisfied with their achievement in English. It can be said, there is a positive relationship between motivation and overall achievement. In other words, the higher the motivation, the higher the overall achievement, and vice versa. A *t*-test was applied to find out if there is a significant difference between these two groups. Table 18 reveals the results of this *t*-test.

TABLE 18.
THE RESULTS OF THE T-TEST FOR THE SATISFACTION WITH OVERALL ACHIEVEMENT IN ENGLISH

Group	N	Mean	SD	df	t	p
High School	25	17.04	4.55	48	2.600	.012
Institute	25	17.97	4.11			

It can be seen in Table 18 that the amount of *t*-observed (*t*= 2.600) is significant at the probability level of p= .012 which is smaller than .05. In other words, satisfaction with overall achievement in English in these two settings is different. Satisfaction is higher in the private institute learners.

IV. DISCUSSION

The First Research Question: Is the methodology used in high school different from the methodology used in English language institute in terms of teacher's role, student's role, teaching materials, teaching activities, and teaching objectives?

The analysis of the observers' responses to the checklists show in the high school teacher has the central role and she decides what to teach and how to teach. Learners are considered as receivers of information, listeners, and imitators. They do not have any role in teaching process and they just repeat new structures and new words. The only material in the high school is English text book. Teaching activities and objectives are limited to repetition of structures and vocabulary. Instead, in the private institute, teachers are not at the center of the class. They are as facilitators who help students to master on language. Besides, learners have active role and they can make new short stories and conversations. Materials in the private institute are not limited to English textbooks. Teachers use audio visual materials and realia in the class also learners can bring interesting materials that are related to their lesson. Teaching activities and objectives are not limited to different drills (question and answer drills, group work drills,…) but also mastery on language skills (listening, speaking, writing, and reading) is very important.

The Second Research Question: If the answer to the first question is positive, is there any difference between learners' motivation in the high school and the English language institute?

To answer this research question, a *t*-test was used and the results show that motivation is higher in the private institute learners than the high school learners. As it was said, teaching methodology is different in these two settings then it seems there is a positive relationship between teaching methodology and motivation. Also, Boggiano *et al* (1992) found that if teachers be as facilitators in the class, use interesting materials (photographs, objects,…) and give learners an active role that learners can decide what to teach and how to teach, learners motivation will increase and their test anxiety will decrease.

The Third Research Question: Does the teaching methodology have any relationship with the type of learners' motivation (instrumental and integrative)?

To answer this research question a series of *t*-tests were used to analyze the learners' answers to the motivation questionnaire. It was clear that instrumental and integrative motivations are higher in the private institute learners. They want to learn English because they want to find a good job and learning English help them to have a better understanding of English-speaking people. Private institute learners have positive attitude toward learning English and their text books. Also, they were satisfied with their achievement in English. But, in the high school, learners attended the English class because it was a part of their school curriculum. They have negative attitude toward learning English because they think learning English is a dull activity and waste of time. Learners in the high school were not satisfied with their progress in English because they just want to pass their course. It was clear that if teachers use a good teaching methodology, learners have high degree of instrumental or integrative motivation.

A previous study by Giles and Coupland (1991) found that integrative and instrumental motivations are very useful factors to engage learners in learning process. Integrative motivation comes from the learner and it has a very strong power to move learners toward learning. Also, if learners want to have a good position and a good job in their society they are engaged in learning process. The result of Giles and Coupland's research is similar to the results of the present study. Then, it seems that instrumental and integrative motivations are useful factors to engage learners in learning process.

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Designing a Questionnaire Attempting to Discover Mentors' Feedback in the Professionalism of the Foreign Language Teacher Candidate

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***Abstract*—Teaching experiences are conducted in order to develop and sharpen the teacher candidates' abilities and skills in authentic teaching situations, they are also important collaborative processes between the teacher candidates and their mentors. Based on this situation, it is possible to state that the feedback given during the debriefing by mentors is one of the major constituents of these collaborating processes which apply elements of professionalism to the teacher candidates. The present study is an attempt to develop a scale/questionnaire familiar with the types of feedback that the teacher candidates receive from the co-operating school mentor teachers for their teaching experience performances. It is assumed that implementing such a scale can highlight mentor effectiveness because it is one of the preliminary means of investigating the teacher candidates' views of their mentors' assistance in their initial experiences.**

***Index Terms*—mentoring, feedback, teacher candidate, reliability and validity**

I. Introduction

Mentoring is a major component in teacher education/training programs. Teacher training programs have various courses in which, teacher candidates under the supervision of their mentors, are able to practice their teaching and reflect on their experiences for improving their teaching through field experiences. Prominent researchers claim that these types of field experiences are a valuable component of teacher preparation programs and are cited as the most important element of teacher training by graduates of teacher training programs (Guyton & McIntyre, 1990, as cited in Capizzi et. al., 2010).

Mentoring is a collaborative effort between university teacher educators, school supervising teachers and pre-service teachers (He, 2009). Considering the point that teacher candidates and mentors (school teachers in the present case) are obliged to work co-operatively and face to face in educational settings, embeds a potential relational satisfaction directed by the verbal and non-verbal feedback communicated by the mentor. "Without adequate communication between mentor teachers and pre-service teachers regarding teaching expectations and beliefs, pre-service teachers leave teacher education programs ill-prepared to negotiate potential conflict between their beliefs and reality of teaching, leading to dissonance and resistance to adaptation (He, 2009, p.264)." In situations as such, communication and the quality of the feedback are important factors because the ways they are presented can determine its acceptance by the teacher candidate. It is claimed that "when supervisors deliver critical feedback to subordinates, it is hoped that the recipients will focus on the content of the message to gain information about ways of improving job performance. Previous work has shown that the attention given by the recipient to the content of the feedback, and acceptance of this content, determine whether the criticism will bring about corrective changes in behavior (İ-Ilgen et. al., 1979; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996, as cited in Leung et. al., 2001; p.1157)."

Teacher candidates need to be given constructive feedback; otherwise they would feel lost in their self reflections and evaluations of their teaching practices. The practicum school mentors with their positive feedback can assist the teacher candidates in the improving of professional teaching competency which they need for their future occupations. This point is addressed by Chastain, (1988) who states that "language teachers should always be sensitive to the types of feedback their students receive in class, and they should remember that the feedback should respond both to students' affective needs and cognitive needs (p. 48)." Otherwise, as research has shown, when there is negative feedback there can be a decrease in performance (Baron, 1993; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996, as cited in Leung et. al., 2001; p.1157)."

Studies investigating mentoring have shown that teacher candidates have benefited considerably from mentoring experiences because mentoring provides teacher candidates and novice teachers support for developing their professional skills (Barkham, 2005; Clarke, 2004) and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). However, a literary review of mentoring shows that despite the point that "teacher candidate supervision has a longstanding history and tradition in teacher preparation programs (Capizzi et. al., 2010, p.3)," effective and thorough supervision remains a vital component

of teacher training programs (Buck, Morsink,Griffin, & Lenk, 1992; Darling-Hammond et al., 2005, as cited in Capizzi et. al., 2010)."

Supervision, mentoring and feedback are vital components not only for the teaching program but also for the teaching profession itself. Based on the argument of Devos (2010) it can be unanimously approved that mentoring as a vehicle for operationalising the professional standards plays an important role in the shaping of the profession over time and hence demanding greater scrutiny than has been applied to date. Therefore, the present study attempts to partially address the issue of mentors' feedback under scrutiny by investigating a case in Turkey.

In Turkey, state universities offering foreign language teacher training programs as a prerequisite for graduation have field experience courses. It is a necessity for teacher candidates to have experience in the teaching profession by taking up, in the final year of their education, two compulsory courses; one is based on practice at primary school and the other is at secondary school. However, to be able to take these courses it is a prerequisite to have passed the "special teaching methods" courses in the previous semesters. The first course which is "school experience" is in the first semester; it consists of one theoretical lesson at the university and four practicum lessons per week at a primary school. The second course "teaching practicum" which is obligatory in the last semester of the 4 year program consists of two theoretical lessons at the university, and six practicum lessons per week at the high school. These courses planning for the teacher candidates' hands on training and experiences are conducted at the schools where the practicum is experienced. Here, the university lecturers mentoring are conducted in partnership with the school classroom teachers. These classroom teachers have an important influence on the teacher candidates' professional development because "functioning as experts, mentors provide authentic, experiential learning opportunities through modeling. Through their actions and articulated ways of thinking, mentors teach new teachers effective skills and strategies (Saffold, 2005)."

In Turkey, in the traditional manner of the supervision of the teacher candidate, the qualified university mentor visits the candidate in various- most often limited periods. In order for the supervision to be more effective the teacher candidate is also actively and intensively supervised in longer periods by the classroom teacher. In the case of the present study the classroom teacher does most of the mentoring because s/he has to supervise the teacher candidate for at least six lessons per week. Therefore, in order to shed light upon the platform where mentoring shapes the future teachers' identity, the present study aims to investigate whether these teacher candidates, enrolled at an ELT department, receive constructive feedback from their practicum school teacher mentors in terms of; the ensuring of learner participation and interaction, the development of communicative competence in learners, the improvising of teaching methodology and current trends in language teaching, lesson planning, classroom management, and the familiarization of classroom tools and materials.

II. Method

A. Measures

In the primary stage of the process of scale development, after a thorough review of research relating to mentoring and feedback, a pool of items (approximately 53 items) were formed. Then with the assistance and guidance of three specialists in the field of teacher training, the construct and face validity of the items were debated. After this rigorous review of the items, again under the supervision of the specialists, ambiguous and overlapping items were filtered, decreasing the number of it items to a total of 22. Then, in order to diagnose further incomprehensible or irrelevant items, the scale was piloted to 15 teacher candidates. This piloting did not necessitate further differences to the scale and had shown this scale to have consistent measurement properties. At this stage, a scale with a series of 22 statements for each measure using a 5-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" was formed.

All of the statements on the survey were based on a 5-point Likert scale, the end points being labeled as 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree". While the minimum score gained by the participants for the subscales Factor I and II was 8, the maximum score was 40. The minimum score for subscale factor III was 6 and the maximum was 30. Also, statements 7, 14, 20, and 21 were reverse-coded.

B. Participants and Procedure

Participants were 68 ELT fourth/final year students (teacher candidates) enrolled at Uludag University, Faculty of Education, ELT Department in Bursa, Turkey. All of the participants achieved to pass the "school experience" and the "teaching practicum" courses.

Teacher candidates were administered a survey/questionnaire consisting of 22 items (see Appendix A). The teacher candidates answered the survey/questionnaire according to the feedback they gain from the mentors at the primary and high schools where their practicum courses were conducted.

III. Data Analysis and Results

In order to analyze the structural reliability of the scale/questionnaire the total variance in the data was considered by utilizing Principal Component Analysis (PCA) (See Table 1). The factors were depicted according to the criteria stated by Büyüköztürk (2002): a) eigenvalues higher than 1 were considered, b) only items with factor loadings higher than 0.45 were inclusive to the factors, and c) screen test was utilized while determining the number of factors. Considering

the criteria stated above, the initial component analysis of the survey revealed a 6 factor measurement. The variance of the total 6 factors was 67.71%. Analysis of the factors displayed that the total variance of 3 factors were 50.72% (35.40%, 9.18%, and 6.14%) and the factor loadings of the remaining factors were less than 0.45. Therefore, it was decided upon a 3 factor scale and variance maximizing rotation was applied. This analysis revealed that 20 of the 22 items on the scale had factor loadings which were higher than. 45 and that the contribution of the 3 factors to the total variance of 51.81% was 22.31%, 19.65%, and %9.85%.

While the original scale had 22 items, the statistical analysis has only 20 items. The removal of items 11 (I can overcome, on my own, the unexpected difficulties that arise in the classroom) and 22 (While giving feedback my mentor gives me time to think and respond) enhanced internal consistency and resulted in an increase in Cronbach's alpha (See Table 1) . The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the 3 factors were as follows: Factor I - 0.83 (8 items: 2, 6, 8, 9, 10, 13, 16, and 17), Factor II – 0.74 (8 items: 1, 3, 5, 12, 15, 18, 19, and 20), and Factor III – 0.57 (4 items: 4, 7, 14, and 21).

Then, variance maximizing (varimax) rotation was applied with 3 factor solution analysis and this analysis revealed the point that 20 of the 22 items displayed factor loadings higher than .47 within the 3 factors depicted. The reliable 20 items loaded to the 3 factors which were sub-labeled as; Factor I- "mentor effectiveness," Factor II-"mentor openness (criticism and sharing)," and Factor III "mentor support."

TABLE 1.
MENTOR SURVEY FACTOR ANALYSIS (PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS)

Item Number	**Factor 1**	**Factor 2**	**Factor 3**
Item 2	,601		
Item 6	,678		
Item 8	,588		
Item 9	,681		
Item 10	,669		
Item 13	,472		
Item 16	,805		
Item 17	,590		
Item 1		,587	
Item 3		,662	
Item 5		,585	
Item 12		,616	
Item 15		,661	
Item 18		,525	
Item 19		,481	
Item 20		,653	
Item 4			,527
Item 7			,793
Item 14			,516
Item 21			,518
Variance	**%22.30**	**%19.65**	**%9.85**
Eigenvalues	**4.68**	**4.12**	**2.07**
Alpha	**.83**	**.74**	**.57**

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Statistical analysis of the scale displays that the feedbacks are mainly based on the following dimensions; the ensuring of learner participation and interaction, the development of communicative competence in learners, the improvising of teaching methodology and current trends in language teaching, lesson planning, classroom management, and the familiarization of classroom tools and materials. Within this context, it can be assumed that the scale has reached the aim forming a scale depicting the teacher candidates' views on the types and effectiveness of feedback they receive from their mentors regarding their performances.

Policies relating to teacher mentoring programs are established. For example, in Turkey, new graduates who want to seek full registration as a teacher in public schools must take the KPSS examination (government employee qualifying examination) and gain a certain score in order to be appointed. After being appointed the novice teacher is placed under the supervision of an experienced teacher in her/his first year of employment. In Australia, under the Victorian 'Induction and Mentoring of Beginning Teachers' policy, new graduates (if employed in a school) are required to participate in the 'Provisionally Registered Teachers Program' where they are mentored for 12 months and at the end of this period they have to present evidence of their competence which must meet the Standards of Professional Practice (Devos 2010). As can be seen from the examples, the novice teacher even after graduation has a mentor and is supervised to see whether they meet national standards.

"Mentoring for teachers' professional development has been touted as the pinnacle of good professional practice, especially in guiding beginning teachers in their first year of full-time employment (Guarino, Santibanez, Daley, & Brewer, 2004, as cited in Long, 2009). Another important finding is that of Bobek (2002) who has pointed out that

building relationships, including mentoring programs and support, is one the five major reasons for teachers to continue to work in the field of teaching. Also, as Long (2009) demonstrates, mentoring is such a factor that at times when it is not conducted professionally it can contribute to reasons for beginning teachers to leave the profession. Furthermore, as the Alliance for Excellence in Education Report (2005) into teacher attrition in the USA found 'new teachers are given little professional support, feedback, or demonstration of what it takes to help their students succeed' (p.2, as cited in Long, 2009, p.319). When there is insufficient mentoring, novice or candidate teachers face the challenge of 'sink or swim' with no-one to throw them a rescue float (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). Then, it can be claimed that critical observations and constructive feedback of the mentoring processes conducted before and after graduation are imperative for the preparation of the teacher to be qualified and effective in their professions.

In regard to the relationship between professionalization of teaching and mentoring, in order for teacher candidates and mentors to reach policies meeting the standards of becoming an effective teacher, the comments in closing can be regarded as a proposal for further research in this area.

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire -Mentor Feedback (to be filled in by teacher candidates)
1= Strongly disagree 2 = Mildly disagree 3 = Neutral 4=Mildly agree 5 = Strongly agree

(Please tick one box only for each statement)	1	2	3	4	5
1- My mentor respects and is tolerant of the individual differences of the teacher trainees.					
2- My mentor acknowledges and works through conflicts openly with me.					
3- My teacher works for consensus on decisions with me.					
4- My mentor shares openly my personal feelings and opinions about the teaching situation.					
5- My mentor trusts, supports and has genuine concern for my development.					
6- My mentor checks for my comprehension of the verbal messages.					
7- The tone of voice of my mentor makes me feel inferior.					
8- My mentor evaluates the effectiveness of the task and processes that I perform.					
9- My mentor assists me in developing my personal skills in planning.					
10- When giving me feedback my teacher first praises me.					
11- I can overcome, on my own, the unexpected difficulties that arise in the classroom.					
12- My mentor encourages my usage of various classroom tools and materials.					
13- Before giving feedback my mentor asks me to self-assess first.					
14- When giving me feedback my mentor criticizes my teaching.					
15- When there is conflict between the students and myself, my mentor handles the situation.					
16- My mentor limits what s/he is covering when giving feedback.					
17- My mentor concentrates on what I can change for the better in the teaching practice.					
18- My mentor develops my awareness of the tools and material which can be used in the activities.					
19- When giving feedback my mentor comments on specific behaviors and achievements.					
20- When giving feedback my mentor gives me general comments.					
21- While I am getting feedback from my mentor, I feel accused of my teaching practice.					
22- While giving feedback my mentor gives me time to think and respond.					

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Iranian Students' Recognition of Derived Nouns: Do Students Deal with Words as Entire Units Directly or through a Process of Word Building Strategy?

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***Abstract*—The study presented in this article deals with the use of word-building strategy, one which helps EFL students' skill of word recognition. There are two observable strategies which are usually employed in working out the meaning of unknown words: The direct method refers to students' general attempt to learn vocabulary items without any conscious attention to the internal structure of the word. The second which is a word building process relies on the ability to work out the meaning of the item by analyzing the constituent parts of the word. The effect of each strategy could by subject to controversy. Is it the word building processes which might be used as a major strategy or is it dealing with words as entire units without attending to the parts? Thirty under-graduate students majoring in TEFL at Islamic Azad University, Najafabad Branch, participated in a task involving them in finding translation equivalents of lexical items presented to them in two translation tasks which required them to give the Persian (L1) translations for English words (L2). The words given to them in the tow tasks included both stem words as well as derived words. An Interview was run to get information about how the participants recognized the meaning of the words which were given to them to translate. The results of our comparison of the data showed that few students out of the entire population seemed to have and employ word-building knowledge. The majority did not use word-building knowledge in recognizing derived words; they favored an approach which involved attention to the whole unit. Students' word recognition was the found to be the consequence of frequency of exposure rather than knowledge of parts. Explanations are introduced for why EFL participants prefer to expand their vocabulary knowledge without much relying on derivations information available to them.**

***Index Terms*—word-building strategy, word recognition, derived words**

I. Introduction

Studying another language entails having a good knowledge of vocabulary which is crucial for second/foreign language (L2) students, and its mastery is considered an indispensable tool of L2 learning. Wilkins (1972) states that, "Without grammar, very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (p.150).

Many linguists, then, endeavored to established a frame in order to explain what knowledge language learners should have for knowing a word completely, both receptively and productively (e.g., Richards, 1976; Nation, 1990, 2001). Vocabulary knowledge includes many components among which the spoken form, the written form, the grammatical behavior, and the collocational behavior of a word; how frequent the word is, the stylistic register constraints of a word, the conceptual meaning of a word, and the association of word with other related words can be named as the most important ones. Carter (1998) noted that word knowledge means "knowing how to use it productively and having the ability to recall it for active use" (p.239). This study searched one dimension, the knowledge of derivational morphology, which is a part of grammatical knowledge.

One of the important sources of learning for student at university is written texts (Mori & Nagy, 1999). It is vital for the students to be capable to read English texts–especially academic texts. Thus, Iranian university students should know as much academic vocabulary as possible in order to assist them in reading academic texts.

The Report of the National Reading Panel (2000), for example, concluded, "The importance of vocabulary knowledge has long been recognized in the development of reading skills. As early as 1924, researchers noted that growth in reading power relies on continuous growth in word knowledge" (p. 4).

Problems could happen when students decide to read a text with low vocabulary knowledge. As stated by Levine and Reves (1998) "lack of adequate vocabulary is one of the obstacles to text comprehension" (p. 302). Although many learning strategies, such as rote memorization, mnemonic devices, key word technique, inferring meaning from glosses, and guessing meaning from context, are introduced in order to help L2 students acquire words, L2 students still have reading problems when encountering texts outside the class. Motivating students to infer or find the meaning of the unknown words from the text without direct instruction is a remedy in overcoming the problems of comprehending a text outside the classroom.

As it was mentioned, one of the effective strategies to deal with unknown words in reading is to guess the meaning from the context. Students use the information in the context to guess the meaning of the unknown words in order to comprehend the L2 texts. However, there are some weak points concerning this method as a vocabulary learning strategy. Nation (2001, 2005) mentions several weak points of supposing from context as follows: it is based on the idea of incidental learning; that is, students are supposed to learn new words through an attempt to comprehend the text, not to learn and define only the unknown word. Nation (2001) hesitates that incidental learning is a useful way to acquire vocabulary.

Another problem in this domain is that the students need clues–namely linguistic clues such as the part of speech of word and the conjunction relationships and background knowledge clues. On the other hand, inferring the meaning of an unknown word from its word parts, which was under inquiry in this study, does not have to depend so much on the understanding of the context.

This study focused on the strategy of using word parts to infer the meaning of a whole word. In this study the researchers call this strategy as "word building". The impact of word parts and word families is often discussed at the same time. Bauer and Notion (1993) believe learners require less effort in learning new words that include parts which the learners are familiar with and then they can guess the meaning.

The knowledge of word parts and word families may have two positive influences: one is for remembering words, and the other is for inferring the meaning of words in their reading. As to the first influence, according to Nation (2001, 2005), students can learn unknown words if they recognize the word parts then make use of each part to understand the meaning of the whole.

II. Literature Review

Students usually use word-building strategy when they recognize the words (in case the new word consists of stem, which is a free or bound form, and affixes, which are prefixes and/or suffixes). Then, the students use the information from the headword (stem) and affix (es) to infer the meaning of the whole word (relate the meaning of each word part in order to infer the meaning of the whole word). The knowledge of word parts is claimed to make easy the recognition of the words with the same stem (Schmitt, 2000; Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002). Schmitt and McCarthy (1997, p. 277) mention that knowing of how words are made up "can help students to have at least a receptive knowledge" of the words in the same family. Nattinger (1988, p. 69) states that the impact of word parts is such that: "many words built about a particular root are gathered so that the associations among them can be seen. Even though the meanings of these words maybe slightly different, clustering them will aid students in remembering their general meaning". Inferring meaning from word parts, therefore, becomes a strategy for vocabulary learning since it makes learning more successful and decreases the difficulty in vocabulary learning.

Moreover, word-building strategy has an impact on students' reading. The ability to recognize the meaning after seeing the word parts facilitates reading comprehension (Richard & Schmidt, 2002). Paribakht (2004) mentions that L2 students use the grammatical knowledge of inflections and derivations to attack the unknown L2 words in their reading. Schmitt and Meara's (1997) study showed the results that their participants' suffix knowledge was poor. They were Japanese students whose major English. As a group, the participants showed 62-66% achievement (with 57% mastery of inflection on the receptive section); on the productive section, they mastered 59% of inflection and 15% of derivation. The top four verbal suffixes given to the participants were three inflections (-ed, -ing and -s) and a derivation (-ment). Schmitt and Meara (1997) explained that the difference between the inflection and derivation scores was because inflections are more rule-based (for example, students know that inflectional suffixes in the tests can be added to verbs). On the contrary, derivations in the study needed idiosyncratic knowledge (Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002). This means students need to memorize L2 derived words because there is no principal way to recognize or recall the tested word from its word parts. In this case, the students could not make much use of the patterns of word formation. The study by Schmitt and Zimmerman's (2002) researched the suffix knowledge with different word classes such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

The results showed that students could produce around 37.6 words out of maximum possible of 64 words or around 58.8%. That was from the four word classes used in the study–nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs–students produced only two word classes. The two word classes were nouns and verbs. While students as a group produced appropriate noun and verb forms of the headword, they could not produce appropriate forms for adjective and adverb. If the word

family was being used here, then students should be able to make use of word parts and produced all word classes. However, the results were against the idea that knowing one word in a family helps students to know other words in the same family. The researchers assumed that knowing some words in a family did not "imply productive knowledge of all (or even most) of the other word forms" (Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002, p. 158).

III. Objective of the Study: Word-building

The purpose of the present study was to investigate Iranian learners' knowledge regarding word-building. By word-building it means using morphological analysis of words for the purpose of learning, understanding, or remembering what they mean– what Nation (2001, p. 278) refers to as the ''word part strategy for learning complex new words".

IV. Research Question

The following question was raised in this study:

Do Iranian students recognize derived nouns directly or through a process of word-building?

V. Research Hypothesis

The present study tried to investigate the following null hypothesis.

Ho: There is no difference between the direct and word-building strategies of derived nouns recognition by Iranian students.

VI. Significance of the Study

Many high school and university textbooks have exercises based on the idea that word-building is a practical and useful strategy for high school and university students. Thus, exploring the current status of whether Iranian students recognize derived nouns directly or through a process of word-building helps English teachers understand whether or not word part strategy plays a role in students' recognition of second language vocabulary. The knowledge of suffixes also relates to the students' reading skill since it helps students expand their vocabulary. Moreover, this study helps English teachers in making decisions about vocabulary presentation, practice, and testing. This research will help other researchers who are interested in analyzing affixation.

VII. Methodology

A. Participants

At the first attempt, the participants of this study, who were selected randomly, were 40 male and female, undergraduate students, majoring in English teaching, studying at Islamic Azad University, Najafabad Branch, Esfahan, Iran. The researchers excluded 10 students who just took part in one test, so the information finally came from 30 students who took part in both translation tests. All the subjects were students of the Linguistics 2 course. The rationale behind selecting these students was to include those students who had, at least, passed their special course, Linguistic 1, and therefore had been familiar with the affixation and the process of word-building; in this way, reliable results as well as more meaningful conclusions would be obtained.

B. Data Collection Instruments

The necessary data in this study were collected through two translation tests and an interview which are described in the following sections.

1. Translation Tests

Participants were given two vocabulary tests, one week apart. Test 1 asked the participants to translate 32 words, included 16 derived words such as *assignment, exporter, complexity*, and *indication* and 16 headwords such as, *achieve*, *lecture*, *secure and violate* representing 32 different families. In test 2 the head words and derived words were reversed, it means that head words were changed to derived words and vice versa; 16 head words such as *assign, export, complex, indicate,* and *assess* and 16 derived words such as *achievement, lecturer, security* and *violation.* For example, if in the first week *assignment,* in the second *assign.* The translation from English (L2) to Persian (L1) was used to assess the students' receptive knowledge (see Appendix A).

For the test, the word families were chosen from Academic Word List (AWL). More than 82% of the words in the AWL "are of Greek and Latin origin" (Coxhead, 2000, pp. 228-229), making the list a prime source for words requiring morphological analysis.

Regarding the affixes used in the test, Bauer and Nation (1993) graded affixes for purposes of teaching and learning into seven levels, based on various criteria which may roughly be summarized according to ease of learning and frequency of occurrence. At level 1 all word types were treated as separate. At level 2 one finds inflectional affixes like -ing and -s, which are very common (Nation, 2001, p. 265) and (being strictly rule-based) presumed learnable. At level 3, with the introduction of derivational affixes, one finds (among others) the affixes -able, -less, -er and –ness. At level 4 -tion, -ity, -al, -ful and –ment can be found. Levels 5 to 7 comprise the levels of suffixes that are regular but

infrequent, or frequent but irregular and classical roots and suffixes, and are not chosen because the rules of building words may be too complex for the students. From these supposedly easier and demonstrably frequent suffixes the researchers chose -tion, -er, -ity and -ment for investigation; if the learners were word-builders, it is relatively likely that these suffixes will be in their repertoire.

2. Interview

An interview was run for two purposes: first, to check the reliability of the students' responses in the two translation tests, and second, to find more information about the students' use of word-building strategy to recognize derived words. The interview was conducted both in English and Persian and tape-recorded by the researchers, and then the responses in the interview were transcribed (see Appendix B)**.**

VIII. Procedure

The students were tested through two translation tests a week apart, so that the students' responses in the first test did not affect the second test. The researchers gave the first test to the students in the first week without informing them about the second test in the following week. The instruction of the test was given in Persian by the researchers in order to ensure that the students understood how to carry out the test. Each test had a list of headwords and derived words, so students had to translate 32 words from L2 to L1 within 14 minutes.

IX. Data Analysis

To analyze, both qualitatively and quantitatively, the data obtained through administering the translation tests and the interview, the followings were done:

1. Cronbach Alpha was used for estimating the reliability between the two translation tests,
2. descriptive statistics were calculated for the tests to see the minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation of the tests,
3. inferential statistics, that is, paired-samples t-test, was used to compare the results of the two tests.

The responses in the interview may give information about how the subjects recognized the tested words

X. Results

The two translation tests were estimated for the reliability through Cronbach's Alpha Cronbach's Alpha; the values of two tests were 0.754 and 0.785 respectively, which indicated high reliability. The results of the two translation tests were scored as 1 for correct responses and 0 for non-responses and incorrect responses. The total scores of tests 1 and 2 were compared using paired-sample *t*-test in order to see if they were different. The t-value showed that there was not a significant difference between two tests ($t = .789$, $p > .001$). The figures indicate no significant difference between the mean of test 2 (Mean = 14.20, SD = 5.162) and test 1 (Mean = 14.03, SD = 4.620). This means that students did not translate words in test 2 better than test 1 or vice versa.

Table 1 gives the participants' percentage knowledge of each noun suffix

TABLE1.
PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS' KNOWLEDGE OF EACH NOUN SUFFIX

Level	-tion	%	-er	%	-ment	%	-ity	%
1. Both	78	32.5	62	25.83	48	20	67	27.92
2. head word (HW) only	55	22.196	13	5.42	24	10	51	21.25
3. derived word (DW) only	51	21.25	71	29.58	53	22.08	27	11.25
4. None	56	23.33	94	39.167	115	47.92	95	39.58
Total	240	100	240	100	240	100	240	100

Recalling that each participant translated 8 word pairs (e.g., equip/equipment) for each suffix; there were thus 240 (8 ×30) responses for each suffix type. The above table shows the percentage of responses at each level–level 1 showing the knowledge of both forms and thus the possibility of word-building to take place; level 2 and 3 showing the knowledge of either one or the other, but not both, of the forms, indicating an absence of word-building; and level 4 showing the knowledge of neither form, and thus the impossibility of word-building.

XI. Discussion

The results are discussed in the following parts with regard to the research question "do students recognize derived forms directly or through a process of word- building?" The results contradict the assumption that knowledge of headwords implies knowledge of word families, at least with students from Persian L1 backgrounds.

Table 2 below compares the number of level 1 responses with the combined total of level 2 and 3 responses, for this group of participants. Remember that condition 1 shows that participants might be word-builder, conditions 2 and 3 that they are not. In the majority of cases participants demonstrated word-building skills far less often than the opposite.

TABLE 2.
STUDENTS' LEVEL 1 RESPONSES VS. LEVEL2/3 RESPONSES

Affixes	Level 1	Level 1+2
-tion	32.5	43.446
-er	25.83	35
-ment	20	32.08
-ity	27.92	32.5

Considering the percentages of levels 2 and 3, which are much higher than level 1, it is shown that in most cases this group of students did not understand these suffixes. Instead, they understood individual words (not word families).

However, from examining each word family (from two translation tests) there were six word families (pairs) that students' responses in level 1 were greater than levels 2 + 3. They were 'select/selection', 'define/definition', 'design/designer', 'publish/publisher', 'similar/similarity', and 'establish/ establishment'.

The percentage of level 1 for 'select/selection' (70%) is greater than the sum of levels 2 and 3 (26.6%), and level 1 for 'define/definition' (53.33) is greater than the sum of levels 2 and 3 (30.04%).

The percentage of level 1 of 'design/designer' and 'publish' and 'publisher' (53.33%) is greater than the sum of levels 2 and 3 (36.67%).

The percentage of level 1 of 'similar/similarity' (56.67%) is greater than the sum of levels 2 and 3 (36.73%).

The percentage of level 1 of 'establish/establishment' (23.33%) is greater than the sum of levels 2 and 3 (10.07%).

These twelve words– select/selection', 'define/definition', 'design/designer', 'publish/publisher', 'similar/similarity', and 'establish/ establishment'– might have affected the total scores of the suffixes– -tion, -er, -ity, and -ment– to reach 32.5%, 25.83%, 23.75%, and 13.75% respectively.

After examining each word family (pair), the researchers also checked each participant's answer sheets to see whether any participant tended to use word-building strategy or not. They also checked each suffix type and counted how many word families (pairs) that student answered/translated. Since there is no previous study to refer to for the purposes of discussion, students were considered to be a word-builder if they could answer headword and its derived word for at least half of all word families in the same suffix. Thus, a highly tentative assumption was made that students who got 50% of all words (or at least 4 out of 8 word families or pairs) were word-builders.

Based on the examination, there were only 12 participants (out of 30) who could be considered word-builders; students 1, 8, 10, 13, 19, 20 were the seven students who may have used word-building strategy to recognize the meaning of derivative form -tion; six other students– students 1, 4, 8, 14, 19 and 20– may have used word-building strategy to recognize the meaning of derivative form -er; five other students– students 1, 8, 19, 20, and 21– may have used word-building strategy to recognize the meaning of derivative form -ment; and seven other students– students 1, 8, 10, 21, 22, 23 and 24 may have used word-building strategy to recognize the meaning of derivative form -ity. This information is tabulated in Table 3 below.

TABLE 3.
PARTICIPANTS WHO COULD BE CONSIDERED WORD-BUILDERS

Name	Suffix -tion	Suffix -er	Suffix -ment	Suffix -ity
Student 1	predict, select, define, and estimate	export, consume, publish, publisher	invest, require, establish, adjust, equip	complex, secure, capable, similar
Student 4		publish, design, research, consume		
Student 8	select, predict, indicate, and construct.	design, publish, export, consume	adjust, establish, require, achieve, invest, equip	complex, secure, similar, capable
Student 10	predict, estimate, select, and define			complex, valid, similar, flexible
Student 13	select, create, predict, estimate			
Student 14		design, publish, research, consume		
Student 17		publish, design, consume, export		
Student 19	select, predict, estimate, and construct	research, export, design, publish	invest, adjust, establish, require	
Student 20	define, construct, predict, estimate, select, create	challenge, publish, design, export, occupy, consume	achieve, invest, assign, adjust, establish, require	similar, flexible, capable, valid, secure, complex, intense
Student 21		consume, export, challenge, publish	achieve, equip, adjust, establish	capability, similar, flexible, secure
Student 22				complex, similar, capable, valid
Student 24				secure, complex, capable, valid, similar

The results show that the students have some word-building knowledge, but most of them use direct method and not word-building strategy to find the meaning of the tested words. Therefore, the null hypothesis of the research stating that "there is no difference between the direct and word-building process of derived nouns recognition by Iranian students" can be rejected.

However, the result of this study is consistent with the previous study by Schmitt and Zimmerman's (2002, p. 158), who assumed that knowing some words in a word family did not "imply productive knowledge of all (or even most) of the other word forms", and Paribakht (2004), who studied the role of morphology in second language lexical processing which, later, led to vocabulary acquisition. She aimed to find strategies learners used to construct the meaning of unknown words in their reading. Paribakht's (2004) results showed that students saw parts in a word–both inflection and derivation, they could not give the meaning or re-express the meaning of the whole word from word parts they saw. This showed that, in fact, students did not have knowledge of word morphology. They could not make use of parts in a word. The results only showed that students might have some background about word morphology (or in the present study called word-building knowledge). This showed that word-building did not lead to vocabulary learning and did not promote comprehension in reading.

In term of learning, the question arises why -er and -tion showed above half, but it is not true with the suffixes -ity and -ment. The evidence in this study is insufficient for any firm conclusion, but a tentative explanation may be offered. Following Bybee (Bybee, 1995, 2006) it can be assumed, for the sake of this argument, that input frequency is a significant factor in L2 as in L1 acquisition. Bybee (2005, p. 6) suggests that "words with derivational affixes become less transparently related to their base forms as they become more frequent". The derived words which are accessed more by the students have a chance to be stored in brain as unanalyzed units. The case does not happen only to learners who study English as a second or foreign language, but the native speaker also (Nation, 2001). Native speaker children do not pay attention to the history of word or the derivation but they are concerned with the obvious meaning of word. Moreover, the frequency of use is different in each student because they encountered different words in their lives.

Besides the frequency of use, there are other reasons to support that some students did not very well succeed in using this strategy. First, it is possible that some students become less accurate in using word-building strategy because they do not use the strategy in their language learning. Cohen (1987) mentions that when language learners are away from using a strategy, they tend to become less accurate in using the strategy as well.

Another reason is that some students misunderstood what suffixes do. Although the students recognized that suffixes were used in the tests to make noun, they did not relate the meaning of the nouns to the meaning of the headwords; knowing the meaning of *assignment*, however, does not mean knowing *assign* and suffix *–ment*, but it is because suffix *-ment* makes a noun and the student tried to guess which Persian word is likely to be the correct meaning of Assignment. It did not mean that she/he had to re-express the meaning from *assign + ment* (the case of Student)].

This result is against the results from Mochizuki and Aizawa's (2000) study. It argues that knowing word class does not indicate students' affix knowledge. Although the words in this study were high-frequency words from the AWL, they were not very frequent to some students. Students might have encountered some other words which might not exist in the AWL. In turn, students had less exposure to academic textbooks. Of course, it is possible that they had some problems in their academic reading since they had little knowledge of academic words and about the below-average word-building knowledge. For this reason, the derived words that some students answered in this study might not be because of word-building knowledge but the recognition of as unanalyzed word which students encounter often in their daily life. This result also refers to the students' response in the interview. It argues that the students convinced the researcher that they had word-building knowledge. In fact, from both translation tests and the interview, some could answer only one headword or derived word. Although the interviewed students tried to show positive thinking towards word-building, they did not show evidence that the word parts are useful to them. Students answered some of the derived words although the words were semantically transparent (the meaning of word was clear from the parts).

XII. Conclusion

The process of dividing up words to make easy the understanding or learning of a text is a strategy which is based on a complicated analysis derived from the knowledge of classical or Latinate language. This way of dealing with the comprehension of a text seems to provide a suitable shortcut to vocabulary learning. However the results obtained from the present study suggested otherwise. This contradiction may be because the uninitiated morphological analysis involves using a whole system of unfamiliar rules. This process has connotations for both word family usage and acquisition or teaching of complex words.

One of the factors which appears to influence students' word recognition might be the frequency of the words students usually find in their daily lives which are not only headwords but word derivations as well. The participants in this study recognized frequent words and some other words associating these frequent words in inferring other words with the same stem.

Appendix A Tested words

Test 1	Test 1	Test 2	Test 2
Head words	Derived words	Head words	Derived words
Design	Challenger	Challenge	Designer
Lecture	Exporter	Export	Lecturer
Publish	Occupier	Occupy	Publisher
Consume	Researcher	Research	Consumer
Equip	Assignment	Assign	Equipment
Require	Achievement	Achieve	Requirement
Invest	Assessment	Assess	Investment
Establish	Adjustment	Adjust	Establishment
Violate	Prediction	Predict	Violation
Estimate	Creation	Create	Estimation
Select	Construction	Construct	Selection
Define	Indication	Indicate	Definition
Secure	Complexity	Complex	Security
Similar	Intensity	Intense	Similarity
Capable	Diversity	Diverse	Capability
Flexible	Validity	Valid	Flexibility

APPENDIX B

The Interview Questions for Iranian Learners

1. After reading word carefully, can you please give the meaning of words in Persian again?
2. Are there any parts in the word that help you to recognize its meaning?
3. Do you think the suffixes-ment,- tion ,-ity ,-er have any meaning? If yes, what are they? Do you know how to use such suffixes? (Words which will be asked in the interview questions 1-3 are different in each subject depend on what they can answer in the translation tests.)
4. Please rank vocabulary strategies that you use (put 1 for strategy which you usually use, then 2, 3 up to 7 for the strategy that you rarely use).

vocabulary Strategies	**Rank**
word list	
synonym & antonym	
mnemonic technique (sound similarity to Persian)	
mnemonic (pictures)	
word parts	
context clues	
others	

5. Have you looked up the meaning of words in the first test in the dictionary? If yes, how many of them?

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Woman Subculture Development Seen from Woman Language

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***Abstract*—The woman subculture study is widely conducted through several decades since the beginning of the second wave feminist movement in 1960s. This paper intends to explain the woman subculture development in view of the woman language. First, it gives the definition of subculture. Second, it explains why woman culture is considered as a subculture. Third, with reference to sociolinguistic studies of woman language, it offers further clarification of some important feminist theories like gendered knowledge, standpoint theory and muted group theory. Also some key conceptions which are closely tied to woman subculture are expounded through the analysis of woman language. Last, the paper explains how woman subculture is transmitted through feminist theories and literary criticism works and how it is divided into three phases.**

***Index Terms*—woman subculture, woman stereotype, gender role, woman language**

I. Definition of Subculture

Subculture is defined as a subdivision within the dominant culture that has its own norms, values and belief system. Riesman (1950) defines it as a culture or set of people with distinct behaviour and belief within a larger culture.

Subcultures emerge when individuals in similar circumstances find themselves virtually isolated or neglected by mainstream society. Thus they group together for mutual support. It exists within the larger society, but apart from it. The members of the subculture are different from the dominant culture. A culture often contains numerous subcultures which incorporates large parts of their mother culture, but in specifics, they may differ radically. Some subcultures achieve such a status that they acquire a name of their own.

II. Woman Subculture

Women, as a marginalized group in society, are displaced by the mainstream culture. This can easily be perceived through every part of our life ranging from politics, economy, and culture to family life. Linguistically speaking, there are numerous derogative terms describing women. Culturally, stories about women's degeneration are prevalent both in the east and west. Even great philosophers and thinkers hold negative opinions on them. Their voices are silenced by various taboos imposed on them and they have to employ "*back channel*" to communicate with each other, which is reckoned as euphemism. Woman subculture comparatively differs from other subcultures (punk subculture, hippie subculture, youth subculture) in the notion that it is closely interconnected with gender.

A. Theories Related to Woman Subculture

There's a perception in recent years that woman subculture is closely tied to some important feminist theories like *gendered knowledge and muted group theory.* Without the further clarification of these theories, it would be impossible to analyse woman subculture.

These theories which are of great relevance to woman subculture are found in an article in Time Magazine, *The Real Truth About the Female Body*.

First one is theory of *gendered knowledge*. It maintains that men and women have access to different phenomenological knowledge, that is, knowledge, know-how and personal knowledge of others, by virtue of their gender and they also tend to represent the world in different terms, by virtual of their gendered interests, attitudes, emotions and values and perhaps also by virtue of different cognitive styles. The differences are also informed by the constructions, institutions and exercises of power in society. It's possible to mystify the study of gendered knowledge by treating gender as the only category of discrimination and difference---by ignoring the way class, race and other socially-produced categories impact on access to knowledge, goods and power, on self-perception, on the formation and possibilities of the self as internally realized and as socially empowered or disempowered.

The second one is muted group theory. It grows out of ethnology, the study of cultures, and the observation that marginalized groups (a) do not to have a voice in the culture---not only do they not have a say explicitly, but in fact are silenced, do not have the right to speak and (b) these groups tend to develop alternative ways of communicating, what is sometimes called "back-channel" communication, as the slaves in North American developed an elaborate communication code through which they were able to communicate right in front of the master's eyes without being

aware of what meanings were being made.

The general claim of muted group theory is amply supported in studies in socio-linguistics. In the mid 70s, Robin Lakeoff theorized that there was such a thing as "women's speech" in that women tended to interrupt less, to speak with less certainty using hedges (*I myself think that*) and tags (*don't you think*), and to speak less and with less authority. Subsequent research has proved that this speech style exists. Not only women speak it, but also men from marginalized situations-- the poor, the powerless.

In the realm of gender, as well, the territory of human life has been divided into "the external world" and "the domestic world", which women having speech rights in one but not in the other. Women tend to speak or have spoken with reference to one realm of this divided experience, men another.

So Muted Group Theory predicts that the marginalized will not have the rights of public speaking and will be silenced in the public realm, but that they will develop back-channel, in-group speech which will be decoded by their own members but not by the dominant group--unless they listen very carefully, knowing what they're listening for.

B. Some Key Conceptions Relating to Woman Subculture

Woman Stereotype

Woman stereotype is a key conception in understanding woman subculture; it also provides a guide to the deep analysis of woman studies. Woman stereotype is the traditional and universally accepted image that has been long and deeply rooted in people's mind.

Woman stereotype is closely interwoven into the social conventions and social norms that have been formalized since the primary societies. The ideology of the mainstream society, women's involvement in the public and private realm as well as the media-presentation--all these external factors contributed to the formation and consolidification of women imagine and women stereotype.

Besides these external factors, some internal factors such as woman psychology have to be taken into account. Men and women grow up in different cultures. From childhood, girls are told by their parents to behave like ladies. There're many rules and restrictions imposed upon them such as the way they speak, dress and so on. The little girl from early age has become conscious of what a good girl should be like although she doesn't know the conception of "woman stereotype". In people's eyes, woman should be attractive, docile and compliant. More importantly, women should be very polite, because they are the preservers of morality and civility. They should stay at home and take on the supportive and caring role as wives and mothers.

In a research done by Bennet & Sandra. K on stereotyped images of women, a list of the images of women is taken from examples of high school literature. It is discovered that the woman's role is defined strictly within the home and childbearing and the high school literature usually portray women as passive and subordinate. The male gender role stereotype, on the other hand, is very active and aggressive.

This woman stereotype also can be easily seen in English language. The most vital and influential professions, when they are used for woman, will plus the word "woman", for example, *woman doctor, woman professor, woman president*. It's common to say *Mary is John's widow*. However, *John is Mary's widower* is hardly used. In the first sentence, there is an implication that though John is dead, Mary is still defined by her relationship to him. The inappropriateness of second sentence is that when Mary is gone, her function for her husband John is over.

Once again, it can be seen that women are always defined in term of men and given their identities in our society by virtue of their relationship with men, not vice versa. Consequently, both the way women are spoken about and the way women speak can be traced back into the woman stereotype that is deeply set in the society. By drawing comparisons between men and women's ethical sense, Carol Gilliglan (1993) in her book *A Different Voice* gives a clear conception of woman stereotype. In this book, Carol draws a clearline between man and woman's certain behaviours. However, both extreme positions are rarely found in reality. Actual behaviour of individuals is somewhere between these poles. The most common "model" followed in real life is the "model of double burden".(p,42) According to the interactionist approach, roles (including gender) are not fixed, but are constantly negotiated between individuals. Gender role can influence all kinds of behaviour, such as choice of work, personal relationship and of course the way men and women speak.

Also Tannen (1994) suggests that the two sexes have very different modes of communication, and she suggests that in fact communication between man and woman ought to be viewed as inter-cultural communication. She also has given set of differentiations: (1) Men live in a world of hierarchy; women live in a world of connection. (2) Men require independence; women require intimacy. (3) Men live in a world of action; women live in a world of feeling.(p,67)

The issue Tannen tries to address is that sometimes women and men don't understand each other because they come from different cultures. These findings on gender stereotypes offer a great help to them for understanding each other and thus enhance their relationship.

Women are not only biologically constructed but socially constructed as well. Hence, evaluating not only the persuasive power of the stereotype but also its use as an analytical tool is one of the recognized insights of feminist linguistic research.

Gender Role

Another key conception that helps to better perceive woman subculture is gender role. It's generally believed that gender and sex are the same thing. However, they're essentially not the same. Gender is defined from social viewpoint,

while sex is defined biologically. When we mention woman subculture, it would be essential to have some ideas about gender role under whose framework women function in a society.

In the social sciences and humanities, a gender role is a set of behavioural norms associated with a given gendered status (also called *gendered identity*) in a given social group or system. J.B Pride (1986)says Gender is one component of the gender/sex system, which refers to "the set of arrangement by which a society transforms biological sexuality into products of human activity and in which these transformed needs are satisfied" (p,248) Every known society has a gender/sex system, although the components and working of this system vary widely from society to society.

In many ways, gender identity and roles function as any other social identity and role. Every known human society presents individuals with a set of statuses by which members of the society identity themselves and one another. Such statuses may be assigned to an individual automatically, based on the status of his or her parents; or based on some physical characters that are called "ascribed". Other statuses may be "achieved", based on the activities and accomplishments of an individual.

Some scientists used to believe that gender was universally ascribed, today most people recognize that elements of gender can be achieved. In either case, gender, like any other role, involves socially proscribed and prescribed behaviours, which may take the form of rules or values. However, such rules and values don't determine or control an individual's behaviours absolutely. In most cases, they define boundaries of acceptable behaviour within which there is always variation and room for individual creativity. Most researchers recognize that the concrete behaviour of individuals is a consequence of socially defined rules and values, and individual disposition, whether they are genetic, unconscious or conscious. Although some researchers emphasize the objective social system, and others emphasize subjective orientations and dispositions.

It has long been recognized that cultures and societies are dynamic and changeable, there have been extensive debates as to how, and how fast, they may change. Such debates are especially intense when they involve the gender/sex system, as people have widely different views about the extent to which gender depends on biological sex.

Working in the United States, Talcott Parsons developed a model of the nuclear family in 1955. It compared a strictly traditional view of gender roles to a more liberal view. Parsons [58] believed that the feminine role was an expressive one, whereas the masculine role, in his view, was instrumental. He believed that expressive activities of the woman fulfill "internal" functions, for example to strengthen the ties between members of the family. The man, on the other hand, performed the "external" functions of a family, such as providing monetary support. *The Parsons model* was used to contrast and illustrate extreme positions on gender roles.

III. Woman Subculture Development

A. The Transmission of Woman Subculture

As illustrated in the previous part, woman subculture is created in part by male dominance and the exclusion of women from certain realms: they had been oppressed, reflected and devalued for centuries. Their voices couldn't be recognized and accepted by mainstream society. Consequently, they group together to offer mutual help. However, woman subculture is unique in its own way in that its development helps the development of the whole female social construction: their psychological, societal economic and political demands have been voiced. Woman subculture is incorporated into all aspects of women life: economy, politics, literature, history, living style and so on. Today, for the increasing awareness of women's existence and women's power, both official and unofficial means ranging from policy institution, social activities to medial representation are adopted to promote a positive and healthy woman image and this helps to develop woman culture. The mass media, newspapers, magazines and TV have played a dominant role in assisting the formation and rapid development of woman subculture.

It has been noted long time ago that women have been participating actively and enthusiastically in the media realm. They work as journalists, editors, anchorpersons, guest speakers, interviewers and so on. They try to unfold and recount their experiences as wives and successful career women. These experiences include what their emotional life is like; how they balance their role in the private and public arena; what difficulties they have encountered during the process of pursuing their goals; how they look at some controversial issues in the society. The ways they tell as well as the expressions they employ suggest, to a certain extent, women's independence from men in terms of text and textuality. This could be an obvious indicator of women's effort to try to establish their own discourse, which in the past, never existed in the male-dominated world. Till now this effort has received more widespread attention.

In the second wave and third wave feminist linguistics, the establishment and development of women's discourse right had already been to put to agenda. In support of this big plan, feminists, sociologists as well as social linguists corporate to reform some feminist and linguistic theories in order to explicitly interpreted female culture.

Although there is the idea in 1990s in academic circle that the concept of women's culture is no longer used, in the early 1980s, the concept of women's culture flared briefly in scholarly studies of women. Ironically, shortly after academics abandoned the concept of women's culture, there came the best sellers "*Men are from Mars, women are from Venus*" by John Gray. He proposes that men and women are so different from one another that they virtually come from different planets. It also became popular in everyday conversation for the idea of culture to be used all the time, and it ultimately became popular discourse to use words such as black culture and culture shock. Later, Lebsock (1992) herself had to admit that some notion of women's culture could again be useful to historians, especially if we think in

terms of women's cultures. So the important differences among women could be taken into account as well as what they may have in common.

One of the reasons the concept of women's culture was caught onto women scholars in the 1980s was the hope that empowering women would be transformational, that as women gained power, they would bring more humane values into power structure of the world. The need for the transformation--working towards human values--is just important as ever." (p,105)

In the literature field, women writers like Virginia Woolf (1929) calls for the culture revolution among women. In her work "*A Room of One's Own*" she writes: "*We won't be able to define the difference until women will express themselves in every field of the human activity as fulfilled subjects.*"(p,103) In other words, woman literature provides good tools for the study of woman subculture. Through literature language, female writers sublimate woman's life and experiences into an art. Looking back at literature history, though many male writers created successful women imagines: Portia in *Merchant of Venice*; Cleopatria in *Anthony and Cleopatria*; Tess in *Tess of Derberville*, yet, no male writers would describe female psychology and experiences as well as female themselves do. One of reasons might be that men always look at women from men's viewpoint. They tend to trust their intuitions about women which in most cases prove wrong. When Pope thinks that Clarissa's genteel response to the outrage against Belinda is more acceptable than Belinda's quite understandable outrage, both at the act of violence against her and at her powerlessness, women want to point out that the model of woman that pope is constructed is one that is ideally suited to serve male ends.

Showalter (1992) also gives a brief example of the work written by Hardy "*The Mayor of Casterbridge*". She argues that this piece of work is male-oriented, devoted to exposing what men thought women were and should be; it tends to naturalize women's oppression by focusing on it. A great deal of very interesting work has been done in this tradition. G.M. Hopkins (1985) says that women can't write creatively because they lack the male generative powers. Contrary to such prejudice, female writers demonstrated their versatile writing skill and their great capability to manipulate words. More importantly, being women themselves, they know women best. No male writers could ever present the heroine in "*To the Lighthouse*" in the same way as Virginia Woolf does; no male writers can highlight mother love in such a way as Tony Morrison in her Pulitzer-winning work---"*Beloved*". The heroine growing out of male writer's work are mostly flat and unifaced; while these characters turn out to be three-dimensional and multifaceted in the hands of female writers. The complexity of female psychology is vividly displayed by their fluid language.

Thus, in some women's literature, feminine values penetrate and undermine the masculine systems that contain them. "…and women have imaginatively engaged the myths of the Amazons and fantasies of a separate female society, in genres from Victorian poetry to contemporary science fiction." (Showalter, 1992,130) She goes on to say that attention to women writers of the past means attention to the sociological structures that they inherited, the economic, moral and psychological pressures they faces, and the strategies for survival and for self-expression: only then can women's literature of the past be read clearly.

For the purpose of better understanding woman culture, the theory-gynocrtics is put forward. Gynocritics focuses on women's texts, textuality, creativity and traditions. It's the development of new models based on women's experiences. Showalter (1992) writes: "It begins at the point where we free ourselves from the linear absolutes of male history, stop trying to fit women between the lines of the male tradition, and focus instead on the newly visible world of female culture." (p,152) Gynocrotics is related to feminist research in history, anthropology, psychology and sociology, all of which have developed hypotheses of a female subculture including the occupations, interactions and consciousness of women. Anthropologists study the female subculture in the relationship between women as mothers, daughters, sisters and friends; in sexuality, reproduction, and ideas about the body.

B. Three Phases of Woman Subculture Development

According to Showalter (1992), woman culture is basically divided into three phases: *the feminine, the feminist and the female*.(p,119)

First, the *feminine*: during this phase, women wrote out of their subcultures and attempt to make equal achievements of male culture. They also want to develop and enlarge the domain of female representations. These women included women's perspective and concerns obliquely and subvertly. This phase dates till 1880 or so.

Second, *the feminist:* the phase of conscious rebellion, the *feminist phase*, 1880-1920: this was the time of the requirement for the vote for woman, a time of great feminist action. There were many political and sociological movements during this period.

The third phase is the *female*: the establishment of woman's role and nature as genuine, creative, independent and different.

Going through all the three phases, woman subculture development now poses the most exciting challenge for the new millennium: expanding and advertising women's thought and reflection starting from the many subjects where they are already present, from physics to philosophy, from psychoanalysis to sociology, from economics to law, from ethics to sexology. Therefore, the transmission and spreading of woman subculture become very important.

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The Effect of Interlingual and Intralingual, Verbatim and Nonverbatim Subtitles on L2 Vocabulary Comprehension and Production

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***Abstract*—The present study sought to investigate the effect of verbatim and nonverbatim interlingual and intralingual subtitles on L_2 vocabulary comprehension and production. To this end, four groups of 30 language learners studying conversational English in two language institutes in Qazvin participated in the study. Each of the groups watched the same movie with a different type of subtitling: a) verbatim interlingual, b) nonverbatim interlingual, c) verbatim intralingual and d) nonverbatim intralingual subtitles. The participants also received a vocabulary pretest and vocabulary comprehension and production post-tests. Two separate Two-Way ANOVA procedures were used to analyze the obtained data. The results revealed that nonverbatim subtitles resulted in more vocabulary comprehension regardless of whether they were interlingual or intralingual, whereas intralingual subtitles were more conductive to vocabulary production irrespective of whether they were verbatim or nonverbatim.**

***Index Terms*—interlingual subtitles, intralingual subtitles, verbatim subtitles, nonverbatim subtitles, vocabulary comprehension, vocabulary production**

I. Introduction

People do not watch television programs and videos only to have fun. Television programs and videos can be quite instructive. Foreign language learning is one of the many diverse areas that can benefit from such media. Today, a foreign language can also be learnt through watching subtitled programs in and out of the class. Subtitles can be divided into several kinds. In this study we will discuss intralingual versus interlingual and verbatim versus nonverbatim subtitles.

The language of intralingual subtitles is the same as that of the dialogues of the film while subtitles and dialogues have two different languages in interlingual subtitles. Verbatim subtitling refers to everything spoken including pause fillers, hesitations, etc. on the screen, whereas nonverbatim subtitling refers to summarized subtitles conveying only necessary information to get the film. The relevant literature is witness to considerable controversy as to the effect of the various kinds of subtitled films and videos on vocabulary learning. So, the purpose of this study is to focus primarily on the nature of subtitles and their effects on vocabulary comprehension and production. It aims to find answers to the following research questions:

1. Is there a significant difference between the effects of interlingual and intralingual verbatim and nonverbatim subtitling on L_2 vocabulary comprehension?
2. Is there a significant difference between the effects of interlingual and intralingual verbatim and nonverbatim subtitling on L_2 vocabulary production?

II. Review of the Related Literature

According to Reich (2006), subtitling is a branch of translation called audiovisual translation in which viewers can read statements of dialogues on the screen as well as watch the images and listen to the dialogues. Neves (2008) is of the opinion that captioning and subtitling have exactly the same definitions although some make a distinction and believe that *captioning* is considered to be for both deaf and hearing-impaired viewers while *subtitling* is special to hearers.

According to Gerzymisch-arbogast (2008), subtitles are the written translation of film dialogues appearing synchronously with the corresponding dialogues produced on the screen. He adds that the process of subtitling involves 3 steps: 1) from one 'language' to another 2) from verbal speech to a written text 3) from a non-condensed (verbatim) to a condensed (nonverbatim) form of text.

Concerning the history of subtitles, Cintas (2005) avows that subtitled films were marketed in the second half of 1970s. Reich (2006) holds that although there were voiceless films in cinemas at the beginning of the film-making history, the producers tried to find a solution to convey the dialogues to the viewers. They finally decided to write short statements on a paper and insert them between the film sequences. The written statements were called intertitles. Subtitles are new forms of intertitles.

Eken (2003) suggests that foreign language teachers exploit the media including television, video, and internet as a motivational tool in and out of class. Similarly, Koolstra and Beentjes (1999) believe that watching television programs is a useful way to learn a foreign language. They also maintain that many Dutch students learn English from television and radio more than in schools. Wang and Shen (2007) believe that if something is to be learnt, it must be noticed. Watching television programs makes this possible. It is, however, difficult for learners to understand films if they rely only on listening comprehension. Here subtitling plays a prominent role.

Meskill (1996) believes that subtitled video, a combination of pictures, sounds, and texts, do not hinder comprehension, but rather enhance it. Furthermore, Chang (2004) demonstrates that foreign films, especially when subtitled, increase viewers' motivation to acquire that language. Similarly, Danan (2004) maintains that media have a motivational effect on language learning. In this respect, video alone is not enough. He suggests that stakeholders exploit subtitling although there is some belief that these technologies are distracting and result in listening laziness.

Opposed to the idea of listening laziness through watching subtitled videos, Zanon (2006) concludes that using subtitled video in language classes causes students to be more relaxed while watching. In addition, because it is a nice and pleasurable activity, it improves language comprehension and acquisition. Watching subtitled videos motivates students and familiarizes them with the target culture. It also has an effective role in acquiring correct pronunciation and developing new words and idioms. In the same vein, Bravo (2005) maintains that watching subtitled movies enhances the learners' motivation and results in incidental acquisition of foreign languages.

According to Schroter (2005), subtitling is a form of translation called "additive translation" (p. 28). Because paralinguistic features including intonation and stress patterns, gestures, and facial expressions affect meaning, both verbal and nonverbal utterances are supposed to be conveyed into subtitles. Although some believe that subtitling is advantageous over dubbing due to presenting original dialogues, Schroter argues that both have the same effect on the audience's understanding. He also believes that although it is a fact that subtitles distract viewers to focus on image, it is not really too difficult to read, watch, and listen to all at once.

A. Addressees of Subtitling

Neves (2008) states that the addressees of subtitles do not belong to one unique group; therefore, subtitlers have to consider various age groups and social backgrounds.

According to Chang (2004), even though subtitling was originally formulated for deaf and hard of hearing, it is also beneficial for second language learners. Similarly, Zanon (2006) and Caimi (2006) maintain that due to creating a combination of sound, image, and text, this approach can be used for all types of students.

Benefits and pitfalls of subtitling

Koolstra and Beentjes (1999) believe that interlingual subtitles contribute to learning expressions, pronunciation, syntax, and connotations as well as vocabulary. They found that interlingual subtitling has three main advantages over dubbing: the first is that subtitling is cheaper than dubbing. The second is related to the actors' original voices, which certainly affect comprehension. The last, and the most important, is that it may result in incidental language learning. They also state that there are a number of concerns about subtitling. That is, in addition to distracting viewers, it may create problems for poor readers and children because it is usually quick. In addition, Cintas (2005) maintains that although subtitling is a good language teaching instrument, many stakeholders cannot exploit it because of the high price.

According to Zanon (2006), subtitling enjoys many advantages; it motivates learners and makes them secure and self-confident. Besides, it can help language learners to monitor their speech and find new vocabulary. He also maintains that in spite of all advantages, the drawbacks of subtitling should not be overlooked. For instance, reading of subtitles may gradually become a habit and create a false confidence.

Interlingual and intralingual subtitling

Neves (2008) makes a distinction between *interlingual* and *intralingual* subtitles. The language of intralingual subtitles is the same as that of dialogues, whereas the language of interlingual subtitles is different from that of the audio.

Bravo (2005) believes that both interlingual and intralingual subtitles result in language learning. He comments that learners of lower levels of proficiency are supposed to work with the first, whereas advanced learners benefit from the second to develop pronunciation and their knowledge of words and idioms.

Regarding intralingual subtitling, Caimi (2006) comments that it affects students' memories, develops their listening and reading comprehension, enhances their self-confidence, and replaces learning with entertainment. He maintains that there are two types of intralingual subtitles: the first is special to deaf or hearing-impaired viewers in which dialogues as well as every other sound are subtitled on the screen. In fact, this kind of subtitling is viewed as an "accessibility aid" (p. 85). The second kind has been formulated for people whose language is different from that being spoken in the film. In

this kind, subtitling is regarded as a "didactic aid" (p. 85). Caimi believes that intralingual subtitling for didactic aid improves second language learners' listening comprehension due to the reproduction of oral language in written form.

According to Danan (2004), intralingual subtitles are called "captions" and interlingual ones are referred to as "standard subtitles" (pp. 67, 68). He believes that although both increase the learners' motivation, captioning suffers a number of limitations, whereas standard subtitling leads to incidental language learning. For example, he argues that captioning is suitable for beginners only if adapted to a primary level of linguistic ability.

Stewart and Pertusa (2004) hypothesize that films subtitled in the target language are more appropriate foreign language learning tools for English learners although most English instructors use English subtitled films in foreign language classes. They avow that one of the biggest drawbacks for English subtitling is the neglect of the listening skill. On the other hand, Bird and Williams (2002) and Schmidt (2007) maintain that one of the best ways of language learning is watching intralingually subtitled programs. They state that because word boundaries are clear and there are no accent variations, language learners comprehend and learn language to a greater extent.

Verbatim versus nonverbatim subtitles

In verbatim subtitles, oral materials (exactly what is said) are written at the bottom of the screen. So, it is the best opportunity for language learners to be familiar with spoken language aurally and visually (Meskill, 1996). Yet, Neves (2008) states that deaf and hard of hearing viewers as well as foreign language learners prefer verbatim subtitles because they want an equal stand with hearers; however, he believes that it is a big mistake because they have different needs and expectations. For instance, since they read subtitles slower than hearers and native viewers, they lose time while reading extra information in verbatim subtitles. In much the same vein, Caimi (2006) argues that factors such as duration of subtitles, the screen space, the speed of the dialogues, and the viewers' reading speed all influence comprehension and suggests that subtitlers use simplification and omission to eliminate redundancies in order to transfer more easily the film message. Gerzymisch-arbogast (2008) argues that one third of utterances need to be reduced if subtitles are to be readable. To this end, subtitlers should make use of summarizing, paraphrasing, and integrating processes.

Similarly, Cordella (2007) advocates the use of nonverbatim subtitles. In his study, Cordella found that omitting some aural informal features and reducing language particles such as articles and prepositions leads to clearer texts and, consequently, the audience's better understanding. Moreover, adding some linguistic features as well as making subtitles longer was also found to be helpful to film comprehension. Lever (1998) and Schroter (2005) report similar findings.

On the other hand, Schilperoord, Groot, and Son (2005) are among the proponents of verbatim subtitling who avow that "relational coherence" (p. 404) impacting text meaning is affected by editing processes because it is removed or causes the meaning to be changed. That is, it may be possible to keep semantic meaning in nonverbatim subtitles; however, coherence will certainly be removed. They also disagree with deleting conversational markers as an editing process. They claim: "conversational markers establish and maintain the relationships between participants in social interaction and thereby have a strong bearing on the atmosphere—more than the meaning—of the social interaction. Removing conversational markers seems to leave a very ‘‘dry’’ kind of conversation" (p.414).

B. Previous Studies

A number of studies have investigated the effect of various kinds of subtitling on various aspects of language and vocabulary learning:

Baltova (1999) assessed the effects of subtitling on foreign language vocabulary learning. He presented a seven-and-a half minute video with various English and French audios and subtitles to 93 high school Canadian students studying French. He divided the participants into three groups: the first group was shown the video with English audio and French subtitles, the second group watched the video with French audio and subtitles, and finally the last group watched the video three times in French without any subtitles. After watching the video, ten short-answer, open-ended vocabulary questions were given to all the three groups. The analysis of the test results indicated that the second group watching the video with French audio and subtitles learned much more French vocabulary.

Koolstra and Beentjes (1999) compared the effect of three different versions of an English television program (original, subtitled in Dutch, and dubbed in Dutch) on Dutch children's vocabulary acquisition. The analyses revealed that Dutch children acquire more English vocabulary through Dutch subtitled version of English programs than through dubbed or original ones.

Kothari, Takeda, Joshi, and Pandey (2002) conducted a study to evaluate the effect of subtitles on foreign language learning. To this end, they used a film on three groups of 46 elementary school children learning English. The first group was provided with an English film subtitled in the native language. The second group was given the same film with no subtitles. But the last group was shown no films. Analysis of the results indicated that the first group was the best group in sustained recall and reading improvement. They also showed that the participants dealing with no subtitles achieved more improvements than the third group who did not watch the film at all.

Yuksel and Tanriverdi (2002) investigated the effects of intralingual subtitles on incidental vocabulary acquisition. They used 120 college intermediate students learning English as a foreign language at a Turkish university. About ten minutes of an episode of an American TV series was shown twice to the participants: one group watched the movie clip with English subtitles, whereas the other group watched it without any subtitles. The results of the study revealed that

watching the movie clip had a significant effect on the participants' vocabulary knowledge. The caption group performed a little better than the control group.

Jones (2004) examined the effect of multimedia on language learners' vocabulary recognition and production. To do so, four English-speaking groups studying French participated in his study. At first, they were administered a vocabulary pretest to measure their prior knowledge of vocabulary. Then, the participants listened to a 2 minute and 20 second aural French passage several times. The first group had access to the images and simultaneous English written translations. The second group had access only to the images. The third one read simultaneous English written translations, and the last one was the control group and had access to nothing more than the pronunciation. After listening to the passage, they took two written and pictorial vocabulary recognition tests as well as a written vocabulary production test in order for the researcher to assess their improvements in vocabulary recognition and production. The results of the study indicated that the test mode did not play any significant role in vocabulary recognition. On the other hand, it had a positive effect on vocabulary production. In fact, the participants who had access to the images could not perform as well as those with English written translations. He concluded that the images improve vocabulary recognition, whereas written translations affect vocabulary production.

In order to assess the effect of subtitles in target language on vocabulary recognition, Stewart and Pertusa (2004) divided two Spanish films into segments. Then, they also divided seven intermediate Spanish conversation classes of English learners into two groups: showing each class one segment, 53 learners watched the segments of the Spanish films with Spanish subtitles, and 42 learners saw the same films subtitled in English. A multiple-choice test on a video film was administered to the participants before watching the films in order to measure their level of listening comprehension in Spanish. The results indicated that they were all at the same level. In addition, they were given a multiple-choice vocabulary pretest and post-test to measure the level of vocabulary learning. At the end of the study, they were also presented with a questionnaire to express their feelings about their experience. It turned out that there was a slight difference in the two groups' performance on the vocabulary post-test. However, the questionnaires showed that the learners who watched the segments with target language subtitles had better experiences with subtitling.

Analyzing the effect of nonverbatim subtitles on deaf or hearing-impaired viewers' film comprehension, Schilperoord, Groot, and Son (2005) broadcast three Dutch television programs with nonverbatim subtitles to a selection of Dutch deaf or hard of hearing participants. They chose two comic programs and one documentary. Then, they removed all marked coherence relations to formulate nonverbatim subtitles. The results of the study indicated that meaning was not preserved in nonverbatim captioning.

Bianchi and Ciabattoni (2008) investigated the short and long-term effects of captions and subtitles on the novice, intermediate, and advanced Italian learners of English. To accomplish this objective, 85 Italian college students of English participated voluntarily in the study. In the first phase, a multiple-choice pretest composed of four tasks was administered to the participants. Tasks 1 and 2 aimed at assessing the participants' level of grammar and general knowledge of vocabulary, respectively. The aims of tasks 3 and 4 were exactly the same as those of the first two tasks. However, the vocabulary and grammar points were chosen from among the film clips. The pretest helped the researchers assign the participants into three groups of novice, intermediate, and advanced levels. In the next phase, each level was divided into three groups. Each group watched several clips of the two English films with three versions as follows: captioned, subtitled in Italian, and original with no subtitles or captions. It is worth noting that here captioning and subtitling refer to intralingual and interlingual subtitling, respectively. They used individual computers with headphones. After the clips, a multiple-choice test was administered to assess the short-term effects of subtitling and captioning on comprehension of vocabulary and content and use of lexico-grammatical phrases. The participants could watch the clips again and review their answers. In the third phase, the participants were supposed to answer the same questions as administered in the pretest. It took place seven days after phase 2 in order to measure the long-term effects of subtitles and captions on vocabulary acquisition and content comprehension. Bianchi and Ciabattoni concluded that regardless of the proficiency level and type of film, subtitles led to the best result in content comprehension. Concerning vocabulary comprehension, subtitles were more useful than captioning, especially with regard to the learners of lower-proficiency level. Finally, although subtitles were generally a little more fruitful than captions in vocabulary acquisition, the novice learners took the greatest advantage from captions, compared with the intermediate and advanced learners.

Finally, Wang, et al. (2008) worked with two groups of Chinese students learning English on a bilingually subtitled animation movie for four weeks. At first, a pretest was given to the groups to identify the new words for all the participants. Both the experimental and comparison groups watched the movie with Chinese subtitles at the bottom of the screen in addition to English subtitles at the top. The only difference was that the experimental group had access to the new words beneath the Chinese subtitles. The results of the posttest indicated that the experimental group performed much better than the comparison group in English listening comprehension and vocabulary learning.

The above-mentioned studies reflect only part of the relevant literature. While a more thorough examination of the literature is not within the scope of this paper, such an examination will definitely highlight higher levels of controversy as to the effectiveness of various types of subtitling on vocabulary learning. In an attempt to resolve part of this controversy, the present study aims to investigate the effects of interlingual and intralingual verbatim and nonverbatim subtitling on vocabulary comprehension and production.

III. Method

A. Participants

The participants were 120 intermediate-level English language learners studying conversational English. Some of the participants were studying at Jahad-e-daneshgahi and the rest were studying at Gouyesh institute in Qazvin. Fifty one of the participants were male and ninety three were female. Their age ranged from 19 to 32.

B. Instrumentation

The movie *she's the man* was used as an experimental treatment in this study. The original movie lasts 3 hours; however, the summarized version lasting about 70 minutes was used in the present study. *She's the man* was directed by Andy Fickman in the United States in 2006. Because of the real-life and contextualized features, this movie was chosen to stimulate the viewers' interest. In addition, the genre of comedy and romance adds to its attractiveness.

A multiple-choice TOEFL test (the 1995 version) was administered to the participants as a criterion to assess their prior knowledge of the English language. It consisted of 100 questions including 40 grammatical items, 30 vocabulary items, and 30 reading comprehension items.

Prior to watching the movie, the participants received a vocabulary pretest consisting of 100 words which aimed at assessing their prior knowledge of the vocabulary used in the movie. The participants were supposed to write a synonym for the intended vocabulary items in Persian.

Additionally, two 3-item vocabulary posttests were also administered to the participants after watching the movie to measure vocabulary comprehension and production. The vocabulary comprehension items were in multiple-choice format and the vocabulary production test was administered in fill-in-the-blanks format in which the first letter of each intended word was given to the participants to avoid the possibility of the participants providing acceptable words which fitted the context without necessarily being the intended word.

C. Procedure

Initially, to homogenize the participants, a multiple-choice TOEFL proficiency test was administered to 144 participants. It consisted of 100 grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension items. The analysis of the scores indicated that 21 of the participants had to be removed from the study due to a different proficiency level. Three other participants were also excluded from the study because they failed to complete their cooperation. There remained 120 participants.

Then, the vocabulary pretest was administered. The participants were required to write the Persian synonyms of 100 words that were extracted from the movie. The purpose of the pretest was to guarantee the lack of prior knowledge of the target words on the part of the participants and to identify the new or unfamiliar words for inclusion in the posttests.

The participants were then randomly divided into four groups of 30. Each group watched the same film with a different type of subtitling: verbatim interlingual, nonverbatim interlingual, verbatim intralingual and nonverbatim intralingual subtitles. To make sure that they would watch the movie carefully, the participants were asked to write a one-page summary and hand in their summaries.

After delivering the summaries, the participants received the vocabulary comprehension and production posttests. In order to check the validity of the vocabulary comprehension and production posttests, it was piloted with a similar group of 30 students studying conversational English at the National Institute of English Language (NIEL) in Qazvin. To this end, the learners were given the TOEFL vocabulary subtest as well as the vocabulary comprehension and production posttests, and the correlation between the posttests and the TOEFL vocabulary subtest was measured using the Pearson correlation procedure. The correlation coefficients between the vocabulary comprehension test and the TOEFL vocabulary subtest and between the vocabulary production test and the TOEFL vocabulary subtest turned out to be .87 and .88, respectively.

To investigate the effects of verbatim and nonverbatim interlingual and intralingual subtitles on vocabulary comprehension and production, two separate two-way ANOVA procedures were used.

IV. Results and Discussion

A. Investigation of the First Research Question

The first research question sought to investigate the effects of verbatim and nonverbatim interlingual and intralingual subtitling on L_2 vocabulary comprehension. To answer this question, the results of the vocabulary comprehension test in the four groups were compared using a two-way ANOVA procedure. Descriptive statistics for the ANOVA on vocabulary comprehension are presented in table1.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON THE VOCABULARY COMPREHENSION TEST

Language	Content	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Interlingual subtitles	Verbatim subtitles	9.13	5.36	30
	Nonverbatim subtitles	11.16	5.27	30
	sum	10.15	5.37	60
Intralingual subtitles	Verbatim subtitles	10.13	4.21	30
	Nonverbatim subtitles	12.56	3.56	30
	sum	11.35	4.06	60

It can be seen from Table 1 that the mean scores the intralingual subtitles groups are higher than those of the participants of interlingual subtitles groups. In addition, in both the interlingual and intralingual subtitles groups, the participants of the group receiving nonverbatim subtitles have better performance than those receiving verbatim subtitles. To see whether or not the differences among the groups are statistically significant, the two-way ANOVA procedure was used, yielding the following results:

TABLE 2.
TWO-WAY ANOVA ON VOCABULARY COMPREHENSION

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Language	43.200	1	43.20	1.98	.16
Content	149.633	1	149.63	6.87	.01
Language* Content	1.200	1	1.20	.05	.81

R *Squared = .071 (Adjusted R Squared = .047)*

According to the above table, the language of subtitles does not have a statistically significant effect on vocabulary comprehension. In other words, there is no significant difference between the effect of interlingual and intralingual subtitles on vocabulary comprehension (sig.=.16). However, the content of subtitles has a statistically significant effect on vocabulary comprehension. That is, nonverbatim subtitles significantly improve vocabulary comprehension (sig.=.01). Also, there is no statistically significant interaction effect between the language and the content of subtitles. We may conclude that nonverbatim subtitles result in more vocabulary comprehension regardless of whether they are interlingual or intralingual.

B. Investigation of the Second Research Question

The second question attempted to examine the effects of interlingual and intralingual verbatim and nonverbatim subtitling on L_2 vocabulary production. Descriptive statistics needed for the ANOVA on vocabulary production are summarized in table 3.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON THE VOCABULARY PRODUCTION

Language	Content	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Interlingual subtitles	Verbatim subtitles	1.76	1.25	30
	Nonverbatim subtitles	2.53	2.22	30
	sum	2.15	1.83	60
Intralingual subtitles	Verbatim subtitles	2.93	1.87	30
	Nonverbatim subtitles	3.43	2.48	30
	sum	3.18	2.19	60

As it can be seen in the table, the participants of the intralingual subtitles groups achieved better results than the interlingual subtitles groups. In either of the interlingual and intralingual subtitles groups, the participants of the group receiving nonverbatim subtitles have outperformed those receiving verbatim subtitles. To see whether or not the observed differences among the groups are statistically significant, another two-way ANOVA procedure was used. The results of the ANOVA on vocabulary production are given in table 4.

TABLE 4.
TWO-WAY ANOVA ON VOCABULARY PRODUCTION

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Language	32.033	1	32.033	7.905	.006
Content	12.033	1	12.033	2.970	.088
Language * Content	.533	1	.533	.132	.717

R Squared = .087 (Adjusted R Squared = .063)

According to table 4, the language of subtitles has a statistically significant effect on vocabulary production. In other words, intralingual subtitles contribute to vocabulary production significantly better than interlingual subtitles (sig.=.006). Moreover, although there is a relatively strong trend that the content of subtitles is an effective factor influencing vocabulary production, the difference between the verbatim and nonverbatim subtitle groups is not statistically significant (sig.=.08). In addition, there is no statistically significant interaction effect. This means that intralingual subtitles are more conducive to vocabulary production regardless of whether they are verbatim or nonverbatim.

The findings of the present study are in accordance with a number of previous studies (e.g. Baltova, 1999; Koolstra and Beentjes, 1999; and Jones, 2002), which support the effect of intralingual subtitles on vocabulary learning. However, the result of this study is different from a number of other studies (e.g. Bianchi & Ciabattoni, 2008), which emphasize the more prominent role of interlingual subtitles in vocabulary learning. One of the possible reasons for such different results may be the different proficiency level of the participants in this study in comparison to the other studies. Another possible reason may be the fact that intralingual subtitles provide the opportunity for language learners to have access to the written forms of new words. Exposure to the written forms of words can be conducive to better performance on the vocabulary production test.

Furthermore, regarding the content of subtitles, the outcome of the present study is compatible with Cintas (2005) and Wang, et al. (2008), who seem to support the superiority of nonverbatim subtitles over verbatim subtitles. This could be partially attributed to the fact that nonverbatim subtitles are more easy-reading than verbatim subtitles. So, subtitling only lexical items draws the viewers' attention to the new words directly. Practically, because the participants in this research were intermediate level language learners, they were good enough in the other language skills and components. So, they did not need word for word statements or translations of the original dialogues.

Despite the apparent congruity of parts of the findings of this study with those of previous studies, the discrepancies between these finding and those of a group of other studies is possibly an endorsement of the need for further research.

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Pedagogical Practices of English Language Lessons in Malaysian Primary Schools: A Discourse Analysis

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***Abstract*—Discourse analysis as a sub-discipline of linguistics is useful in understanding the teaching and learning process and practices of a language. In line with that, this article applies discourse analysis framework in discussing the classroom pedagogical discourse practices of English language lessons at primary school level in Malaysia. The discussion is based on three case studies conducted in the state of Melaka. The pedagogical discourse in the classrooms was observed, audio recorded and later transcribed and analysed. The pedagogical discourse analysed focuses on the teachers' and students' practices. Among the teachers' practices identified were questioning, accepting and explaining where as the students' practices were answering and listening. These pedagogical practices are discussed in relation to their types, place of occurrences in the discourse and their related examples. The discussion hopes to give details on how linguistics, especially discourse analysis, benefits in language pedagogy and at the same time, enlightens the practices of English language lessons in the classrooms.**

***Index Terms*—discourse practice, pedagogical discourse, English language, primary school**

I. Introduction

Discourse analysis has to do with analyzing the relationship among language and the contexts in which it is used. It is also being applied in various researches such as in applied linguistics, and second language learning and teaching. As such, discourse analysts investigate language in use: all types of written texts and spoken data, from conversation to highly institutionalized types of talk. For teachers, a more accurate picture of natural discourse, can put them in a better position to assess the teaching material, what transpires in the classroom, and the end products of their teaching, either in the form of spoken or written output (McCarthy, 1991).

Analysis of classroom discourse is useful when examining the effectiveness of teaching methods and the types of student-teacher interaction (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992) Classroom discourse refers to the type of language use that is found in classroom situations. This student-teacher discourse is also referred to as pedagogic discourse, and it is different in form and function from language used in other situations due to the distinct social roles of students, teachers and the activities they are engaged in (Richards et. al., 1992; Rosniah & Idris, 2005). According to Walsh (2006), the communication patterns found in language classrooms are different from those found in content-based subjects. Communication is distinctive because the linguistic forms utilized are often the aim of a lesson and the means of achieving those aims.

In the L2 classroom, it is common that teacher controls both the content and the procedure of the learning-process. According to Cazden (in Walsh, 2006) some of the features of L2 classroom are: teachers control the topic of discussion; teachers control who can participate and when; students take their cues from teachers; role relationships among teachers and learners are lopsided; teachers are responsible for managing the interaction which occurs; teachers talk more. Any L2 lesson can be perceived as a dynamic and complex series of interrelated contexts, in which interaction is essential to

teaching and learning. Class-based L2 learning is often improved when teachers have a detailed understanding of the relationship between teacher talk, interaction and learning opportunity (Walsh, 2006).

This paper applies discourse analysis framework in discussing the classroom pedagogical discourse practices of English as a second language lessons at primary school level in Malaysia. The pedagogical discourse in the classrooms was observed, audio recorded, transcribed and later analysed. The aims were to identify the teachers' and students' practices in the classrooms.

II. Data

The data collected for this paper were through case studies of three classroom discourses of three teachers teaching Year 4 and 5 pupils in city of Melaka. The first teacher [text 1] was a female teacher who had a diploma. She had been teaching English for 13 years and the topic of her standard 5 lesson was World of Stories (*The Golden Touch*). The second teacher [text 2] was also female with a certificate in teaching Tamil language and had been teaching English for 2 years. Her standard 4 lesson for that day was using a letter (for comprehension and grammar). The final teacher [text 3] was a male teacher who also had a certificate in teaching English. He had been teaching English for 28 years and his standard 5 lesson for this study was World of Stories (*Mat Janim and the Oil*). Each class lesson lasted for an hour and as such, the total length of the discourse was 3 hours. Three classroom discourses were chosen because each discourse contains 1055, 1329, 1218 utterances respectively [a total of 3602 utterances]. The discourse was collected through direct audio recording during the lessons. The whole process took place in April 2009. Recordings were transcribed into texts and sort into moves and utterances. To easily manage the analysis, each utterance is given a number as shown below.

(1)

Particapants	Move	Utterances	Speech Functions
T (Teacher):	[712]	What (do) you call this?	[Questioning]
P (Pupil):	[713]	Eat	[Answering]
T:	[714]	Aa..eat	[Repeating]
	[715]	Ate	[Correcting]
	[716]	It's past tense of?	[Questioning]
P:	[717]	Food	[Answering]
T	[718]	No	[Rejection]

(Source Text 2)

III. Pedagogical Practices

Practices in this paper refer to the utterances as functional units in communication. Searle (1981) termed this as speech acts and Fairclough (1982), as speech functions. According to Searle (1981) there are 5 main speech acts or functions. They are 1. Commissive, 2. Declarative, 3. Directive, 4. Expressive, 5. Representative which can be detailed further, such as, a commissive can be a promise or threat; a declarative can be a command or a request; and a representative can be an assertion or a report.

For example, in (1), when the teacher in Move [712] asks *what you call this?* The speech function is questioning. When a student responds by saying *eat*, the speech act is answering. In move [714] the teacher repeats *aa…eat* and corrects the answer in move [715] by saying *ate*. Again in move [716] the speech act is questioning when the teacher asks *it's past tense of*? And when the student responds by saying *food* in move [717], the speech function is answering. In move [718], the teacher says *no* using the speech function of rejecting the answer.

In general, the focus of classroom discourse textual analysis is on features of teacher-student interaction. Generally, interactive control in discourse is concerned with ensuring that interaction takes place effectively at specific levels of organization, for example systems of smooth distribution in turn taking, topic selection and exchange as well as question-answering (Fairclough, 1992). The discourse practices discussed in this paper are the teachers and students' practices revealed in the three texts.

IV. Teachers Practices

Among teachers practices founded are questioning, accepting, explaining, informing, instructing, correcting, rejecting, modeling etc. The occurrences of the practices are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
TEACHERS PRACTICES

Practices	Text 1	Text 2	Text 3	Total
Questioning	345/1055	440 / 1329	223/1218	1008/3602
Informing	60/1055	176/1329	87/1218	323/3602
Accepting	60/1055	79/1329	81/1218	220/3602
Instructing	51/1055	91/1329	58/1218	200/3602
T Ques & Ans	63/1055	11/1329	58/1218	132/3602
Modeling	0/1055	73/1329	20/1218	93/3602
Correcting	31/1055	15/1329	0/1218	46/3602
Praising	5/1055	11/1329	14/1218	30/3602
Rejecting	8/1055	6/1329	4/1218	18/3602
Translating	13/1055	4/1329	0/1218	17/3602
Explaining	0/1055	8/1329	0/1218	8/3602
Ignoring	0/1055	5/1329	0/1218	5/3602
Joking	1/1055	1/1329	0/1218	2/3602

a) Questioning

Questioning appeared to be the most widely used speech function in these three texts. A total no of 1008/ 3602 utterances were questions. They took place 345 times in text 1, 440 in text 2 and 223 in text 3. A prominent textual feature identified in this pedagogic discourse is the use of close-question by the teacher. Close-questions are questions that use question words such as 'right/yes-no', 'is there', 'where to', 'who' or 'what' which merely require straight answers or just confirmation. The use of open-questions that begin with questions-words such as 'why', 'how' or explain are limited. The following examples show the use of close-questions in the analysed discourse.

(2)

T: [117] Do you like gold?
P: [118] Yes.
T: [119] It is very expensive ah nowadays.
[120] Robbers and thieves are looking for gold.
[121] Can you wear a lot of gold, jewelleries to weddings or when you go out to or from your house?
P: [122] No.

(Source: Text 1)

(3)

T: [84] What passage is this?
[85] Is it a poem?
Ps: [86] No..no
T: [87] What is it?
Ps: [88] Letter..letter

(Source: Text 2)

(4)

T: [111] Its not a vase, its not a vase.
[112] It's a… Roshan?
P: [113] Jug.
T: [114] It's a jug aa.
[115] It's a…?
P: [116] Jug.
T: [117] Jug.
[118] Ok, it's a jug or a?
[119] A jug or a?
P: [120] Pot.

(Source: Text 3)

In (2), the teacher asked the close-questions in moves [117] and [121] which required the pupils to simply answer yes or no. This is the most prominent textual feature used in the pedagogic discourse identified in this study in terms of questioning techniques. Apart from yes/no answers required by the pupils, the teachers also focused on getting pupils to supply a one word answer in (3) moves [86] and [88]. In (4) too it shows that the teacher also required the pupils to produce one word answer as in moves [113], 116] and [120].

In the discourse analysed, there were instances when the teachers answered the questions themselves rather than allowing students to answer. The teachers questioned but proceeded to answer them. The teachers did not provide time for the students to think and offer their own opinions.

(5)

T: [352] Clothes aa..like shirt, dresses, pants, that is called clothing aa
[353] He gave them food and ?
[354] Clothing

(Source: Text 2)

(6)

T: [132] How you know its oil?
[133] Again, again.
[134] Aa the title is there aa oil, oil.
[135] Oil inside the?
[136] Inside the?
[137] Pot, ok.

(Source: Text 3)

(7)

T: [305] I want everything that I touch change into?
P: [306] Gold
T: [307] Gold Ok, for exx..now.

(Source: Text 1)

In (5), the teachers asked the pupils questions as can be seen in move [353] but answered it herself in move [354] without waiting for the pupils to respond. The same goes with (6) and (7), where she answered her own questions in move [137] and [307] respectively.

There are also instances where teachers use 'fishing question'. What is meant by fishing questions is when teachers provided part of the answers by mentioning the first syllable as follows.

(8)

T: [95] Yes, Bani?
S: [96] Bangle.
T: [97] Yes, bangle.
[98] Ok, bang..?
P: [99] Gle.
T: [100] Bangle.

(Source: Text 1)

b) Informing

Informing is to tell something. In this study, informing is the second widely used speech function with a total of 323/3602 utterances. It appeared 60 times in text 1, 176 in text 2 and 87 in text 3. The discourse analysed in this study reflects prominently the teacher's role and teaching profession. For example, this practice happens when a teacher prefers to offer information, explanations, descriptions or answers to students rather than allowing students to discuss, analyse or summarise in order to seek for their own answers. In other words, the teacher speaks more than the student. Discourse is, thus, centred on the teacher. This practice can be seen below.

(9)

T: [836] Yesterday, I put my book on your table
[837] You don't say, yesterday I putted my book on your table
[838] Is it correct?
[839] No
[840] Ok, my mother aa
[841] Ok…aa
[842] I want to cut this cake
[843] Ok, I want to cut this cake
[844] Aaa..yesterday, I cutted the cake aa?
[845] I cut the cake also
[846] Some words aa they don't change

(Source: Text 2)

(10)

T: [968] You leave your house to go to school right?
[969] You leave your house, ok, you left your house
[970] This morning, I left my house at 7 o'clock
[971] All right?
[972] This morning, I teacher left my house at 7 o'clock
[973] That means?
[974] At 7 o'clock, I came out the house
[975] I come to school
[976] On my way to school, ok?
[977] Ok
[978] Tomorrow
[979] I'll leave home at?

[980] 6.45
(Source: Text 2)
(11)
T: [194] After that I will give you a few questions retaining to the story aa.
(Source: Text 3)
(12)
T: [49] Necklace. (*T put on necklace to a S's neck*)
[50] Why?
[51] See ah… necklace is smaller than a chain.
[52] Short and smaller
(Source: Text 1)

All instances in (9), (10) (11) and (12) illustrate an absence of interaction between the teachers and the pupils. Teachers preferred to take the authority to inform rather than giving the opportunities for the pupils to exercise critical thinking in discussing or analyzing a particular topic. The teachers have power over the discourse and it is unevenly shared out with the pupils.

c) Acceptance

Acceptance is when teachers accept or acknowledge the pupils' answers. This could be in a form of repeating what the pupils said. 220/3602 of the total utterances are categorized as acceptance. It took place 60 times in text 1, 79 in text 2 and 81 in text 3.

(13)
T: [16] Ok, where did you go in Melaka town?
T: [17] One by one
P: [18] Menara Taming Sari.
T: [19] Menara Taming Sari.
[20] Ok, where else?
P: [21] Mahkota Parade
T: [22] Mahkota Parade..some more?
(Source: Text 2)
(14)
P: [25] Teacher..I also went to Melaka town.
T: [26] Melaka town.
[27] Ok, where did you go?
[28] Melaka town?
P: [29] Carefour.
T: [30] Carefour.
P: [32] Dataran Pahlawan.
P : [33] Mahkota Parade.
T: [34] Mahkota Parade.
P: [35] Pizza Hut.
T: [36] Pizza Hut..wah..so many places.
P: [37] And Indian shops.
T: [38] Indian shops..You?
[39] Avinash?
P: [40] MacDonald.
T: [41] MacDonald.
P: [42] KFC
T: [43] KFC.
P: [44] Pizza Hut.
T: [45] Pizza Hut.
(Source: Text 2)
(15)
T: [167] Now..look at the picture there.
[168] What do you think the.
[169] How?
[170] What is the feeling of the king?
P: [171] Very happy.
T: [172] Aa..He is very?
P: [173] Happy.
T: [174] Happy
(Source: Text 1)

(16)

T: [31] Ok, what do you think Mat Jamin is doing?
[32] What you think he's doing?
[33] Yes, Firdaus?
P: [34] He is dreaming.
T: [35] He is?
P: [36] Dreaming.
T: [37] He is dreaming.

(Source: Text 3)

Acceptance can be seen in (13) where the teacher repeated what the pupil responded as in moves [19] and [22]. The same goes in moves [26], [30], [34], [36], [41], [43] and [45] in (14), where again the teacher repeated what the pupils answered. This scenario is repeated once more in moves [174] in (15) and finally in moves [37] in (16). Usually the teacher employed the actions of acceptance to indicate that the answers provided by the pupils were correct.

d) Instructions

Instruction is where teachers instruct the pupils to do something. In this study it is found that instruction is the fourth widely used practice. It appears 200/3602 times with 51, 91 and 58 times in texts 1, 2 and 3 respectively.

(17)

T: [187] Ok, now, you look at the story, look at the story, I let you look at the story and you read silently, aaa.
[188] For 4 minutes.

(Source: Text 3)

(18)

T: [615] Once you get the paper, write down your name, and the..todays' date.
[616] Pass aaa..
[617] Ok, class..the earlier one aa, the comprehension passage, class, pay attention, Govinath!
[618] Class, this comprehension passage aa, you will need to cut and paste in your English 1, and you copy the questions and you answer them.
[619] Ok?
[620] The passage you cut and paste, then based on this, you answer the questions.

(Source: Text 2)

(19)

T: [147] Don't read the story first aa.
[148] Look at the picture first.

(Source: Text 1)

In giving instructions, usually the teachers employed this practice when it was time to do exercises or to work on a given tasks. Instructions were given to ensure the pupils understand and know what to do to complete the given tasks. Examples of this can be seen in (17) moves [187] where the teacher instructs the pupils to read the story silently and in (18), moves [618] and [620] the teacher gives instructions to the pupils what to do with the comprehension passage. In (19), the teacher instructs pupils what to do and what not to do first as depicts in moves [147] and [148].

e) Question and answer

Apart from the teachers asking questions for students to answer as mentioned earlier, there is another type of practice that the teacher employed in the classrooms. This is by asking pupils questions but not giving the thinking time for the pupils to think of the answers expected. The teachers instead answer their own posed questions and this happened 63, 11 and 58 times in texts 1, 2 and 3 respectively giving a total of 132/3602 times of the total utterances.

(20)

T: [252] King Midas was a rich?
[253] King.
[254] Although he's rich but he loves gold.. anyone what?
[255] More
P: [256] More than.
T: [257] Golds aa..although he's rich but he want more?
[258] Golds.

(Source: Text 1)

(21)

T: [269] What a fairy always hold?
[270] A star like this, right?
[271] Tingg aa..magic?
[272] Stick aa.
[273] Always changed everything when it says 'ting' aa you change to what?
[274] Frog?
[275] Then you will jump like a?

[276] Frog.
[277] Ok, then it says what?
[278] 'Ting'..it will what?
[279] It will give whatever you?
[280] Want
(Source: Text 1)

(22)
T: [267] Or you can write, Francis went to the old folks' home on 19th October 2007.
[268] Understand or not?
[269] Ok, you should based on the letter.
[270] The letter stated he wrote the letter on the?
[271] 20th October..right or not, class?
[272] So, when he's saying the letter yesterday, he went to the old folks' home, that means?
[273] 20th he wrote the letter, yesterday means?
[274] The day before 20th, right?
(Source: Text 2)

(23)
T: [319] Ok, not long ago, we use the term dollars.
[320] Instead of?
[321] Instead of?
[322] Ringgit
(Source: Text 3)

(24)
T: [328] What other words you do not understand?
[329] Hire.
[330] Do you know the word hire?
[331] H.I.R.E.
(Source: Text 3)

In (20), move [254] the teacher asked the pupils but answered her own question as in move [258]. This is more obvious in (21) where the teacher asked 6 questions [269], [271], [273], [275], [277], [279] but proceeded to answer them all in moves [270], [272], [274], [276], [278] and [280]. This practice is further employed in (22) where the teacher asked questions in [270] and [273] but proceeded to answer them in moves [271] and [274] respectively. The same can be seen in (23) where the teacher asked "instead of?" in move [321] and answered it herself, "Ringgit" in move [322]. This practice is repeated in (24) where the teacher asked the pupils how to spell "hire" in move [330] but she proceeded to spell it herself in move [331] without waiting for the pupils to contribute their answers.

f) Modelling

Teachers used 93/3602 of the total utterances to model the correct way of pronouncing words and also to have the pupils to repeat after them. However in text 1, no modeling was used by the teacher as compared to 73 in text 2 and 20 in text 3.

(25)
T: [1088] I want you to go this one again aa.
[1089] Wash.
P: [1090] Wash.
T: [1091] Washed.
P: [1092] Washed.
T: [1093] Walk.
P: [1094] Walk.
T: [1095] Walked.
P: [1096] Walked.
T: [1097] Bring
P: [1098] Bring
(Source: Text 2)

(26)
T: [220] Ok, read the title 1st.
[221] Mat Jamin and the oil.
P(Gp1)[222] Mat Jamin and the oil. *(Reading the 1st paragraph)*
T: [223] Ok, very good.
[224] Can you please sit down?
[225] Ok, the 2nd group, can you read the 2nd paragraph?
P(Gp2)[226] He..

T: [227] He..
P(Gp2):[228] He *(Reading the 2nd paragraph)*
T: [229] I will sell?
P(Gp2):[230] (*Continue reading the 2nd paragraph)*
T: [231] He thought.
P(Gp2):[232] (*Continue reading the 2nd paragraph)*
(Source: Text 3)

There were many instances of modeling the correct pronunciation of words in text 2 and 3. Examples of such practices can be seen in (25) from move [1089] to [1098] where the pupils model each word the teacher says. The same with (26) where the pupils started reading the paragraph from the word or phrase modeled by the teacher as in moves [228], [230] and [232].

g) Correcting

Teachers usually use corrections in the classrooms. What was observed in the classrooms was the fact that the teachers do corrections on the spot when the pupils made mistakes. A total of 46/ 3602 utterances were correcting the students' pronunciation with 31corrections done in text 1, 15 in text 2 and none in text 3 as shown below.

(27)
T: [193] Ok.
[194] Amar read.
P: *Reading passage*
T: [195] King Midas aa..*(correcting the pronunciation)*
P: *Continue reading passage*
T: [196] Else..anything else..*(correcting the pronunciation)*
P: *Continue reading passage*
T: [197] In the world. *(correcting the pronunciation)*
P: *Continue reading passage*
(Source: Text 1)

(28)
T: [223] Princess Stefanie *(correcting the pronunciation)*
P: [224] Princess Stefanie (*and continue reading passage)*
T: [225] Begged *(correcting the pronunciation)*
P: [226] Begged (*and continue reading passage)*
T: [227] Horrible *(correcting the pronunciation)*
P: [228] Horrible (*and continue reading passage)*
T: [229] Lesson *(correcting the pronunciation)*
P: [230] Lesson (*and continue reading passage)*
T: [231] The kind fairy *(correcting the pronunciation)*
P: [232] The kind fairy (*and continue reading passage)*
(Source: Text 1)

(29)
T: [127] You are.. *(correcting the pronunciation)*
P: [128] (*Continue reading passage)*
T: [129] Folks *(correcting the pronunciation)*
P: [130] (*Continue reading passage)*
T: [131] Folks *(correcting the pronunciation)*
P: [132] (*Continue reading passage)*
T: [133] Knew *(correcting the pronunciation)*
P: [134] (*Continue reading passage)*
T: [135] We were *(correcting the pronunciation)*
P: [136] (*Continue reading passage)*
(Source: Text 2)

In (27), the teacher corrected the pupils' pronunciation as the pupil was reading and it happened every time the pupil mispronounced the words. The same can be seen in (28) and (29) where the teachers corrected all the pronunciations made by the pupils as they did the readings.

h) Praise

Utterances which give compliments to the pupils are categorized as praising. The total number of utterances used as praise is only 30/ 3602 where it is used 5, 11 and 14 times in texts 1, 2 and 3 respectively. Basically the words used were "very good" instead of other compliment words.

(30)
T: [145] Orphange *(correcting the pronounciation)*
P: [146] (*Continue reading passage)*

T: [147] Very good.
(Source: Text 2)
(31)
T: [349] How do you spell rent?
S: [350] R.E.N.T
T: [351] Yes.
[352] Very good.
(Source: Text 3)
(32)
T: [543] Sit aa?
[544] Becomes?
P: [545] Sat!
T: [546] Sat.
[547] Very good.
(Source: Text 2)
(33)
T: [62] Chain.
[63] Ok, what is this?
[64] Small thing…ah yes..
S: [65] Locket.
T: [66] Very good
(Source: Text 1)

In (30), (31), (32) and (33), the compliment "very good" appeared in moves [147], [352], [547] and [66] respectively. The teachers in all the 3 texts did not use other compliment words such as "great", "excellent" or "good". By not doing so, the pupils were not exposed to varied vocabularies in the classroom.

i) Translating

Using translation is not uncommon in language classrooms in Malaysia. Translating could happen in the pupils' mother tongue or the national language. Teachers use translation when the pupils do not understand the word in English and students use translation when they do not know to say the words in English. In total, only 17/3602 of the utterances were translation words. Specifically, text 1 used 13 translation words, texts 2 used 4, while text 3 did not use any.

(34)
T: [152] A king.
[153] How you know he is a king?
S: [154] He got a..(not clear)
S: [155] Mahkota.
T: [156] That mahkota.
[157] What you call it in English?
[158] What you call it in English?
[159] It starts with the letter C….
P: [160] Criss
T: [161] Criss aa?
[162] Crown.
(Source: Text 1)
(35)
T: [262] What is fairy?
P: [263] A small..*(not clear)*
T: [264] Mm?
[265] A small what?
[266] Aa?
P: [267] Pari-pari.
T: [268] Pari-pari.
[269] What a fairy always hold?
[270] A star like this, right?
(Source: Text 1)
(36)
T: [469] Gold.
[470] He said excitedly.
[471] What is excitedly?
T: [472] Dengan penuh apa? *(In Malay)*
P: [473] *(In Tamil)*

P: [474] Sorak-sorak
T: [475] Sorak-sorak..excitedly.
(Source: Text 1)
(37)
T: [483] Stefanie, ok.
[484] "Hello, my little Princess," said King Midas and gave her a pat.
[485] What is pat?
P: [486] Chest.
P: [487] Shoulder.
T: [488] What are you telling?
[489] What is that in Tamil?
P: [490] (*In Tamil*)
(Source: Text 1)
(38)
T: [103] Orphanage..Ok, what is an orphanage?
P: [104] *(In Tamil).*
T: [105] *(In Tamil).*
[106] People who don't have anybody, parent, siblings aa..sisters, brothers, nobody, any relatives..K?
[107] Its called orphanage.
[108] Orphans aa..they are orphans.
[109] Ok, what you call in Malay orphans?
P: [110] Anak..
P: [111] Anak yatim..
T: [112] Ok, anak yatim-piatu aa..they got nobody in this world.
(Source: Text 2)
(39)
T: [418] Past tense..right?
[419] Good.
[420] They are verbs.
[421] Verbs aa.
[422] *(In Tamil).*
[423] Kata kerja.
[424] Verbs.
(Source: Text 2)

In (34), the pupil did not know the word "crown" and resorted to saying "mahkota" in move [155]. The teacher then translated "mahkota" into "crown" in move [162]. In (35), the pupil could not describe the meaning of the word "fairy" and said the equivalent word in Malay, "pari-pari" in move [267]. Besides resorting to translate words intro Malay, the pupil in (36) also used Tamil (this is a Tamil school) in move [473] to explain the meaning of "excitedly" besides the Malay word " sorak-sorak" in move [474]. In (37), the teacher asked the pupil the meaning of the word "pat" in Tamil as can be seen in move [489] and the pupil answered in Tamil in move [490]. In (38), the pupil answered in Tamil in giving explanation of the word "orphanage" then the teacher explained the meaning again in English [106]. She also asked the pupils the meaning of "orphans" in Malay instead of in English in move [109] and the pupil answered in Malay in moves [110] and [111]. Interestingly in (39) the teacher explained what verbs are in Tamil [422] and in Malay [423].

l) Jokes

Although jokes and humor in the classrooms can make the pupils relax, they are used very rarely in the classrooms. It takes the teachers' wittiness to spontaneously create jokes related to the lessons such as the ones below. Only 2/3602 utterances are considered as jokes with 1in text 1, 1 in text 2 and none in text 3.

(40)
T: [1036] We have here?
[1037] Sing?'
P: [1038] Yes.
T: [1039] Where?
[1040] Here?
[1041] Over here?
[1042] Class?
[1043] Sing aa..S.I.N.G sing..not Singh aa not the Punjabi Singh.
P: [1044] *(Laugh)*
(Source: Text 2)
(41)

T: [373] Waa, he wants an…?
P: [374] I want an aeroplane.
T: [375] Aeroplane.
[376] Ok. as a fairy, I'll give him a toy aeroplane.
[377] Next time aa…
(Source: Text 1)

There were only 2 jokes that emerged in the 3 lessons. One was in (40) where the teacher said "Sing aa..S.I.N.G sing..not Singh aa not the Punjabi Singh" in move [1044] which created laughter among the pupils. The other was in (41) where the teacher said in move [376] "Ok. As a fairy, I'll give him a toy aeroplane" and moved on to say in move [377] "Next time aa…"

V. Pupils Practices

As for the pupils' practices, the common ones are answering, repeating and questioning. Correcting was also detected in this study, which is rare in Malaysian classrooms. The findings are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
STUDENT PRACTICES

Practices	Text 1	Text 2	Text 3	Total
Answering	202/1055	199/1329	156/1218	557/3602
Repeating	29/1055	73/1329	0/1218	102/3602
Questioning	1/1055	4/1329	7/1218	12/3602
Correcting T	0/1055	1/1329	0/1218	1/3602

a) Answering

As for the pupils' practices, basically their main role in the classrooms were answering the teachers' questions with a total of 557/3602 utterances. In text 1, 202 of the utterances were the pupils answering the teachers' questions, 199 in text 2 and 156 in text 3. Answers were basically one word answers which were very straight forward and do not require the pupils to think creatively.

(42)
T: [78] Louder ah, you must speak loud.
[79] What is this?
[80] What is this?
P: [81] Hand... (*not clear*)
T: [82] Hand ah… hand… so?
P & T: [83] (*Not clear*)
T: [84] *Cincin* ah?
P: [85] *Cincin*.
T: [86] Ok. What is this?
P: [87] Ring.
(Source: Text 1)

(43)
T: [138] Ok ah, what is the title of the story?
P: [139] The Golden Touch.
T: [140] Again?
P: [141] The Golden Touch.
T: [142] The Golden?
P: [143] Touch.
T: [144] Touch
(Source: Text 1)

(44)
T: [474] Everyday Meena and Getha come to school by bus.
[475] Yesterday Meena and Getha?
P: [476] went!
T: [477] Come becomes?
P: [478] Came!
T: [479] Came..came to school by?
[480] Bus.
(Source: Text 2)

(45)
T: [105] Yes, anybody?
[106] Isyazwan, what is that?

P: [107] Vast..*(wrong pronunciation)*
T: [108] Aa?
P: [109] Vase.. ..*(wrong pronunciation)*
T: [110] Vase?
[111] Its not a vase, its not a vase.
[112] It's a… Roshan?
P: [113] Jug.
T: [114] It's a jug aa.
[115] It's a…?
S: [116] Jug.
T: [117] Jug.
(Source: Text 3)

In answering the teachers' questions, most answers were one word answer as can be seen in (42) moves [81] and [87]. The same goes in (43) move [143], in (44) moves [476] and [478]. In (45), the one word answers can be seen in moves [107], [113], and [116].

b) Repeating

There are instances where teachers modeled the correct pronunciation of the words and required the pupils to repeat after them. This practice is revealed in 102/3602 of the utterances with 29 utterances in text 1, 73 in text 2 and none in text 3.

(46)
T: [257] Old folks' home
Ps: [258] Old folks' home
T: [259] On the
Ps: [260] On the
T: [261] 19th of
Ps: [262] 19th of
T: [263] October
Ps: [264] October
T: [265] 2007
Ps: [266] 2007
(Source: Text 2)

(47)
T: [1089] Wash.
P: [1090] Wash.
T: [1091] Washed.
P: [1092] Washed.
T: [1093] Walk.
P: [1094] Walk.
T: [1095] Walked.
P: [1096] Walked.
(Source: Text 2)

(48)
T: [573] Ok, read the first one..*(Reading the dialogue and P follow)*
[574] Read la.. *(Reading the dialogue and P follow)*
[575] Ok, how you read emotionally?
[576] How you read? *(Reading the dialogue and P follow)*
[577] Ok, second one. *(Reading the dialogue and P follow)*
(Source: Text 1)

In (46), it can be seen that the pupils repeated every word the teacher said from moves [257] to [266] and from moves [1089] to [1096] in (47). As for (48), the pupils read after the teacher in moves [573], [574] [576] and [577].

c) Questioning

Questioning here refers to utterances which are made by the pupils in asking the teachers. Only 12/3602 utterances were questions made by the pupils. 1 from text 1, 4 from text 2, 7 from text 3.

(49)
T: [594] Write beside here.
[595] Eyy..Here the story.
P: [596] Match?
T: [597] Aaa.
[598] Match to the… no, no you don't have to draw lines.. just number.
[699] Just put the number aa.. put on the day.

(Source: Text 1)

(50)

T: [700] Certain words aa.they don't change.
[701] Any change from present tense to past tense.
[702] Some, the pronounciation is changes but the spelling is the same.
P: [703] Teacher, cut?
T: [704] Cut never change.

(Source: Text 2)

(51)

T: [374] What other words you don't understand?
[375] Yes?
[376] Look at the look at the story again, any words you don't understand?
[377] You can put up your hands.
[378] Yes?
S: [379] Soon. *(wrong pronounciation)*
[380] S.O.O.N.
T: [381] S?
S: [382] O.O.N.
T: [383] S.O.O.N.
[384] Soon.
[385] Ok, S.O.O.N.

(Source: Text 3)

In (49), the pupil in move [596] asked the teacher for confirmation as to what they were supposed to do and the teacher affirmed it in move [597]. In move [703], we can see that the pupil questioned the teacher the past tense form of the word 'cut' where the teacher in returned explained in move [704] that the spelling of 'cut' does not change. Another example is in (51) where the teacher asked if there were words that the pupils did not understand and the pupil in move [379] asked the teacher the meaning of the word 'soon'.

d) Correcting Teacher

It is a very rare occasion where we find a pupil brave enough to correct a teacher in a classroom. There is one instance where a pupil corrected a teacher as shown below. It happened in text 2.

(52)

P: [287] Teacher!
T: [288] Yes?
P: [289] Francis..Live..Melaka..teacher.
T: [290] Yes?
P: [291] Number 1.
T: [292] Owh..sorry, class..number 1 aa.. where does Francis lives?
[293] Where does Francis lives?
Ps: [294] Francis lives in Kuala Lumpur.
T: [295] Aa..who is staying in Kuala Lumpur?
Ps: [296] Kim Seng.
Ps: [297] Kim Seng.
T: [298] Kim Seng.
[299] The letter was written by Francis, so, Francis lives in?
Ps: [300] Jalan Tamarind..
T: [301] Ok..Jalan Tamarind, Melaka.
[302] Ok, Francis lives in Melaka.
[302] Who lives in Kuala Lumpur?
Ps: [303] Kim Seng.

(Source: Text 2)

Here, one pupil realized that the teacher gave the wrong answer for No. 1 and the pupil corrected the teacher in move [289]. The teacher then re-examined the content of the letter to figure out who wrote it and realized that the pupil was right. This happened throughout moves [292] until [303].

VI. Conclusion

The analysis depicts the real situations in the classrooms. From the teachers and pupils practices observed and analysed in English language classrooms, the teaching and learning of English language in Malaysia is still teacher oriented where teachers used mostly questioning, informing, instructing, accepting, modelling and correcting. Students were only given the opportunities to answer one word answer and repeat after the teacher. Nevertheless, there are still

rooms for improvement on some of the ways in which teachers normally carry out their lessons, giving more opportunity for the pupils in practicing using the language in more meaningful ways.

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On the Validity of the Group Embedded Figure Test (GEFT)

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***Abstract*—The cognitive styles of Field Independence/Dependence (FI/D) and the scores obtained from the Group Embedded Figure Test (GEFT) have been theoretically and empirically studied and analyzed mostly descriptively rather than critically. It has been claimed, among other things, that FIs are better at learning and using rules and prefer deductive learning. FDs, on the other hand, tend to look at the whole of a learning task and prefer inductive learning. At a personal level, it has been asserted that FI learners are mainly introvert and their FD counterparts are extrovert. This study was conducted to investigate the validity of these claims. A total of 60 adult students served as the subjects for the study. GEFT was employed to measure each student's FI/D cognitive style. An Introversion/Extroversion questionnaire was used to determine whether the subjects of the study were introvert or extrovert. Finally, a deductive and an inductive grammar Consciousness-Raising (C-R) task were utilized to determine the subjects' attitudes towards the tasks. Pearson Chi-Square test was conducted to examine the above-mentioned claims. The results showed no relationship between the learners' FI/D cognitive style and their Introvert/Extrovert variable as well as their inductive and deductive learning preference. It seems that scores on the GEFT are indicators of ability, especially in the visuo-spatial domain, rather than style measures.**

***Index Terms*—field independence/dependence, cognitive style, introvert/extrovert, inductive/deductive consciousness-raising task, Group Embedded Figure Test**

I. Introduction

Habieb-Mammer et al. (2001) classify the individual learning styles into three categories which are, affective, cognitive, and physiological styles. Although cognitive styles are within the realm of psychology, they are especially valuable in education, and the research on cognitive styles is applicable not only to a wide range of psychological issues, but also to education.

According to Habieb-Mammer et al. (2001) cognitive styles act as powerful variables in many educational areas such as the students' academic choices and vocational preferences, the students' continuing academic development, the students' learning and teachers' teaching and the way students and teachers interact in the classroom. Cognitive styles refer to the preferred ways individuals adopt for the perception, organization, analysis, or recollection of information and experience. They also refer to the preferred way an individual processes information. Unlike individual differences in abilities which describe peak performance, styles describe a person's typical mode of thinking, remembering or problem solving. Furthermore, styles are usually considered to be bipolar dimensions whereas abilities are unipolar. Having more of an ability is usually considered beneficial while having a particular cognitive style simply denotes a tendency to behave in a certain manner. Cognitive style is usually described as a personality dimension which influences attitudes, values, and social interaction. There are various definitions for cognitive style. Brown (1987, P. 84) defines cognitive style as: "the way we learn things in general and the particular attack we make on a problem seems to hinge on a rather amorphous link between personality and cognition". This link is referred to as cognitive style.

A number of cognitive styles have been identified and studied over the years. Field Independence (FI) versus Field Dependence (FD) is probably the most well known style. It refers to a tendency to approach the environment in an analytical, as opposed to global, fashion.

II. Review of Literature

A. Field Independent/Dependent Cognitive Styles

During the 1970s, the literature on psychology received the new term of FI/D. FI/D cognitive styles refer to particular ways of processing information. Witkin et al. (1977) have proposed that a contrast can be made between analytic and holistic (Gestalt) individuals. When the analytic group is faced with a situation in which decision-making is necessary,

they are more able to break a problem into its components in order to choose the components which are more significant for making the right decision and concentrate on them. To put it in other words, they have the gift to decompose a whole into constituent elements that leaves them with the opportunity to focus on, transform, and generally manipulate the constituents independently of one another. The downside to these qualities is that these people are likely to be aloof and not gregarious, which results in a less effective relationship with others (Skehan, 1998). FD individuals, on the other hand, see the world as an unanalyzed whole and do not tend to attend any part of it selectively. They are deemed to be person-oriented, interested in people and sensitive to them. Brown (1987, P. 85) defines FI as "your ability to perceive a particular, relevant item or factor in a field of distracting items". People termed FI, are more analytic, and learn effectively when confronted with a body of material to be assimilated. Brown (1987, P. 85) points out that "field may be perceptual or it may be abstract in referring to a set of thoughts, ideas, or feelings from which your task is to perceive specific relevant subsets". The FI person tends to articulate figures as discrete items from their background and to easily differentiate objects from embedding contexts. FI (or analytical) individuals have more facility with tasks requiring differentiation and analysis. Brown (1987, P. 85) defines FD style as: "the tendency to be dependent on the total field such that the parts embedded within the field are not easily perceived, though that total field is perceived more clearly as a unified whole". FD people tend to experience events globally in an undifferentiated fashion. Theses people tend to identify with a group, exhibiting a social orientation in which they are more perceptive and sensitive to social characteristics such as names and faces than are FD persons, but they are also more susceptible to external influence and more markedly affected by isolation from other people.

B. Field Independent/Dependent Cognitive Styles and Language Learning

Different studies have identified a number of connections between FI/D cognitive styles and language learning. For example, Abraham (1985, cited in Ranalli, 2001) claimed that analytic or field independent learners preferred and did better in a deductive method of learning. She concluded that subjects with the higher GEFT scores performed better on deductive learning.

Brown (1987) also proposed two hypotheses regarding the relationships of FI/D cognitive styles and language learning. In his first hypothesis he stated that field independence is closely related to classroom learning that involves analysis, attention to details, and mastering of exercises, drills, and other focused activities. Other researchers' findings provided some evidence for Brown's first hypothesis. Naiman et al. (1987) found in a study that there was a strong link between field-independence and success in the classroom. Brown (1987), in his second hypothesis, suggested that primarily FD persons will, by virtue of their empathy, social outreach, perception of other people, be successful in learning the communicative aspects of language. Abraham's findings were in line with Brown's second hypothesis, too. Brown believed that despite favoring one particular style, learners may switch to another in some circumstances. Therefore, the learners are supposed to invoke the appropriate style for the context, and teachers should try to understand the preferred style of each learner. However, it is believed that instead of developing particular cognitive style, learners should be challenged to develop a range of styles. This belief lays heavy stress on the diversification of instruction.

At a personal level, as Dornyei and Skehan (2003), Skehan (1998), and many others put it, FI learners are aloof and would prefer to find solutions to problems for themselves. These learners are not sociable and prefer to learn individually. FD learners, in contrast, are sociable and work well in groups. They are inclined to interact more and seek out more contact with other users of the second language. According to Davis (2006) field dependent individuals are typically extrovert, extrinsically motivated, and influenced by peer groups and authority figures. Field independent individuals typically possess less effective social skills, are typically introvert, intrinsically motivated, prefer competition, choice of activities, and ability to design studies and work structure.

C. Group Embedded Figure Test (GEFT)

Witkin and his associates (1971) have developed various pencil-and-paper tests to investigate FI/D of the learners. Group Embedded Figure Test (GEFT) is the most widely used version in the Second Language Acquisition research. According to Skehan (1998), subjects are provided with a booklet with simple visual figures embedded inside progressively more complicated visual figures. The subjects are expected to locate the hidden simple form or figure in the more complex one in a given time (12 minutes). It is supposed that those who tend to rely on external cues are less able to find the simple figures so are FD, and those who rely on internal cues are more able to find figures, hence, FI. There are 18 complex figures in the GEFT, each with an embedded simple figure. Based on the number of correct answers given by students, the scores on GEFT may range from 0 (the most FD) to 18 (the most FI). Apart from the initial booklet pages that contain rigorous directions along with some examples to illustrate the procedure for subjects, this test has three sections: The first section is intended to make students familiar with the test, and the other two parts are the body of the GEFT. The first section which has a time limit of 2 minutes includes 7 easy problems for practice, and the items in this section are not included in the total score. The real task begins at the second set and into the third one, where the test takers have to make their challenging inquiries in each 9-itemed set within the time limit of five minutes for each. Those who score above 12 out of 18 are labeled as FI and those with a score of 11 and less than 11 are branded as FD cognitive stylists.

III. Objectives of the Study

GEFT has been used and is being used widely in the Second Language Acquisition research to determine learners' FI/D cognitive style. At a personal level, FI learners are aloof and would like to work individually, and FD learners are more sociable and prefer group working. In other words, FI learners are expected to be more introvert, and FD learners to be more extrovert. As a result, the primary focus of this study is to see whether there is any correlation between FI/D variable determined by GEFT and Introvert/Extrovert variable of the learners specified by personality type questionnaire of Introversion/Extroversion.

Abraham (1985, cited in Ranalli, 2001) and other researchers found correlations between field independence and a preference for deductive approaches, and field dependence and a preference for inductive learning. Thus, the secondary focus of the study is investigating Iranian learners' inductive and deductive C–R learning preference on the basis of their FI/D cognitive style. With regard to the objectives of the study the following research questions were formed:

1- Is there any relationship between subjects' FI/D cognitive style and the result of the Introversion/Extroversion test?

2- Is there any correlation between subjects' FI/D cognitive style and their inductive/deductive learning preference?

IV. Method

A. Participants

A total of 60 adult students, 18 males and 42 females who were taking General English Course at Allame Qotb Ravandi Institute, served as the subjects for the present study. Their age ranged between 20 to 35 and they were learning English for different purposes. They were mainly university students, professional people, and housewives.

B. Introversion/Extroversion Questionnaire

In psychology two fundamentally different types of personality exist: extroverts and introverts. Extrovert is a type of personality (or behavior) that is oriented outside, for surroundings. Introvert is a type of personality (or behavior) that is oriented inside or to oneself. Most of us are introverts or extroverts by nature, but we all display either introverted or extroverted personality characteristics at different times. For instance, you may be an introvert in a group of strangers and an extrovert at home with your family. However, most people exhibit stronger tendencies one way or another, towards either the introvert or extrovert side of the spectrum.

Many different questionnaires are available in the literature through which we can find out whether we are inclined towards the introvert or extrovert side of the spectrum. In this study, the Introversion/Extroversion Questionnaire used in Douglas Brown (2001) was employed to examine research questions.

C. Deductive and Inductive Consciousness-Raising(C-R) Task

A grammar point suitable for the subjects of the study was selected (Relative Clause), and a deductive and inductive C-R task were designed. There are a lot of C-R tasks available in the literature of C-R (Ellis, 2002; Mohamed, 2004). Therefore, in designing the tasks a great attempt was made to closely follow their format. Both tasks were designed to be performed individually.

D. Task Evaluation Questionnaire

The task evaluation questionnaire was aimed at examining the learners' attitudes towards, and opinions about, the tasks. It consisted of two questions. After completing the tasks, the learners were asked to say whether they preferred to learn English grammar mostly by Method A (inductive C-R task), or Method B (deductive C-R task).

E. Instrumentation

The following steps were taken for data collection. At first, the GEFT was used to determine learners' FI/D cognitive style. The procedures for the administration of GEFT strictly followed the directions included in the manual. However, a brief explanation was added in Persian to make sure that the subjects had grasped the instructions. There were two items in the directions to illustrate the procedure. Having finished with the directions, the subjects began the first section that consisted of 7 items with a time limit of 2 minutes. As mentioned earlier, that section was only for practice, and the scores obtained were not counted in the total scoring. The researcher then gave the go-ahead for beginning the second section that included 9 items and stopped the subjects when the 5 specified minutes were over. The same procedure was then conducted with the 9-itemed third section of the booklet. Those who scored above 12 out of 18 were labeled as FI, and those with a score of 11 and less than 11 were branded as FD cognitive stylists. Then the participants were invited to take Introversion/ Extroversion test (Appendix A). This test included 15 questions. Finally, the learners were presented with an inductive and deductive grammar C-R task (Appendix B). A brief instruction was given to the students to make them familiar with these types of tasks and they became familiar with the procedures of completing the tasks. Without setting a time limit, the learners started with Method A and then proceeded on to Method B. The significant point here is that this instruction was not intended to influence the learners' preferences. Care was taken to remove the researcher from the process so that the students' preferences not be influenced by him. In all sections of the data collection, the researcher's role was limited to a facilitator. Immediately after completing inductive and deductive

grammar C-R tasks, students were given a task evaluation questionnaire (Appendix C). They were required to select one of the choices in the questionnaire by ticking the response which was quite appropriate for them.

V. FINDINGS

To account for the first research question of the study, the number of FD and FI subjects was counted. As is evident from Table 5.1. below, from among 60 subjects who had participated in the study, 23 learners or 38.3% of the subjects, after taking the GEFT, were labeled FD, and 37 participants or 61.7% of the subjects were regarded as FI. From Personality Type point of view, 32 subjects or 53.3% of the participants were extrovert and 28 subjects or 46.7% of the participants were introvert. Within FD group, 13 subjects or 21.7% of the participants were extrovert and 10 subjects or 16.7% of the participants were known as introvert. Within FI group, 19 subjects or 31.7% of the participants turned out to be extrovert and 18 subjects or 30.0% of the participants were introvert.

TABLE I
COGNITIVE STYLE-PERSONALITY TYPE CROSSTABULATION

			Personality Type		Total
			E	I	
cognitive style	FD	Count	13	10	23
		Expected Count	12.3	10.7	23.0
		% within cognitive style	56.5%	43.5%	100.0%
		% within Personality Type	40.6%	35.7%	38.3%
		% of Total	21.7%	16.7%	38.3%
	FI	Count	19	18	37
		Expected Count	19.7	17.3	37.0
		% within cognitive style	51.4%	48.6%	100.0%
		% within Personality Type	59.4%	64.3%	61.7%
		% of Total	31.7%	30.0%	61.7%
Total		Count	32	28	60
		Expected Count	32.0	28.0	60.0
		% within cognitive style	53.3%	46.7%	100.0%
		% within Personality Type	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	53.3%	46.7%	100.0%

A Pearson Chi-Square test was conducted to examine the relationship between the learners' FI/D cognitive style and their status of being introvert and extrovert. As the following table illustrates, the result of the Pearson Chi-Square test is 0.901 which is more than 0.05 level. Therefore, we can claim that there is no relationship between learners' FI/D cognitive style and their personality type of being introvert or extrovert.

TABLE II
CHI-SQUARE TESTS

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.152(b)	1	.696		
Continuity Correction(a)	.015	1	.901		
Likelihood Ratio	.153	1	.696		
Fisher's Exact Test				.793	.451
N of Valid Cases	60				

In order to investigate the second research question of the study, it was felt necessary to inspect closely the FI/D learners' task preference. The following table speaks for itself:

TABLE III
COGNITIVE STYLE-TASK TYPE CROSSTABULATION

			Task type		Total
			A	B	
cognitive style	FD	Count	6	17	23
		Expected Count	7.7	15.3	23.0
		% within cognitive style	26.1%	73.9%	100.0%
		% within Task type	30.0%	42.5%	38.3%
		% of Total	10.0%	28.3%	38.3%
	FI	Count	14	23	37
		Expected Count	12.3	24.7	37.0
		% within cognitive style	37.8%	62.2%	100.0%
		% within Task type	70.0%	57.5%	61.7%
		% of Total	23.3%	38.3%	61.7%
Total		Count	20	40	60
		Expected Count	20.0	40.0	60.0
		% within cognitive style	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
		% within Task type	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%

As it is evident from the above table, from among 23 FD participants, 6 subjects or 10.0% of the FD learners preferred task A and 17 subjects or 28.3% of them selected task B. From among 37 subjects who were branded as FI, 14 subjects or 23.3% of the FI subjects favored task A and 23 participants or 38.3% of them selected task B. A Pearson Chi-Square test was conducted to examine the relationship between the learners' FI/D cognitive style and their inductive and deductive C-R task preference. As the following table illustrates, the result of the Pearson Chi-Square test is 0.511 which is more than 0.05 level. Therefore, we can state that the learners' FI/D cognitive style had no effect on their task preference.

TABLE IV
CHI-SQUARE TESTS

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.881(b)	1	.348		
Continuity Correction(a)	.432	1	.511		
Likelihood Ratio	.898	1	.343		
Fisher's Exact Test				.408	.257
N of Valid Cases	60				

VI. Conclusion and Discussion

In recent years there have been several issues in applied linguistics which have provoked quite radical disagreements. Although we are inclined to be in awe of well-known scholars and usually find it difficult to challenge their ideas, past experience has taught us that sometimes scholars, even the best known ones, are fallible. Likewise, we should appreciate that uncertainty is part of academic life, at least in the humanities, and achieving consensus is not always what we desire. Controversies are sometimes opportunities for ongoing and further development.

In the light of the results of this limited study, it does not seem advisable to make strong claims. Research, on larger scales, should be replicated and conducted so that more consistent and reliable information become available. However, some cautious conclusions might be drawn: GEFT is one of many measures of mental ability, not cognitive style.

The concept of cognitive style has been theoretically and empirically studied and analyzed mostly descriptively rather than critically for more than four decades now, and the cognitive styles of FI/D have been shown in a number of studies to be related to second language learning. Field independence/dependence typically are referred to as variables of cognitive style and believed to affect the process of perception, thinking, and problem solving. A field independent person perceives analytically, while a field dependent person perceives holistically. FIs are better at learning and using rules and prefer deductive learning. FDs, on the other hand, tend to look at the whole of a learning task which contains many items and prefer inductive learning. At a personal level, it has been claimed that FI learners are introvert and their FD counterparts are extrovert. But the result of this study does not support these claims because no correlation was found between subjects' FI/D cognitive style and the result of Introversion/Extroversion test and their inductive/deductive learning preference. It seems that scores on the GEFT are indicators of ability, especially in the visuo-spatial domain, rather than style measures and we should try to find their relationship with general intelligence and as Griffiths and Sheen (1992) put it, FI/D does not have any relevance for second language learning.

Appendix A Extroversion/Introversion Test

Take the following self-test and score yourself according to the directions at the end. You must circle either a or b, even if you have a hard time placing yourself into one or the other.

1. I usually like ……
a. mixing with people
b. working alone

2. I'm more inclined to be…..
a. fairly reserved
b. pretty easy to approach

3. I'm happiest when I'm …..
a. alone
b. with other people

4. At a party, I ….
a. interact with many, including strangers.
b. interact with a few people I know.

5. In my social contacts and groups, I usually ….
a. fall behind on the news.
b. keep abreast of what's happening with others.

6. I can usually do something better by ….
a. figuring it out on my own.
b. talking with others about it.

7. My usual pattern when I'm with other people is to …..
a. be open and frank, and take risks.
b. keep to myself and not be very open.

8. When I make friends, usually ……
a. someone else makes the first move.
b. I make the first move.

9. I would rather ……
a. be at home on my own.
b. go to a boring party.

10. Interaction with people I don't know ……
a. stimulates and energizes me.
b. taxes my reserves.

11. In a group of people, I usually ……
a. wait to be approached.
b. initiate conversation.

12. When I'm by myself, I usually feel a sense of …….
a. solitude and peacefulness.
b. loneliness and uneasiness.

13. In a classroom situation, I prefer …..
a. group work, interacting with others.
b. individual work.

14. When I get into a quarrel or argument, I prefer to …..
a. remain silent, hoping the issue resolve itself or blow over.
b. "have it out" and settle the issue then and there.

15. When I try to put deep or complex thought into words, I usually …..
a. have quite a hard time.

b. do so fairly easily.

Scoring procedure: Mark an X corresponding to your choices in the grid below.

	a	b
1		
4		
7		
10		
13		
Total		

+

	a	**b**
2		
5		
8		
11		
14		

+

	a	**b**
3		
6		
9		
12		
15		

=

Add up the number of Xs in ONLY three of the columns, as indicated. (Ignore all other Xs). Total those three numbers to get a grand total and write it in the box at the right. This is your score for the test. Here's how to interpret your score:

13 and above: quite extroverted
9 to 12: moderately extroverted
7 or 8: moderately introverted
6 and below: quite introverted

APPENDIX B RELATIVE CLAUSE TASK (METHOD A)

1. Look at the following sentences. These sentences contain relative clauses. The relative clauses are in italics, the prepositions are underlined, and the relative pronouns are in bold.
2. You need to work on these sentences carefully. Some of these sentences are correct and some of them are incorrect.
3. Why are incorrect sentences unacceptable?
4. Write down a sentence of your own for each of these rules.

A) The dictionary ***which*** *is on the table* is mine. (Correct)
The dictionary ***who*** *is on the table* is mine. (Incorrect)
The girl ***who*** *is crying* is my sister. (Correct)
The girl ***which*** *is crying* is my sister. (Incorrect)

Explanation of the incorrect sentences: The pronoun …….. is used for people, and the pronoun …….. is used for things.

Your own sentences:

……

B) The boy ***who*** *likes English* speaks well. (Correct)
The boy ***who*** *he likes English* speaks well. (Incorrect)
I like flowers ***which*** *bloom in spring*. (Correct)
I like flowers ***which*** *they bloom in spring.* (Incorrect)

Explanation of the incorrect sentences:

Your own sentence:

……

C) He is the person *<u>from</u>* ***whom*** *I got the letter.* (Correct)
He is the person *<u>from</u>* ***whom*** *I got the letter from.* (Incorrect)
The book *<u>in</u>* ***which*** *you wrote* is mine. (Correct)
The book *<u>in</u>* ***which*** *you wrote in* is mine. (Incorrect)

Explanation of the incorrect sentences: Don't use prepositions both at the …… and at the ……. Of the clauses.

Your own sentence:

……

D) These are the books ***which*** *I told you about.* (Correct)
These are the books ***which*** *I told you about them.* (Incorrect)
The man ***who*** *you were talking to* is my uncle. (Correct)
The man ***who*** *you were talking to him* is my uncle. (Incorrect)

Explanation of the incorrect sentences: Don't use personal pronouns at the ……. of the clause.

Your own sentence: ……

Relative Clause Tack (Method B)

Read the following information about using relative clauses. Then make sentences of your own. The relative clause in each example is in italics. The prepositions are underlined. The relative pronouns are in bold.

A) If the relative pronoun is "which" or "whom", the proposition can be used either at the front of the clause or at the end of the clause.

Example: The house *in* ***which*** *we live* is pink. (Correct)
The house ***which*** *we live in* is pink. (Correct)
That is the person *from* ***whom*** *I got the letter.* (Correct)
That is the person ***whom*** *I got the letter from.* (Correct)
Now write one sentence of your own, using this rule.
……..

B) The proposition cannot be used both at the front of the pronoun and at the end of the clause in the same sentence.

Example: The girl *to* ***whom*** *you gave the message to* is not here. (Incorrect)
The girl ***whom*** *you gave the message to* is not here. (Correct)
The girl *to* ***whom*** *you gave the message* is not here. (Correct)
Now write one sentence of your own, using this rule.
……

C) If the relative pronoun is "who" or "that", the proposition cannot be placed in front of it , but will need to be used at the end of the clause.

Example: The man *at* ***who*** *I shouted* is deaf. (Incorrect)
The man ***who*** *I shouted at* is deaf. (Correct)
The place *about* ***that*** *Jenny spoke* is Singapore. (Incorrect)
The place ***that*** *Jenny spoke about* is Singapore. (Correct)
Now write one sentence of your own, using this rule.
……

D) Remember not to repeat pronouns in a relative clause.

Example: These are the books *about* ***which*** *I told you it.* (Incorrect)
These are the books *about* ***which*** *I told you.* (Correct)
The man ***who*** *you were talking to him* is my uncle. (Incorrect)
The man ***who*** *you were talking to* is my uncle. (Correct)
Now write one sentence of your own, using this rule.
……

APPENDIX C TASK EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Select one of the choices below by ticking (√) the response which is the most appropriate for you. Also write a short explanation for your answer.

When studying grammar in class, I prefer ……

--------- to learn new grammar mostly by method A, because ……
--------- to learn new grammar mostly by method B, because ……
---------- to learn new grammar sometimes by method A, and sometimes by method B, because …….

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Semantic Frame and EVT for Chinese EFL Learners

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***Abstract*—Vocabulary teaching has become the top priority in language teachers' agenda. Though a great amount of efforts have been plunged into vocabulary teaching, few amounts of achievements have been reached for lack of efficient vocabulary teaching model, particularly for Chinese EFL learners at university level. This paper, from the perspective of frame semantics, recommends semantic frame as an English vocabulary teaching model and finds that semantic frame will contribute to English vocabulary teaching in three aspects, namely word accumulation, word in long-term memory, and accumulation of pragmatic knowledge.**

***Index Terms*—semantic frame, English vocabulary teaching, Chinese EFL learners**

I. Introduction

English vocabulary teaching (EVT) plays an important role in English language Teaching (ELT). For a language learner, no matter how well he acquires grammar, how well he pronounces that language, he cannot, without vocabulary, carry out verbal communication with other people. It is mostly agreed that teaching vocabulary is the basis for the improvement in other language aspects. (Richards, 1976; Linnarud, 1986; Nation, 1990; Lewis, 1993; Schmitt & McCarthy, 2002; Wolter, 2006; Xu, 2010)

New *College English Curriculum Requirements* (2004) issued by the Ministry of Education of the P.R.C. requires Chinese EFL learners at university level to have a command of 6,500 English words and 1,700 phrases. But correlated statistical data indicated that most non-English majors have a vocabulary of 5,000 and are not proficient at them. The insufficient acquisition of vocabulary considerably hinders their mastering of the five skills of listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating prescribed in the college curriculum for English teaching.

This paper, based on Frame Semantics, addresses the question of how to make Chinese EFL learners at university level improve their English vocabulary with high efficiency. By examining the mechanism of vocabulary acquisition and semantic frame, I intend to solve the following research questions:

1) Why semantic frame facilitates EVT for Chinese EFL learners?
2) In what aspects semantic frame benefits English EVT for Chinese EFL learners?

II. Literature Review

A. Current Situation in EVT

Vocabulary is a fundamental component of a language system. Krashen (1989) argued that a large vocabulary is essential for mastery of a language, and that lack of vocabulary is a major problem. McCarthy (1990) furthered this idea that no matter how well the student learns the grammar, no matter how successfully he masters the sound of a second language, without vocabulary to express a wide range of meanings, communication in that language cannot take place in any meaningful way. Vermeer (1992) also stated that knowing words is the key to understanding and being understood. Grammatical knowledge does not make sure of great proficiency in a language and the bulk of learning a new language largely consists of learning new vocabulary.

A solid vocabulary is necessary in every stage of language learning. The role of vocabulary in communication calls for continuing vocabulary learning. As Candlin (1988) asserted the study of vocabulary is at the heart of language teaching in terms of organization of syllabus, the evaluation of learner performance and the provision of learning resources. The majority of second language learners take vocabulary as their top priority because they know that the possession of an adequate and appropriate vocabulary is essential for their mastery of that language and effective communication. Thus, we have sound reason to believe that vocabulary functions as the core of a language.

In recent years, more attention has been paid to the vocabulary teaching. More and more scholars are taking interest in EVT and accomplished many encouraging results. (Schmitt, 2000; Hatch & Brown, 2001; Allen, 2002; Schmitt & McCarthy, 2002; Hiebert& Kamil, 2005; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Nation, 2008; Khan, 2008; Graves, 2009) However,

some EFL teachers consider EVT as an isolated task. So students are required just to repeat the new words until they can memorize them. Some others think EVT requires a process of related sub-tasks: when students first come across a new word, they are encouraged to guess its meaning and usage from available clues, or look it up in the dictionary, or take notes on the margins, between the lines, or on particular vocabulary notebooks, and then read the new word repeatedly until they reach a state that they can produce them by intuition. All in all, in order to accomplish the task of EVT, one should spare no efforts to highlight the improvement in both remembering words and the ability to use them automatically in a wide range of language contexts when the need arises. (McCarthy, 1984)

And many findings recently indicated that lexical problems often interfere with communication and communication breaks down when people do not use the proper words. In addition, experienced EFL teachers become to be aware that the importance of vocabulary is in language production. They noticed that even though they had devoted much time to vocabulary teaching, the results had been disappointing. Sometimes, after months or even years of learning English, students still cannot use words in an appropriate way and even cannot recall what had been restored in their memory in a certain situation. That is to say, they cannot produce language by intuition because they haven't exerted vocabulary in their deep memory. If they have, they can extract them from their mind naturally. Therefore, the mastery of the basic linguistic skills in English is the dependent of adequate and solid vocabulary storage.

Dissatisfied with the discouraging result of learning English vocabulary without real discourse situation, some EFL learners are encouraged to try the lexical approach, i.e. a vocabulary-based approach, which emphasizes word combinations. The lexical-approach has proved to be a productive and promising approach for vocabulary teaching based on the theory of semantic field. Through this approach, EFL learners can memorize new words with efficiency and comprehend the exact meanings of words, which is very important and meaningful to them even though it is not easy to accustom them to the lexical-approach within a short period of time. However, there still appear some difficulties such as to find a specific semantic field for each word in the process of vocabulary learning.

For many of EFL teachers and researchers in China, our perspective on teaching vocabulary was greatly influenced by the top-down, naturalistic, and communicative approaches of the 1970s and 1980s. The emphasis was implicit, incidental learning of vocabulary. We were taught the importance of encouraging second language students to look for clues in context, use monolingual dictionaries (which has already been proved not necessary for beginners), and avoid defining words or glossing texts with their bilingual equivalents. Textbooks emphasize inferring word meaning from context as the primary vocabulary skill. Although exposure to a word in a variety of contexts is vital to understanding the detailed senses of a word, providing incidental encounter with words is just one method to ease vocabulary acquisition.

The arguments for not simply focusing on implicit instruction to facilitate second language vocabulary acquisition originate from a number of potential problems associated with inferring words from context. First of all, acquiring vocabulary mainly through guessing words in context is likely to be a very slow process. (Sternberg, 1987) Considering that many Chinese EFL learners have a limited time to acquire a body of words, it is not perhaps the most efficient way to approach the task. Secondly, word meaning guess is an error-finding process. Recent studies have shown students seldom guess the correct meanings. (Pressley, Levin & McDaniel, 1987; Kelly, 1990) Students, particularly those with low-level proficiency in English, are often discouraged with this approach and it is difficult to recover the possible damage by incorrect guess. In addition, even when students are trained to use flexible reading strategies to guess words in context, their comprehension may still be at a low level due to insufficient vocabulary knowledge. (Haynes & Baker, 1993) What's more, if not most importantly, guessing from context often result in easy-come-easy-go state. So we can clearly point out the ineffectiveness of just using implicit vocabulary instruction and the need to accompany it with a much stronger word level or bottom-up approach than had been previously advocated.

In a word, EVT is a fundamental part of English teaching and how to improve EVT mode to cater for the mechanism of vocabulary acquisition is essential to a successful EFL teacher.

B. Characteristics of Chinese EFL Learners

Chinese EFL learners at university level invest much energy into English vocabulary acquisition because English is a compulsory course in every institute of higher education and students in many universities are even required to achieve a passing score in College English Test in order to attain degree.

However, it is still very difficult for them to do well in such a job. They are a large group of people with limited access to authentic English materials and limited access to English native speakers, and they tend to learn a new word without natural English circumstances. As a result, they often have difficulties in the memory and the comprehension of vocabulary, so they can neither easily grasp the exact meanings of a word in different contexts, nor can they use words correctly or naturally in conversation or composition.

Some related statistic data indicated that mistakes in vocabulary that Chinese EFL learners at university level made amount to over 50% of the total errors. The more advanced the Chinese EFL learners are, the fewer grammatical errors but comparatively more vocabulary mistakes they make. The founding also showed that Chinese EFL learners have a limited number of productive vocabularies. Li Rui (2007), after a survey among non-English majors, found that vocabulary problems are the highest compared with other problems, such as grammar problems, cultural problems, pronunciation problems. And most frequently mentioned among vocabulary problems are the limited amount of words, wrong usage of certain lexical items, and incorrect understanding of word meanings. One of his interviewees said "I

always use the same words to express different ideas, because I can't remember other words learned before, even if I remember some of them, I'm not sure of their usage." His two surveys clearly showed that there is an urgent need for EFL teachers to help those Chinese EFL learners expand vocabulary size and improve the strong memory of vocabulary so as to use them in a proper way.

And as we all know, classroom activities which demand deeper processing can be time-consuming in terms of four classes only once a week for non-English majors in Chinese universities. So it is surely not possible for these Chinese EFL learners at university level to acquire all English words required in the classroom. A solution to this contradiction to acquire a large vocabulary in relatively limited time is to find an effective EVT model and to help these learners learn how to acquire English vocabulary on their own with efficiency.

To help improve EVT for Chinese EFL learners at university level, this paper is seeking semantic frame as the guideline for the establishment of an EVT model.

III. Application of Frame Semantic in EVT

A. Theory of Frame Semantics

Frame semantics is a theory that extends linguistic semantics to encyclopedic knowledge developed by Charles J. Fillmore (1982), and it is a further development of his case grammar (1968). The key point is that one can't understand the meaning of a single word without access to all the significant knowledge that relates to that word.

Fillmore illustrates this by offering a frame of commercial transaction. This frame includes a person interested in exchanging money for goods (the Buyer), a person in want of exchanging goods for money (the Seller). The Buyer did or could acquire (the Goods), and the money acquired by the seller (the Money). Under this framework, it's possible to say that the verb BUY focuses on the acts of the Buyer with respect to the Goods, back grounding the Seller and the Money; that the verb SELL focuses on the acts of the Seller with respect to the Goods, back grounding the Buyer and the Money; that the verb PAY focuses on the acts of the Buyer with respect to both the Money and the Seller, back grounding the Goods, and so on, with such verbs as SPEND, COST, CHARGE, and a number of other outsiders to these.

Such description was to point out that no one can be considered to know the meanings of these verbs who did not know the details of the kind of frame which provided the background information and motivation for the categories that these words represent. Its essence lies in that one would not be able to understand the word *sell* without knowing anything about the circumstances of commercial transfer, which at least involves, among other things, a seller, a buyer, goods, money, the relations between the seller and the goods and the money, the relation between the money and the goods, the relation between the buyer and the goods and the money and the like. Thus, a word activates a frame of semantic information relating to the specific concept it refers to.

Although the concept of frame in various fields within cognitive psychology appears to have origins quite independent of linguistics, a semantic frame in this theory is defined as "any system of concepts related in such a way that to understand any one of them you have to understand the whole structure in which it fits; when one of the things in such a structure is introduced into a text, or into a conversation, all of the others are automatically made available." (Fillmore, 1982, p.111)

Frames are based on people's recurring experiences. So the frame of commercial transaction is based on recurring experiences of commercial transaction. Words not only emphasize individual concepts, but also ascertain a specific perspective in which the frame is viewed. For example *sell* is viewed from the perspective of the seller in the situation. The only way in which people can really be said to understand the use to which these meaning-bearing elements are being put in natural utterances is to be familiar with those experiences and institutions and to know why such experiences and institutions provided people with reasons to create the categories expressed by the words.

"Frame semantics offers a particular way of looking at word meanings, as well as a way of characterizing principles for creating new words and phrases, for adding new meanings to words, and for assembling the meanings of elements in a text into the total meaning of the text." (Fillmore, 1982, p.111) Based on the idea of semantic frame and supported by corpus evidence, the Berkeley FrameNet project is created as an on-line lexical resource for English language with its aim documenting the range of semantic and syntactic combinatory possible valences of each word in each of its senses through computer-assisted annotation of illustrations and automatic tables and display of the annotation results. FrameNet can display not only the annotation of the word but also the relations between corresponding words under the frame. Figure 1[①] is a sample output from FrameGrapher available at FrameNet website.

① http://framenet.icsi.berkeley.edu/index.php?option=com_content&task=blogcategory&id=0&Itemid=82

Figure 1 Sample output from FrameGrapher

We can see clear from the above description that semantic frame and its applicable product FrameNet can be very conducive to EVT. With such EVT model, its essential idea that to understand one single word means to understand all the important knowledge that relates to that word and that a different perspective shows a different focus is surely exposing the mechanism of vocabulary acquisition. And it is obvious that vocabulary teaching shall meet that demand.

B. Semantic Frame and EVT

Since vocabulary acquisition occupies such a crucial position in second language acquisition and the main problem for the Chinese EFL learners at university level to improve their English is the shortage of vocabulary, the unclear memory of words and improper use of them, an effective solution to help these university Chinese EFL learners enlarge their vocabulary and acquire English vocabulary with efficiency shall be the focus in the EVT.

The basic idea of semantic frame lies in the following three points. Firstly, the only way in which people can truly be said to understand the use is to understand the whole structure in which it fits (Fillmore, 1982); secondly, when one of the things in a frame is introduced into a text, or into a conversation, all of the others in this frame are automatically made available; and thirdly, "the only way in which people can truly be said to understand the use to which these meaning-bearing elements are being put in actual utterances is to understand those experiences and institutions and to know why such experiences and institutions gave people reasons to create the categories expressed by the words." (Fillmore, 1982, p. 132)

These three points can enlighten EVT in at least three ways. Firstly, semantic frame can be an effective EVT model to help Chinese EFL learners at university level to enlarge their vocabulary because to learn one word means to learn all related words within the same frame. Secondly, semantic frame will help Chinese learners at university level to keep words in the long-term memory because it has already been proved that it is easier to memorize a new word with fore grounded information. And thirdly, semantic frame will help them to produce proper and influent language in conversation or composition because a semantic frame assembles those words or phrases within a certain topic, which will surely help those university Chinese EFL learners retrieve proper words on certain occasion.

Semantic Frame and Word Enlargement: Some corresponding research has already shown that small vocabulary size is an obstacle to language production. An effective way to help enlarge vocabulary is to employ semantic frame during vocabulary teaching. For non-English majors, EFL teachers shall highlight the role of semantic frame in EVT.

Semantic frame, in one aspect, is also a word net that collects almost all related words. If an EFL teacher wants to teach a new English word, he needs to teach the background of this word, including its related words. And from different perspective, different words would be highlighted. For example, if someone wants to know the word *communicator* in the semantic frame COMMUNICATION, he will have to know the word *communicate*, *communication*, *topic*, *medium* and so on. By teaching one word, he lets the learners get full access to other related words and phrases, which will surely help them to acquire other new words or keep the words that they already knew to a deeper memory. What's more, if he encounters a new word in a frame, this word, so called the element of the frame, may lead him to another frame since frames are also connected by certain node (some words belong to different frames, thus they function as node connecting deferent frames).

Semantic Frame and Words in Long-term Memory: We all know that cognitive processing involves three kinds of memory, the short-term memory, the working memory, and the long term memory. The short term memory refers to that people have the ability to remember a limited number of information for a short period of time up to a few seconds. Memory of this sort involves keeping series of numbers like phone number as long as you repeat it. Concentrating on words long enough to perform operations on them is the function of working memory. Unlike working memory with limited capacity and no permanent content, long-term memory has a larger capacity and information is stored durably. Cognitive processing system plays an important role in deciding whether new information comes into long-term memory. The interaction of working and long-term memory is also vital for language production. So for the Chinese EFL learners at university level, their failure to possess a large English vocabulary does not lie in lack of efforts in vocabulary acquisition but in failure to find a good acquisition mode to move word information to long-term memory.

Exposure to a word in context and understanding its semantic relations with corresponding language component are crucial to full understanding its meaning. "People pick up much of their vocabulary knowledge from context." (Schmitt & McCarthy, 2002, p. 69) Krashen (1989) argues that "language learners acquire vocabulary and spelling most efficiently by receiving comprehensible input while reading" (p. 440) and "successful language learning results from comprehensible input as the essential external ingredient coupled with a powerful internal language acquisition device"

(p. 440). That is to say, in order to keep vocabulary in long-term memory so as to retrieve them proficiently and use them properly in conversation and composition, one shall try to acquire words in context.

Semantic frame not only provides the background information about a word, but also its semantic relations with other components. If an EFL teacher wants to help learners acquire the word *charge* in the frame COMMERCIAL TRANSACTION, he would try to make them understand the situation in which a transaction is taking place. And he will also help them find its semantic relations with other components in this frame, like *seller*, *buyer*, and *money* and so on. Such kind of information will surely promote his memory of the word *charge*.

And from different perspective, different component will be highlighted. The word *charge* in the frame COMMERCIAL TRANSACTION is to highlight the process of taking *money* from the perspective of *sellers*. The element *money* in this frame is highlighted from the perspective of *transaction means*. This is also to say every element in a frame shall be strengthened from certain perspective. And those words that are profiled will leave the learner deep impression, which is also helpful to long-term memory of those words.

Semantic Frame and Accumulation of Pragmatic Knowledge: Language is used for human communications. So the ultimate goal of EVT is to help learners organize those lexical units into correct discourses which will promote proper communication. Factors such as topic, style, register, the status of the speaker and hearer will have great influence on the proper use of vocabulary. If someone lacks of pragmatic competence of a word, even with a good command of linguistic knowledge or that word, he will probably use that word in an inappropriate way, hence causing the communication failure.

Semantic frame in some sense is a word collection within the same topic. In such a way, these participants in a semantic frame build a potential natural communication situation in which factors that involved in proper communication are displayed probably in a hidden way. Chinese EFL learners can discover the proper use of the word from the participant role of a word in this frame and its relations with other components. Take the sub frame COMMUNICATION-MANNER as an example, if an EFL teacher wants to teach the word *chatter*, it is necessary for him to teach the learners in what situation this word is used, the style of conversation, the relations between the speaker and the hearer. Without helping the learners know this, the teacher hasn't fulfilled his task to help the learners acquire such word.

And semantic frame is a web-like schema in which words are semantically related. Chinese EFL learners would use words appropriately if teachers could help them establish those links and build up those relations between each unit of word information. When EFL learners are required to draw on their background information, they could reestablish the connection between a word and other lexical units already known. The link is created, and proper language production takes place.

In addition, both EVT theory and semantic frame emphasize the real world experience. The role of world knowledge in learning from context is of special significance for second language learners. (Schmitt & McCarthy, 2002, p. 80) Semantic frames are categorized based world knowledge. In other words, semantic frame, to some extent, reflects world experience, including the real natural communication situation. This is obviously enlightening to EVT.

IV. Conclusion

Because vocabulary is the very foundation of learning a language, improving students' vocabulary knowledge has become a priority in language teaching. For Chinese EFL learners at university level, the difficulty in the process of vocabulary acquisition lies in lack of an efficient acquisition model that could help enlarge vocabulary, keep longer memory, and produce properly with such vocabulary in communication or writing. To solve this problem is an EFL teacher's top priority. To establish a scientific and efficient EVT model is surely conducive to Chinese EFL learners.

This paper, from the perspective of frame semantics, recommends semantic frame as a basis for EVT model and explores in what way semantic frame will help EVT. Finally, this paper concluded that semantic frame will contribute to EVT in three aspects, namely vocabulary enlargement, long-term memory of vocabulary and proper use of them. However, empirical work needs to be conducted to justify its validity. And this constitutes an interesting topic for future study.

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Investigating Recast and Metalinguistic Feedback in Task-based Grammar Instruction

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***Abstract*—This quasi-experimental study investigated the effect of two types of Corrective Feedback (CF) in task-based grammar instruction (TBGI). After administering a Nelson test (for the intermediate) sixty participants out of one hundred were selected from the intact classes. These sixty participants were randomly assigned to three groups: recast, metalinguistic, and no-feedback group respectively each comprising of twenty participants. After that a test, developed by the researcher inquiring the conditionals and wish statements, was given to the participants in order to assure that the participants did not have a prior knowledge of these target structures. After the treatment was given to each group, the posttest was given in order to measure the effectiveness of the instructional approaches in each group. The results of the one-way ANOVA and the t-test revealed that first of all both CF types were effective in TBGI and secondly between the two CF types metalinguistic feedback was more effective than recast. The results of this study are considered to be useful in methodological issues related to error correction techniques, and teacher educators training pre-service or in-service teachers.**

***Index Terms*—corrective feedback (CF), recast, metalinguistic feedback, grammar, task**

I. Introduction

Research in first language (L1) and second language (L2) is a dynamic process every now and then undertaking a specific area of the complex system of language. One of the main areas of research in L1 and L2 research which has recently been resurrected is the significance of error treatment/correction and its subsequent effects on language learning. Also, task-based language teaching is an area which has been put on pedestal by Second Language Acquisition (SLA) researchers including Ellis (2003). A lot is being done in these two areas and this is a good reason for the vitality and fertileness of these two lines of research. However, a big question mark on the top of language researchers' heads which is constantly bewildering both our language researchers and practitioners is the way error correction occurs through various CF techniques especially in grammar instruction. Questions like how to treat errors, when to treat errors, which type of errors to treat and the like are the main questions directing this line of research.

Researchers in this area have investigated CF and its effect on different aspects of language including grammar, pronunciation, and writing accuracy (e.g. Bitchener and Knoch, 2008; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Gass, Mackey, & Ross-Feldman, 2005). Studies on CF and grammar instruction approaches have yielded different results, some confirming the previous research and some others casting doubt on what the predecessors have tackled. These differing results leave us in a quandary. Shall I correct? Does my correction affect the learners' feelings? Should I terminate the flow of speech or…? All the above-mentioned questions and so many others lead us to make a final decision and put an end to all our irresolution and uncertainty. This was the primary reason for conducting the present study.

II. Background

One of the main concerns of researchers in the area of error correction and CF is the legitimate question of whether errors should be corrected or not. Hendrickson (1978) argues that (a) errors should be corrected; (b) global errors, rather than local errors, should be corrected; and (c) errors should be corrected with consistency and systematicity. However, opponents of error correction such as Truscott (1999) argue that it causes "embarrassment, anger, inhibition, and feelings of inferiority" (p.441). On the other hand, Krashen (1981) stresses his 'no-interface' position with no error correction. Nevertheless, currently SLA researchers strongly believe in error correction and CF (e.g. Ellis, Loewen, Erlam, 2006; Long, 1996; Saxton, 1997).

Research in the area of interactional feedback and how conversation and feedback might lead to language development is partly informed by direct contrast hypothesis which is defined within the context of child language acquisition as follows:

When the child produces an utterance containing an erroneous form, which is responded to immediately with an utterance containing the correct adult alternative to the erroneous form (i.e., when negative evidence is supplied), the

child may perceive the adult form as being in *contrast* with the equivalent child form. Cognizance of a relevant contrast can then form the basis for perceiving the adult form as a correct alternative to the child form (Saxton, 1997; p.155 emphasis in original).

According to this hypothesis, when the child recognizes the contrast between the adult construction and his/her construction, the first step in modifying its language system to the language norms occurs.

On the other hand, as part of his own experience as a learner of Portuguese Schmidt (1990, 2001) postulates that input does not become intake for language learning unless it is noticed, i.e., consciously registered. As part of his strong version of the noticing hypothesis, he further proposed that nothing is learned unless it has been noticed. In a more conservative weak version, it is said that noticing does not itself result in acquisition, but it paves the way for acquisition to occur. However, connectionists believe that the likelihood of acquisition is best achieved by the frequency with which something is available for processing, not the noticing alone. Noticing hypothesis is related to CF studies in that attention, noticing, and awareness, are crucial in perceiving different types of feedback and enhancing their benefits for language learners.

In addition, Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis proposes that feedback obtained during conversational interaction promotes interlanguage (IL) development because interaction 'connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways' (Long, 1996, pp. 451–452). As Han (2002) argues, much of the L2 research on recast is motivated by Long's Interaction Hypothesis. This hypothesis was proposed by Long in two versions, first in 1980s and the updated version in 1996. This hypothesis strongly insists that language acquisition requires or greatly benefits from interaction, communication, and especially negotiation of meaning which are salient in CF.

III. Different Types of Corrective Feedback (CF)

Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified five corrective strategies other than recasts (i.e., explicit correction, clarification requests, metalinguistic information, elicitation, and repetition), whereas Panova and Lyster (2002) added one more, i.e., translation. Here only recast and metalinguistic feedback are explained.

A. Recast

As a CF technique, recasts were initially used by L1 acquisition researchers (e.g., Bohannon & Stanowicz, 1988) who observed that adults or caregivers tended to repair their children's ill-formed utterances by recasting morphosyntactic or semantic errors therein. In L1 studies, Nelson, Carskaddon, and Bonvillian (1973) appear to have been the first to use the term recast to refer to responses by adults to children's utterances(cited in Nicholas, Lightbown, & Spada, 2001; p.724).

Despite the various definitions proposed for corrective recasts in the related literature, there seems to be a set of definite agreed-upon characteristics inherent in corrective recasts as recapitulated here: a recast (is)

- a corrective move which comes after an erroneous utterance,
- a reformulation of the ill-formed utterance,
- an expansion of the ill-formed utterance, and
- maintains its central meaning

There are some advantages and limitations discussed in the literature. Several theoretical reasons emphasize the importance and effectiveness of recasts in SLA studies (Long, 2006; Saxton, 2005). First of all, recasts pop up in meaningful communicative activities where interlocutors share a "joint attentional focus" (Long, 2006; p. 114). Second, the reactive nature of recasts bring a specific feature into focus which brings with it attention and motivation on the part of the learners. Third, the content of recasts is considered to be comprehended by the learners and hence provide the learners with additional resources available, which in turn facilitates learners' form-function mapping (Doughty, 2001). Fourth, due to the reactive nature of recasts they do not impede the flow of communication and are hence considered to be more effective and helpful than explicit CFs.

However, there are some criticisms leveled against recast. The first limitation of recast is related to its being noticeable or not and their ambiguous nature. Although recasts are upheld by some researchers as an effective CF technique, others (e.g., Lyster, 1998a; Panova & Lyster, 2002) believe that recasts usually pass unnoticed by the learners and hence are not facilitative for IL development. Another issue raised against recasts relevant to the previous one is that duo to their ambiguous nature they might be perceived as synonymous in function to mere repetition for language learners (e.g., Long, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Morris & Tarone, 2003; Nicholas et al, 2001). The third limitation of recasts is related to its repairing function, i.e. according to Loewen and Philp (2006) recasts do not elicit repair and learners are simply provided with the correct form without being pushed to modify their IL. Furthermore, as the forth limitation of recasts we can refer to its various effectiveness based on the targeted form under study. In other words, Loewen and Philp (2006) believe that based on previous research (e.g., Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Long, 1996) recasts may be differentially effective depending on the targeted form under study.

B. Metalinguistic Feedback

Much like explicit error correction, metalinguistic feedback- because it diverts the focus of conversation towards rules or features of the target language- falls at the explicit end of the CF spectrum. Lyster and Ranta (1997) categorize metalinguistic

feedback as "comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form". Despite its name, however, Lyster and Ranta (1997) explain that metalinguistic feedback need not contain metalanguage. That is to say, though it is indeed possible, even likely, for metalinguistic feedback to contain metalanguage, the inclusion of metalanguage is not the defining characteristic of metalinguistic feedback. Instead, the defining characteristic of metalinguistic feedback is its encoding of evaluations or commentary regarding the non-target-like nature of the learner's utterance. By encoding direct reference to the existence of an error or to the nature of the error, metalinguistic feedback supplies the language learner with negative evidence regarding the target form. Lyster and Ranta (1997) go on to divide metalinguistic feedback into three different subcategories:

1. Metalinguistic comments,
2. Metalinguistic information, and
3. Metalinguistic questions

Metalinguistic comments, the most minimally informative of the three, simply indicate the occurrence of an error. Such metalinguistic feedback may include a general statement that an error has occurred (e.g. Can you find your error) or may directly pinpoint the error (e.g. Not X). The next subcategory of metalinguistic feedback- metalinguistic information- goes beyond simply indicating the occurrence or location of the error and "generally provides some metalanguage that refers to the nature of the error" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 47). Thus, metalinguistic information can provide the learners with a range of hints concerning the possible reformulation of the non-target-like form. This can range from the most general information which labels the type of error made to information regarding a more target-like alternative, particularly when there are more than two potential options. The third subcategory of metalinguistic feedback identified by Lyster and Ranta (1997) - metalinguistic questions- "point to the nature of the error but attempt to elicit the information from the student". Unlike metalinguistic information which uses metalanguage to label the nature of the error, metalinguistic questions call upon the learner to reconsider their assumptions regarding the target language form (e.g. did you use dative?).

IV. Major Studies on Error Correction in L1 & L2

As abovementioned, CF was initially an area of research in L1 studies (e.g. Brown and Hanlon, 1970). In fact, studies on CF in L2 development has been inspired by research results in L1 acquisition (Farrar, 1990, 1992).

A quick review of literature indicates that the last decade has witnessed so many studies done in the area of CF and L2 development. Early studies on CF and error studies in SLA can be traced in 1970s (e.g., Hendrickson, 1978).

However, the results regarding the effectiveness of recasts are contradictory. Nicholas et al (2001) believe that the contradictory interpretations of recasts can be attributed to the different contexts, in which recasts are implemented, i.e. classroom vs. laboratory settings. Nicholas et al (2001) further argue that recasts seem to be more effective in a laboratory context than in a classroom context, probably due to the fact that target item and type of feedback tend to be highly controlled and attended to in a laboratory setting, so that learners are likely to recognize the intention of the feedback and differentiate it from simple repetitions. On the other hand, studies in a classroom setting generally suggest the ineffectiveness of recasts as CF (e.g., Lyster, 1998; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Morris & Tarone, 2003; Panova & Lyster, 2002). One potential source of problem with such results was that many of the classroom studies based their claims on uptake, defined as learners' immediate use of recasts, or lack thereof. Conversely, studies conducted in a tightly controlled laboratory setting, using a pretest-posttest design, generally support the benefits of recasts for learning (e.g., Mackey & Philp, 1998). In brief, these mixed findings about the utility of recasts in SLA seem to have partly resulted from measures of development and the contexts in which studies were conducted (classroom vs. laboratory and/or teacher-fronted interaction vs. dyadic interaction).

In a quasi-experimental study with a pretest-posttest control group design, Ammar and Spada (2006) investigated the effects of recasts and prompts on L2 learners' written and oral ability across different proficiency levels. The results of this study indicated that prompts were more effective than recasts and that the effectiveness of recasts was sensitive to the learners' proficiency level. In particular, high-proficiency learners benefited equally from both prompts and recasts, whereas low-proficiency learners benefited significantly more from prompts than recasts. Also, McDonough and Mackey (2006), in pre-test post-test design investigated the impact of recasts and different types of responses for the development of question formation among Thai English as a foreign language. The results revealed that both recasts and learners' primed production of the syntactic structures targeted in the recasts are predictive of subsequent development. In addition, Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) in an experimental study investigated the effects of explicit and implicit CF on the acquisition of past test '-ed' among low-intermediate learners. The implicit feedback in this study was recast and the explicit feedback was metalinguistic feedback. The results of this study indicated that explicit feedback containing metalinguistic information is more effective than implicit feedback containing recasts.

Ammar (2008) in a quasi-experimental study compared the differential effect of recast and prompts for third person possessive determiners among Francophone learners. The participants were given CF meanwhile they were doing some communicative activities. The results based on picture description tasks and computerized fill-in-the-blanks tasks indicated that prompts were more effective than recasts in the learners' development of third person possessive determiners.

Dabaghi (2008) also investigated the effect of explicit and implicit correction in grammatical errors made by language learners. Simultaneously he investigated the effects of explicit and implicit error corrections in morphological

and syntactic errors and the correction of developmental early and late features. The results of his study indicated that explicit error correction techniques were significantly more effective than implicit CF techniques.

Running in the same line, Nassaji (2009) investigated two types of interactional feedback, i.e. recasts vs. elicitations and their subsequent effects in grammatical features popping up in incidental dyadic interactions. This study investigated both immediate and delayed effects of CFs. The results of his study revealed that recasts were more effective than elicitations in immediate effects. Also the results of this study indicated that in both CF types, the more explicit form was more effective than its implicit form. Therefore the degree of explicitness was reported to be very crucial in the effectiveness of these two types of CF.

Lyster & Izquierdo (2009) also in a recent study investigated the effect of two different types of CFs in the acquisition of grammatical gender among adult French learners. The focus of their study was exclusively directed toward the differential effects of recasts vs. prompts in dyadic interactions. The results found both types of feedbacks effective.

To summarize, the findings of the studies presented in this section suggest that the results are contradictory in the area of CF. All in all; more research is required in this area in order to establish an agreed-upon conception about the ambiguity of recasts in their effectiveness for L2 development and the possible superiority of any of these CF techniques in SLA.

V. Research Questions

The current study seeks the following research questions:

1. Is Task-based grammar instruction more effective with feedback (i.e. recast vs. metalinguistic feedback) than without any feedback?
2. Which type of feedback is more effective in task-based grammar instruction, recast or metalinguistic feedback?

VI. Method

A. Participants

The participants of the current research were from three intact classes at the Iran Language Institute (ILI) in Tehran. Each of these three classes consisted of twenty to thirty male students and their age ranged from 15 to 25.

Of the whole participants, 7 were excluded due to their inadequate English proficiency for the purpose of this study and 5 others were excluded since they missed some of the treatment sessions. Finally 60 participants remained, each group comprising of 20 male participants and hence fulfilling the purpose of balanced design in research.

B. Sampling

The researcher employed accidental or convenience sampling in intact classes. Accidental, haphazard, or convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling technique that simply uses conveniently available subjects (Dörnyei, 2007). However, the participants were randomly assigned to three groups, i.e. group assignment occurred randomly.

C. Instrumentation

Proficiency Test

Nelson English language test 200 A, adapted from Fowler and Coe (1976) devised for intermediate level was used as a proficiency test in order to assure the homogeneity of the groups. The Nelson test of proficiency for the intermediate comprised of fifty items. Of these fifty items, fourteen items were cloze test and thirty six others were structure tests. This test inquired the following grammatical features:

- Comparative adjective
- Some, any, no, much, many…
- So and too
- Reflexive pronoun
- Tag questions
- Nowhere, everywhere, somewhere
- …

The descriptive results of this proficiency this is shown table 1 below.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: PROFICIENCY TEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
G1	20	28	46	37	5.92
G2	20	26	46	37.1	6.42
G3	20	30	46	37.2	5.03
Valid N (list wise)	20				

Pretest and Posttest

This test comprised of items testing the conditionals and wish statements and was administered as the pretest and posttest in a counter-balanced design, i.e. a design in which half of the individuals take one form of the test first and the other half take the other form first (Mousavi, 2009). The purpose of this test for pre-test was to make certain that the learners did not have prior knowledge of conditionals and wish statements. It is important to note that since there was no valid and reliable ready-made test in the market fulfilling the purpose of this research, this pre-test was developed by the researcher. At first, a test of 100 items was developed and after pilot testing it, i.e. trying out the newly written test before final administration, items analysis was done on this test. Through item analysis, poor items were either discarded or modified and finally 50 items remained. The reliability index for this test was 0.78. It is needed to add here that the items were made based on different types of conditional structures and wish sentences, i.e. it was developed based on a pool of these target structures. The same test was used as the posttest to measure the effectiveness of the instructional approaches.

Target Grammar Structures

The researcher selected conditionals and wish statements for this study due to their frequency and communicative value. In addition, they seem to be more easily applicable in task-based language teaching. Moreover, as far as the researcher is concerned, no study has investigated these grammar structures in CF and task-based language teaching. Moreover; the learners seemed to have problems with these grammatical structures.

Tasks

In this study, focused task was employed which is "an activity which has all the characteristics of a task but has been designed to induce learners' attention to some specific linguistic form when processing either input or output' (Ellis, 2003; p. 342). First the participants in G_1, G_2, and G_3 were taught the grammatical features and then in order to establish what they have been taught, they were given the tasks to complete in pairs. In order to familiarize them with the tasks, the researcher provided the students with a model prior to completing the tasks.

VII. Procedure

This quasi-experimental study was conducted at the Iran Language Institute in Tehran. Three intact English classes from this institute which were taught by the researcher were selected for the purpose of this quasi-experimental study. These three classes met twice a week, each session 105 minutes of language instruction. The selection of the conditionals and wish clauses was made on the basis of a number of reasons including:

Students had many problems with these two target structures.

These two target structures are very salient and useful.

Focused tasks addressing the use of these two target structures are more easily made.

Based on the design of this study, three equal classes whose homogeneity was established through Nelson English Language Test were randomly assigned to two experimental and one comparison group. These three groups were:

G_1) Task-based grammar instruction with recasts

G_2) Task-based grammar instruction with metalinguistic feedback

G_3) Task-based grammar instruction without feedback on form

In all the experimental groups in this study, the researcher taught the target grammatical features, i.e. conditionals and wish statements through focused tasks following Willis's framework (1996) as shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.
A FRAMEWORK OF TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING ADAPTED FROM WILLIS, 1996A; P.58

1.	**Pre-task**
The teacher introduces the topic and gives the students clear instructions on what they will have to do at the task stage and might also highlight useful words and phrases but would not pre-teach new structures. This phase is mainly a preparatory stage for task-cycle stage.	
2.	**Task-cycle**
This stage consists of three elements: task, planning, and reports.	
2.1.	**Task**
The task is done by students either in pair or groups using whatever language they can recall. The teacher monitors the learners but do not intervene to correct errors of form.	
2.2.	**Planning**
Students prepare a short oral or written report to tell the class how they did the task and what the outcome was. Meanwhile the teacher can polish and correct their language.	
2.3.	**Report**
Here the students give their oral or written report to the class and meanwhile the teacher comments on the content of their reports, rephrases perhaps but gives no overt public correction.	
3.	**Language Focus**
In the first two stages, students put their emphasis on the meaning of their language; while in the third stage, they focus their attention on the form. This stage includes two steps:	
3.1.	**Language Analysis**
Here the teacher sets some language-focused tasks based on the texts students have read. Students analyze the language with a primary focus on form.	
3.2.	**Language Practice**
Students consolidate their mastery of the language form through some activities. Practice activities include memory challenge games and sentence completion.	

The only difference between the experimental groups in this study was that the researcher who was also the instructor of all the groups adopted different CFs to the learners' errors. In G_1 the researcher used recast; in G_2 the researcher used metalinguistic explanation, and finally in G_3 the researcher focused only on meaning. Let it be noted here that CFs were given wherever erroneous utterances were made by the learners. It should also be added here that the feedbacks were provided both to the whole class or individual students.

VIII. Data Analysis & Results

Data gathered through the posttest administered at the end of the study were used to answer the research questions in the current study. In order to answer the research questions, the following statistical procedures were conducted. In response to the first research question, an ANOVA was run comparing the performance of the participants in the three groups including recast, metalinguistic and no-feedback group. This question centered on the effect of CF in task-based grammar instruction. The mean of G1, G2, and G3 are displayed in the figure 1 below.

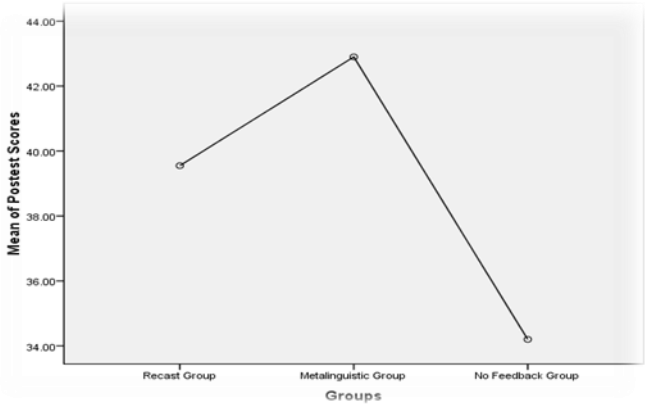

Figure 1. Means of G1, G2, and G3

As the figure indicates, the mean of metalinguistic group is higher than the other two. Table 3 indicates the results of the one-way ANOVA for the first research question in the current study.

TABLE 3.
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR Q1

Posttest Scores	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	770.23	2	385.11	17.04	.000
Within Groups	1287.95	57	22.59		
Total	2058.18	59			

As clearly indicated in table 1, CF is effective in comparison to no-feedback in task-based grammar instruction of conditionals and wish statements. This result confirms previous studies (e.g., Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Nassaji, 2009; Ammar) regarding the effectiveness of corrective feedback. In other words, CF can potentially weed out the erroneous structures from the learners' utterances and hence approximate the learners' production to the native-like accurate language productions. Lack of CF might lead to the fossilizations of the errors.

The second research question intended to unravel any possible differential effect of different CFs in task-based grammar instruction. In other words, the sole purpose of this research question was to answer the dubious position currently held by the researchers concerning the effect of different types of CF. The descriptive statistics for G_1 and G_2 are presented in the table 4 below.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR G1 AND G2

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Posttest Scores	Recast Group	20	39.55	5.90	1.32
	Metalinguistic Group	20	42.90	3.47	.77

In order to answer the second research question a t-test was run. The results of this t-test are presented in the table 5 below.

TABLE 5.
INDEPENDENT T–TEST FOR G1 AND G2 PERFORMANCE ON THE POSTTEST (Q2)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Post-test	Equal variances assumed	2.30	.137	-2.18	38	.035	-3.35	1.53
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.18	30.75	.037	-3.35	1.53

As the results of t-test reveals in table 3, metalinguistic feedback was more effective than recast in task-based instruction of conditionals and wish statements. We can conclude that metalinguistic feedback is significantly more advantageous over recast as a CF in task-based grammar instruction. This result supports previous research investigating the differential effects of explicit feedback (i.e. metalinguistic feedback) and implicit feedback (i.e. recast) including Dabaghi (2008), Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam (2006).

IX. DISCUSSION AND RESULTS

The results of this and other studies cited in line with the current study extends empirical support for the effectiveness of CF and ergo corroborates the fact that CF can do away with erroneous grammatical patterns inherent in the learners' IL. In other words, in response to the question whether to correct or not we can say that leaving the errors unnoticed might result in the fossilization of these erroneous structures. Hence, the researcher stands against too much error negligence and subsequently concludes that errors should be corrected judiciously either on the spot as in this study or with delay.

Moreover, as shown in the second research question the researcher concluded that metalinguistic feedback was more effective than recasts. The reason for such a result might be partially or wholly due to the explicit nature of metalinguistic feedback. In other words, between the two camps in CF studies where either implicit or explicit feedback is favored, the current researcher takes side with more explicit type of error correction. Such a claim can be especially considered in settings like Iran where learners are after explicit rather than implicit CF. In other words, research has revealed that implicit CFs are usually left unnoticed (e.g. recasts) and hence their corrective effect are less successful when compared with more explicit types of feedbacks. In addition, usually in implicit types of CF such as recast usually the teachers' intent and the learners' interpretation do not match, i.e. the learners usually do not recognize the corrective nature of recasts and might consider recasts as mere teachers' repetition of their utterances. However, the researcher does not claim that implicit types of feedbacks are not effective at all, but they might be less effective in comparison to more explicit types of feedback.

X. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Acknowledging that one has to be very cautious in drawing implications from a single study and the limitations exerted upon this study, there are pedagogical implications which bring forth fruitful results for language teaching regarding different issues in ELT including, language teaching methodology, teacher training courses for pre-service or in-service teachers.

Novice language teachers have mostly a blur image of new CF techniques and what they practice is based on what they are prescribed to practice in classes by either the institutes or organizations. Keeping them abreast of current theoretical and practical issues related to error correction can be illuminating for language teachers and language educational systems. However, teachers should be alert not to direct the class to over-error-corrections. In such situations, classes might lead to a haphazard amalgamation of the excess use of error correction and hence the main purpose of language learning, i.e. communication, might go to the periphery. Hence, sophisticated use of CF techniques is recommended in language classes.

The results of this study can also be illuminating for teacher training courses. Teacher trainers inculcate certain types of language teaching ideologies and perceptions to their trainees. With regard to the following issues, teacher trainers should be alert to instruct appropriate practices:

a. Error correction techniques and CF types
b. When to correct errors
c. How to correct errors
d. Which types of errors to correct

In brief, teacher trainers should be aware of current theories and ideas about language teaching, so that they will not communicate wrong or outdated teaching techniques to their trainees. The results of this study and the effectiveness of CF techniques can enlighten the teacher trainers about the effectiveness of such feedback types. Consequently, some space should be allocated to error correction techniques in such teacher training courses for in-service or pre-service teachers.

XI. Limitations and Delimitations

The participants in this study were from intact classes at the ILI where convenience sampling was adopted. Hence, the generalizability of this study to larger populations should be considered carefully. The researcher did not consider uptake as a way to evaluate the effectiveness of corrective feedback due to logistical issues like time and facilities (e.g. audio or video recording) for measuring the number of uptakes. Also the level of the language learners was limited to the intermediate level and the grammatical features to conditionals and wish statements.

XII. Directions for Further Research

Based on the current study and what the researchers have already covered for the review section of this study, the researchers offer the following lines of research for the expansion and development of what has already been covered or is currently being done.

A new line of research currently investigated by SLA researchers is the effect of different types of written CFs. Interested researchers can delve into this area for more informative results concerning the effect of CFs in writing or even interlanguage pragmatics among adult or young adults. As researchers contend (e.g. Han, 2002) some linguistic features might be less effective to recasts than other types of feedbacks. Hence, further studies investigating other grammatical structures are required to add credence to the findings obtained in this study and the previous ones and cast away all the doubts regarding the potential effect of different types of CFs for different target structures. Into the bargain, as Ellis & Sheen (2006) offer, interested researchers can investigate the facilitative impact of learner factors and CFs. Such learner factors include developmental readiness, gender, language aptitude, personality factors, motivation, and teachers' and learners' beliefs and cognition toward correction. Another area for research is CF in CALL settings (e.g. Sauro, 2009).

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Teaching Reading through WebQuest

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***Abstract*—The research seeks to examine if the implementation of WebQuest helps enhance reading skill, and to explore the students' attitude towards WebQuest-based teaching of reading. Through the action research, the findings display that the students who received the WebQuest-based program made considerable improvement in their reading. The findings were also enhanced by the positive feedback of the students towards the use of WebQuest through the online survey carried out after the course.**

***Index Terms*—reading, WebQuest, action research, English as a foreign language (EFL)**

I. Introduction

The current globalization of economy and the continuing increase in international communication in various fields have resulted in greater demand for English as a foreign language (EFL). Among all the four skills integrated in English curriculum, reading skill tends to be the priority in the English curricula at universities throughout the country. Reading authentic materials is of great importance for those who have the desire for further study and for their future careers as it is one of the best ways to improve their English as well as understand and use the information in up-to-date sources in their respective fields of study.

To develop reading, one of the most useful resources is the Internet, with a large amount of varied and easily accessible authentic materials. One of the main reasons for using authentic materials in the classroom is that the controlled language learning environment, the learner will encounter the real world and the real language. The role of the teacher is not to delude the language learner but to prepare him necessary skills so as to understand how the language is actually used.

There is no denying that the scene of education is changing briskly and significantly. Educators are trying to keep up with new developments which results in the change. Nowadays, in the era of information, EFL teachers use computers and the Internet more and more frequently to facilitate teaching and enhance the learning experience. The Internet is blooming into a huge source of information which can be freely and easily accessed by both students and teachers. Charupan, Soranastaporn, and Suwattananand (2001) believed that technology can be used to facilitate classroom instruction. The Internet is a learning tool that fits well in a content-based English syllabus. Among the benefits of Internet use in the second and foreign language classroom, the most important are: Increased motivation and participation by students (Warschauer, 1996); more opportunities to interact with the target language and content area because students spend more time on task (Kasper, 2000); greater integration of reading and writing skills and opportunities to practice them in meaningful contexts; the possibility to implement a pedagogy based on problem solving and critical thinking (Warschauer, 1999); more self-paced autonomous learning that is learner-controlled rather than teacher-controlled. (Mak, 1995).

Furthermore, the Internet provides the resources necessary to carry out authentic projects and analysis, and thus develops the communicative competence of EFL students. Such resources allow teachers to design simulation activities and role-playing using authentic material. Kimball (1997) pointed out that "Internet-generated materials can be flexibly arrayed to engage students with topics and cognitive tasks relevant to students' professional futures." Furthermore, the Internet-based activities can take advantage of integrated teaching approaches. Collaborative and cooperative learning occurs when computer-assisted language learning (CALL) is used in language teaching and learning, (McCabe, 1998). Learners use websites on the Internet to perform cooperative tasks with their peers to complete work assigned by the instructor. It is the learning and teaching on the Internet that enables the learner-centred approach (Kumari, 1998). Alexander and Elena (2005, p. 129) also claimed that "the Internet helps to make English lessons more rewarding and encourages opening the new way to bring about creativity and enthusiasm for learning".

Another reason for the study was Krashen's Input Hypothesis and Frank Smith's slogan "learn to read by reading", from which extensive reading approach was developed and has been widely applauded.

The study seeks to investigate the employment of WebQuest in the teaching of reading to EFL learners by answering the ensuing research questions:

1. Does the utilization of WebQuest help improve EFL learners' reading skill?
2. What are EFL learners' attitudes towards WebQuest-based teaching of reading?

II. Literature Review

A. Intensive Reading (IR) and Extensive Reading (ER)

Intensive reading and extensive reading are two major approaches that have been used to develop reading skill. The two approaches have their advantages to offer different stages of reading instruction. In this research, WebQuest is used to teach reading, which involves intensive reading and extensive reading. An overview of the intensive reading and extensive reading is thus required.

Intensive Reading (IR)

Intensive reading is commonly considered 'text-based or skill-based' reading. The work of Palmer (1921) notes that "intensive reading" means that the readers take a text, study it line by line, and refer at very moment to the dictionary about the grammar of the text itself, or Haarman et al.(1988) describes intensive reading as "the style we employ when we wish to have a very clear and complete understanding of the written text". Similarly, intensive reading is pointed out as "reading a passage or a book slowly and carefully, paying attention to each word and every idea"(Phirie, Tsimanyana, and Masendu, 2000, pp. 31-32). Nuttall(1996, p. 38) claims that "intensive reading involves approaching the text under guidance of a teacher or a task which forces the student to focus on the text".

Intensive reading activities include skimming a text for specific information to answer true or false statements or filling gaps in a summary, scanning a text to match headings to paragraphs, and scanning jumbled paragraphs and then reading them carefully to put them into the correct order. The intensive reading intentionally focuses on essential vocabulary, patterns of text organization and types of text processing needed to adequately comprehend any text. Thus, in intensive reading, students are supposed to comprehend as fully as possible the text which is chosen by the instructor or in the reading course. Intensive reading deals with comprehension mostly at lexical and syntactic level. According to Paran (2003, p. 40), intensive reading is needed for four main reasons: to help learners comprehend written texts, to become more aware of text organization to better comprehend, to learn how to use and monitor effective reading strategies, and to develop literacy skills necessary to generate productive expressions in L2.

Bruce (2004, p. 175) believes that fundamentally, intensive reading involves translation as stating "The readers may pause to look up words in a dictionary. The reader may also mentally or even physically translate the sentence into the reader's first language (L1) by writing down the translation of words, or speaking the translated sentence aloud."

Extensive Reading (ER)

It is the view of Palmer (1964) that extensive reading is considered as rapid reading. The attention is paid to the meaning of the text itself not the language. Hafiz and Tudor (1989) deemed extensive reading to be "the reading of large amounts of material in the second language over time for personal pleasure or interest, and without addition of productive tasks or follow up language work". The purpose of extensive reading is for pleasure and information. Thus, extensive reading is also termed as "supplementary reading". Grabe and Stoller (2002) defines extensive reading as an "approach to teaching and learning in which learners read large quantities of materials that is within their linguistic competence" (*ibid.*, p. 259). Bamford (2000) discovers that a good number of extensive reading programs use simplified books or in other words grade readers as the basic reading materials.

Day and Bamford (1998, pp. 6-8) lists key characteristics of a successful extensive reading program:

- Students read large amounts of printed material;
- Students read a variety of materials in terms of topic and genre;
- The material students read is within their level of comprehension;
- Students choose what they want to read;
- Reading is its own reward;
- Students read for pleasure, information and general understanding;
- Students read their selection at a faster rate;
- Reading is individual (students read on their own);
- Teachers read with their students, thus serving as role models of good readers;
- Teachers guide and keep track of student progress.

Welch (1997) recapitulates characteristics of extensive reading and intensive reading displayed in the Table 1.

TABLE 1.
CHARACTERISTICS OF INTENSIVE READING AND EXTENSIVE READING

Reading approach	Intensive reading	Extensive reading
Purpose	language study and accuracy	general understanding and enjoyment and fluency
Level	Often difficult	easy (grade readers)
Amount	Not much	a lot
Speed	slow and accuracy	fast and fluency
Selection	teacher selects	learner selects
What material	all learners study the same material	all learners read different things which interest them
Where	In class	mostly at home
Comprehension	check by specific questions and exercises	checked by reports/summaries

After making a comparison between these two reading approaches, Palmer (1921/1964) also concludes that both types of the reading are important because the main goal of reading is to comprehend the printed pages.

B. WebQuest

This section presents definitions of WebQuest and its pedagogical base.

What is WebQuest?

Bernie Dodge - an American professor of educational technology at San Diego State University has focused on the design, implementation and evaluation of computer-based learning environments and created a learning model which has been widely used as an effective Internet-based educational tool in schools, colleges and universities for over a decade and is now one of the most popular and most effective Internet–based project models/ approaches. This approach clearly describes the process of the partly online learning experience which challenges, motivates and engages learners.

In an early article about this method, Bernie Dodge defined a WebQuest as:

An inquiry-oriented activity in which most of all of the information used by learners is drawn from the Web. Web quests are designed to use learners' time well, to focus on using information rather than looking for it, and to support learners' thinking and levels of analysis, synthesis, and evaluation (Dodge, 2001).

Educators thought that the original definition was not enough to cover the meaning and theoretical underpinnings of the WebQuest concept. March (2008), a co-creator of WebQuest, therefore conceptualized and expanded the definition of WebQuest:

A WebQuest is a scaffold learning structure that uses links to essential resources on the World Wide Web and an authentic task to motivate students' investigation of a central, open-ended question, development of individual expertise and participation in a final group process that attempts to transform newly acquired information into a more sophisticated understanding. The best WebQuests do this in a way that inspires students to see richer thematic relationships, facilitate a contribution to the real world of learning and reflect on their own metacognitive processes.

In a WebQuest, learners work in groups, where members have to analyze and master a particular aspect of an issue. Each member becomes an 'expert' in their role, and later contributes to an in-depth understanding of the given aspect of the final group task.

Pedagogical approaches underlying WebQuest

A WebQuest combines the benefits of the constructivist approach, inquiry-based learning approach, project-based approach, and content-based language learning.

Constructivist approach

WebQuests emerge among the several technological tools available as an example of a powerful means for supporting the principles of constructivism (Matusevich, 1995; March, 2008) in language teaching.

A WebQuest is in fact a constructivist lesson format. Mary (1998) stated constructivism as 'both a philosophy and a theory of learning'. By changing the focus of the classroom from teacher dominated to student-centered using a constructivist approach we could yield positive results. A major theme in the theoretical framework of Bruner (1990) is that learning is an active process in which learners construct new ideas or concepts based upon their current or past knowledge. The key concept of this approach is that learning is an active process of creating rather than acquiring knowledge. When Internet technology is integrated into the course curriculum, students are enabled to learn by constructing their perceptions of complex concepts (Watson, 1999). Using WebQuest, learners have to activate the mental processing which results in understanding and the creation of meaning from their own experiences (Grant, 2002). It is the constructivist learning approach and the profound influence of technology on education that require the utilization of authentic activities to give the learning situation a purpose and meaning (Reeves et al., 2002; Matejka, 2004; Baccarini, 2004). If technology is used effectively as a tool for creative work, students can be more autonomous, collaborative and reflective than in classroom without the utilization of technology.

Inquiry-based learning

Pérez Torres (2005) believes: "a WebQuest for teaching and learning a second language is an inquiry oriented activity placed in a relevant thematic context, in which the development of the task implies using web resources and developing high order thinking processes in a collaborative environment. At the same time, it provides the students the opportunity to learn and put into practice some linguistic skills, supported by a set of linguistic and procedural scaffolding."

The process of inquiring commences with gathering information and data through applying the human senses. In fact, memorizing facts and information is not the most crucial skill in today's world as facts change, and information is easily accessible by modern technology. Inquiry is seeking appropriate resolutions to questions and issues rather than seeking the right answer merely. Teachers therefore should develop their student's inquiry skills and nurture the attitude of seeking information and to encourage and enable individuals to continue the quest for knowledge throughout life. As an old adage states, "Tell me and I forget, show me and I remember, involve me and I understand." The last part of of this statement is the essence of inquiry-based learning.

Project-based learning (PBL)

Project-based learning is an instructional student-centered educational approach in which students work in teams to explore real-world problems and create presentations to share what they have learned. (Warschauer et al., 2000).

Project-based learning first began in 1918 with an article called "The Project Method" by Kilpatrick. Although Kilpatrick was influenced by John Dewey who advocated that schools should reflect society, in the late 1800s, he was

more interested in group learning than in the cognitive development that resulted from it. More recently, brain research has shown that project-based learning works by "helping move students beyond surface learning, beyond learning held in short-term memory, learned for the test and then dropped… because the learner sees the information as important to him" (Autodesk Foundation, 1998).

The following can be seen as reasons for using Internet-based projects in the classroom:

1. There are a structured way for teachers to incorporate the Internet into the language classroom, on both a short-term and a long-term basis. No specialist technical knowledge is needed either to produce or to use Internet-based projects. However, it is certainly looking around on the Internet to see if something appropriate already exists before sitting down to create your own project.

2. More often than not, they are group activities and, as a result, lend themselves to communication and the sharing of knowledge, two principal goals of language teaching itself. The use of projects encourages cooperative learning and therefore stimulates interaction.

3. They can be used simply for language learning purposes, but can also be interdisciplinary, allowing for cross-over into other departments and subject areas. This can often give them a more 'real-world' look and feel, and provide greater motivation for the learner.

4. They encourage critical thinking skills. Learners are not required to simply regurgitate information they find, but have to transform that information in order to achieve a given task. (Dudeney and Hockly, 2007, p. 44)

Compared with learning solely from textbooks, this approach has many benefits for students, encompassing:

- Deeper knowledge of subject matter;
- Increased self-direction and motivation;
- Improved research and problem-solving skills. Blasszauer (2003)

However, those benefits are merely enhanced when technology is used in a meaningful way in the projects. Blasszauer (2003) also stated that using project-based learning, students can acquire lifelong learning skills which include the ability to find and use appropriate learning resources. The process used in project-based learning is as follows:

- Students are presented with a problem (case, research paper, video tape, for example). In groups they organize their ideas and previous knowledge related to the problem, and attempts to define the broad nature of the problem.
- Throughout discussion, students pose questions on aspects of the problem that they do not understand.
- Students see during the project-based learning that learning is an ongoing process, and that there will always be (even for the teacher) new angles, perspectives, problems to be explored.

Dudeney and Hockly (2007) also notes that in order to prepare for Internet-based project work, you will need to do the following:

- Choose the project topic
- Make the task clear
- Find the resources
- Decide on the outcome

Content-based language learning

Content-based learning is a kind of teaching/learning process organization in which the focus of instruction is shifted from pure language instruction to the integration of mastering both language for professional communication and the content matter of professional disciplines. (Snow, Met, and Genesee, 1989; Spanos, 1990).

WebQuests are activities specially suited to content-based language learning. Students perform a real world task using authentic materials related to a topic within their academic discipline (Maria, 2002). According to Pérez Torres (2005), WebQuests are activities that meet the requirements of the three essential conditions for language learning "exposure, use and motivation". March (1997) supports the point as saying that "the pedagogical principles of a WebQuest are to assign small groups of students with a challenging inquiry, provide access to an abundance of online resources, and scaffold the learning process to promote higher order thinking".

WebQuests can meet the four criteria for content-based activities below:

1. Learning activities should provide more than one perspective on the content area. This is met by WebQuests, which offer a large number of Web pages with information on different aspects of a topic (Marco, 2002).

2. Activities should present authentic content without oversimplifying it (Spiro and Jehng, 1990).

3. Activities should incorporate visuals and other aids for making associations, since that facilitates deeper thinking (Craik and Lockhart, 1972). The Web pages used in WebQuests contain not only text, but also pictures, sound, and even animation.

4. Activities should encourage the SQ3R formula: surveying, questioning, reading, recalling, and reviewing materials under study (Schmeck, 1986).

Generally speaking, WebQuests are rooted to constructivist, inquiry-based, project-based learning, and content-based language learning approaches (Hopkins-Moore and Fowler, 2002; Matejka, 2004) since they seek student motivation and authenticity, they develop higher thinking skills and promote cooperative learning (Watson 1999; Hopkins-Moore & Fowler, 2002).

III. Research Methodology

A. Participants

44 second-year students (from among a population of 247 second-year students), 26 females and 18 males, who were attending the third course of reading (reading 3) at the Faculty of English Linguistics and Literature of the University of Social Sciences and Humanities in Ho Chi Minh City (USSH-HCMC) were invited to participate in this newly-designed WebQuest-based reading course. The average age was 20.21 years ranging from 19 to 25 years old. The reason for this selection was their extensive history of reading experience. Freshmen's too brief history of reading experience will probably limit in-depth exploration. Moreover, freshmen's reading reluctance due to their struggle in dealing with English vocabulary and grammar patterns can be miscontrued as their poor reading skill.

B. Instruments

The instruments include pretest, posttest, and questionnaire helped to collate quantitative data. Each of these instruments was used at different phases of the study and for different purposes: pretest and posttest were taken by 44 students involved in the study right before and after the Web-based course in order to measure the improvement in their reading skill; and the questionnaire was designed online 10 days after the course to investigate the students' attitudes towards the course.

C. Method

The method used in the study is action research. Action research is also called a practitioner research. Action research is done by practitioners within a particular situation and will influence what is happening. According to Ferrance (2000, p. 1), action research "specifically refers to a disciplined inquiry done by a teacher with the intent that the researcher will inform and change his or her practices in the future" and "is carried within the context of the teacher's environment – that is, with the students and at the school in which the teacher works – on questions that deal with educational matters at hand." The researcher's perspective therefore is different from that of the external researcher, who stands outside the situation, records observations about it, checks his or her interpretations with participants (McNiff at al., 2003).

An action research lends itself to a spiral of cycles, with the researcher reflecting on each stage of the process (Alberta Teacher Association, 2000). Kemmis (1985) has developed a simple model of the cyclical nature of the typical action research process as the loop of planning, acting, observing, and reflecting, as displayed in Figure 1.

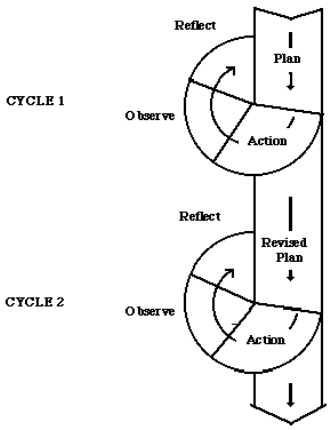

Figure 1. Action research protocol after Kemmis

IV. Findings and Discussion

A. The Effect of the Use of WebQuest in the Reading Course on the Students' Reading Competence

The effect of the newly Web-based reading course on the students was determined through the comparison of the test scores before and after the treatment. The paired sample t-test was administered to test the null hypothesis that "there was no significant difference between the results of pretest and posttest."

TABLE 2.
COMPARISON OF THE PRETEST SCORE AND POSTTEST SCORE

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Sig. (2- tailed)
Pretest	29.77	44	5.665	1.208	
Posttest	41.91	44	6.838	1.458	
Pretest –Posttest					.002

The findings from Table 2 indicates that across all 44 subjects, the subjects' scores improved, by 12.14 points (41.91 – 29.77) after 14 weeks of applying WebQuest on the teaching of reading. Since the significance value for change in scores is less than 0.01, the results from the posttest proved the effect of WebQuest in the teaching of reading.

B. Students' Attitude towards the WebQuest-based Teaching of Reading

The online questionnaire was delivered to 44 students right after the course. The link for the free online survey http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/W7G23JQ was exposed in an email message and sent to all these students. The students could also easily access the online survey by clicking the hyperlink online survey in the WebQuest and answering all the questions provided, both close-ended and open-ended questions. The researcher received 40 (90.91%) responses from the participants.

STATEMENTS	Strongly Agree	Agree	No opinion	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Rating Average	Response Count
1. Learning with WebQuest was useful and interesting	20.0%	80.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.80	40

Responses to Question 1 reveal a positive number as it was strongly supported by 100% students taking the online survey. This number includes 20% strongly agreeing and the vast majority (80%) agreeing that learning with WebQuest was useful and interesting.

2. The WebQuest was well-designed.	30.0%	45.0%	25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.95	40

Question 2 was used to explore the students' opinions on the design of the WebQuest. The responses show that most of the students (75%) agreed it was well-designed; while 25% of the students revealed no idea and no one expressed negative attitude towards the WebQuest.

3. The WebQuest was rich in content with useful links.	45.0%	35.0%	20.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.75	40

As regards the content of the WebQuest, in response to Question 3, 80% of the participants appreciated the rich content and the useful links in the WebQuest while the rest had no view on this.

4. I prefer learning this Web-based reading course rather than the traditional paper-based reading course.	35.0%	60.0%	5.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.70	40

Question 4 aimed to ask students to make a comparison between the learning of this Web-based reading course with the traditional paper-based reading course. Virtually all of the students (95%) revealed that they liked this newly-experienced way of reading learning more than the traditional paper-based one.

5. I prefer to choose my own topic for the weekly presentation.	50.0%	40.0%	10.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.60	40

In response to Question 5, the majority of students expressed that they prefered choosing the topic by themselves for each weekly presentation to being given by the teacher.

6. Through this Web-based reading course, my reading skill has improved.	25.0%	55.0%	15.0%	5.0%	0.0%	2.00	40

Question 6 was designed to investigate the students' self-evaluation of the reading skill after the Web-based course. A great percentage of students (80%) admitted that their reading skill has been strengthened, whereas 15% were not aware of the improvement.

7. Through this Web-based reading course, my vocabulary has been enriched considerably.	40.0%	40.0%	15.0%	5.0%	0.0%	1.85	40

As regards the students' progress in vocabulary, responses to Question 7 reveal a strong agreement (80%) to the considerable enrichment of vocabulary. 15% were reluctant to have a definite answer to this question, and merely 5% showed their negative opinion on this issue.

8. The WebQuest has motivated me to read further.	45.0%	30.0%	15.0%	10.0%	0.0%	1.90	40

To evaluate the students' motivation brought by the Web-based activities, Question 8 was delivered. In fact, cooperation in doing weekly worksheets in WebQuest motivated a high percentage of students (75%) rather than force them to read further. 15% were not sure about this and 10% disagreed. The figures generally prove that most of the students had strong motivation in learning with the Web-based course.

9. I have learnt nothing through this Web-based reading course.	0.0%	5.0%	10.0%	40.0%	45.0%	4.25	40

Question 9 asked students if they had learnt nothing through this Web-based reading course, 85 disagreed and strongly disagreed with the statement, which means that they appreciated the course; 10% had no idea and only 5% agreed that they had learned nothing.

10. In general, I was satisfied with this Web-based reading course.	30.0%	55.0%	15.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.85	40

Question 10 was geared to decide whether the students were satisfied with the use of WebQuest in the reading program. The data showed that the overall program was supportively rated by the students. A vast majority of the students (85%) agreed that they were generally satisfied. Only 15% of the students did not show their opinions on this. This proved that the WebQuest-based reading program was successful.

The open-ended question 11 explored whether or not the students had any other comments and/or ideas on the use of the Web in this reading program. Only 8 responses were collected as displayed in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO THE OPEN-ENDED QUESTION 11 IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

11. If you have any other comments and/or ideas on the use of the Web in this reading program, write in the box below.

answered question	**8**
skipped question	**12**
	Response Count
Hide replies	8

1.	the time for the course should be longer so that my reading would improve more.	Wed, May 12, 2010 9:20 PM	Find...
2.	i expect to have more comments on the weekly translation from the teacher	Wed, May 12, 2010 9:06 PM	Find...
3.	This may be the most interesting English course I've ever experienced.	Wed, May 12, 2010 8:59 PM	Find...
4.	learning with this Web-based reading course was interesting but not easy at all	Wed, May 12, 2010 8:48 PM	Find...
5.	The time for this reading course was so short but we really enjoyed learning with it. We're expecting to learn with other WebQuest-based programs for different subjects.	Wed, May 12, 2010 3:14 PM	Find...
6.	i had a really good time with this course. It, however, was a bit challenging for us	Mon, May 10, 2010 8:09 PM	Find...
7.	What a very good program. i wish i could have chance to learn other subjects in a similar way	Mon, May 10, 2010 7:58 PM	Find...
8.	Personally I think the Web-based reading program was really wonderful. I've learnt a lot of things through this course. We had a good time together as well.	Mon, May 10, 2010 7:52 PM	Fi

TABLE 4.
STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO QUESTIONS 12 & 13 IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Decide the whether the following statements True or False for you.				
	answered question			**40**
	skipped question			**0**
	True	**False**	**Rating Average**	**Response Count**
12. I will continue to use WebQuest after this course.	55.0%	45.0%	1.45	40
13. I will tell others about using WebQuest.	60.0%	40.0%	1.40	40

Question 12 is aimed at checking whether the students would continue to use WebQuest to improve their English even when the course has finished. As indicated in Table 4, over half of the students (55%) agreed that they would continue and the rest (45%) thought they would stop. This figure implies that, to a certain extent, the Web-based reading course had positive impact on the students' learning activities.

Question 13 is raised to ask if the students would tell others about using WebQuest in learning English, 60% agreed while 40% disagreed with this point. This fact proves that a number of the students realized the advantages that the WebQuest brought to them.

The data analysis of the pretest and posttest scores the responses to the online questionnaire survey prove that the students not only significantly improved their reading skill but also had positive attitude towards the implementation of the Web-based reading programs.

V. CONCLUSION

The use of WebQuest has been discussed and practised in the world of EFL teaching for several years. However, the utilization of this Web-based tool in a reading course still has been a new experience to EFL teachers in the context of Vietnam.

The study was geared to investigate whether the utilization of WebQuest helps improve reading skill, and to explore the students' attitude towards WebQuest-based teaching of reading. The findings reveal that the students who received the WebQuest-based program made considerable improvement in their reading. The findings were also enhanced by the positive feedback of the students towards the use of WebQuest through the online survey carried out after the course.

This research provides an implication that WebQuests can promote the teaching of reading. Additionally, this Web-based tool enables teachers to share their own materials and provides free access to a multitude of resources in different disciplines at different language levels. WebQuest appears as a suitable integrated way to immerse the students in a real professional in which to carry out a whole project involving technology.

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The Effect of Output Requirement on the Acquisition of Grammatical Collocations by Iranian EFL Learners

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***Abstract*—The present study investigated: (a) the effect of output requirement on the acquisition of grammatical collocations; and (b) the relative efficacy of output tasks in comparison with that of input enhancement with regard to the acquisition of grammatical collocations. Ninety homogenous adult Iranian intermediate EFL learners were randomly assigned to two experimental (EG1/EG2) and a control group (CG). A pre-test was given to the three groups to measure the students' knowledge of collocations prior to any treatment. The students in EG1 were required to do certain output tasks dealing with the collocations in focus after reading a passage whereas for those in EG2 the same target forms were visually enhanced. The students in the CG received neither visually enhanced input, nor output tasks and they were asked to simply read the passage, and answer some questions about it. After the treatment phase, a post-test was administered to measure the gains. The results indicated that both output and input enhancement exert a significant effect on the acquisition of grammatical collocations by the learners. It was also found that input enhancement group outperformed the output group; however; the observed difference was not statistically significant. Accordingly, it can be claimed that an implicit and unobtrusive method such as input enhancement can be as effective as an output task which requires actual production of language on the part of L2 learners.**

***Index Terms*—Output Hypothesis, output task, input enhancement, grammatical collocations**

I. Introduction

Over the past decades, the question of how to teach grammar has been one of the most challenging and controversial issues in SLA (Celce-Murcia, 1991; Ellis, 2006). Since there is now a general consensus among SLA researchers that attention plays a critical role in language learning, a great deal of research has focused on what method or what types of tasks better promote learners' noticing of certain linguistic targets in the input. Many studies which have been carried out under the rubric of input enhancement (Sharwood Smith, 1991, 1993, 1994) and Focus on Form (FonF) (Doughty and Williams, 1998; Long, 1991; Doughty, 2001) as well as the more recent research on the noticing function of output (Izumi et al., 1999; Izumi and Bigelow, 2000; Izumi, 2002) are based on the assumption that drawing learners' attention to target forms, as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is meaning and communication, makes it easier for them to acquire form and meaning simultaneously.

Along the same line of research, an important issue which has not received sufficient attention from researchers and has produced quite mixed results is the effect of output tasks, in comparison with comprehension tasks, on noticing and acquisition of target forms. More specifically, the results of research on the question of whether output tasks better promote noticing and acquisition of certain targeted linguistic forms than non-output task conditions has been quite inconclusive (Izumi, 2002; Izumi et al., 1999; Izumi and Bigelow, 2000). Therefore, more research needs to be conducted in this area to explore the relative efficacy of output tasks in SLA.

The present study aims at investigating the potential effect of output tasks on the acquisition of a certain number of grammatical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners. Moreover, this study seeks to compare the facilitative effect of output tasks with that of visual input enhancement on the acquisition of certain grammatical collocations.

II. Background

A. Attention, Noticing and Input Enhancement

An increasingly well-established line of work has underscored the role of noticing and attention in SLA (Schmidt, 1990, 1993, 1994, 1995, 2001; Tomlin and Villa, 1994; Robinson, 1995). Moreover, more emphasis has been placed on the importance of drawing learners' attention to certain linguistic features which might otherwise go unnoticed (Sharwood Smith, 1991, 1993, 1994). In fact, recent SLA research has increasingly established the legitimacy of a FonF approach to language teaching (Doughty & Williams, 1998). Proponents of FonF approaches (input enhancement, in particular) claim that the best way to learn a language is not by treating it as an object of study, but by experiencing it meaningfully as a tool for communication with certain target structures physically highlighted and embedded within

communicative activities (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Sharwood Smith, 1991, 1993, 1994). One of the ways of directing learners' attention to formal aspects of language is visual input enhancement, which is an implicit and unobtrusive means to increase the perceptual salience of the target forms via a variety of typographical techniques such as underlining, bolding, highlighting, etc. Many studies have focused on the effects of visual input enhancement (Alanen, 1995; Doughty, 1991; Shook, 1994; Williams, 1999; Gharaee, 2002), and this study will also have an eye on it.

B. The Attention-drawing Role of Output Tasks

In the 1980s, the word "output" was used to refer to the outcome, or product, of the language acquisition process. Output was synonymous with "what the learner has learned". However, with the proposal of Swain's Output Hypothesis (1985, 1995, 2000, 2005), output has come to be deemed not merely as an end product of learning, but as an important factor to promote L2 learning. It has been noted that producing the target language provides learners with unique opportunities for a level of processing (i.e., syntactic processing) that may be needed for the development of target-like proficiency and higher accuracy (Izumi and Bigelow, 2000; Swain and Lapkin, 1995).

Of the four functions of output posited by Swain (1993, 1995, 1998), the focus of the present study is in line with the noticing function. Swain claims that while learners attempt to produce the target language (vocally or silently), they may notice that "they do not know how to say (or write) precisely the meaning they wish to convey" (Swain, 1995, p.474). This, in turn, may prompt second language learners to recognize consciously some of their linguistic problems and bring their attention to what they need to solve their linguistic deficiency.

Relatively few studies to date have focused on the noticing function and the effect of output in SLA, and the results have been inconclusive. Izumi and his colleagues conducted a series of meticulously designed studies to examine whether output prompts learners to notice and subsequently learn certain grammatical features (Izumi et al., 1999; Izumi and Bigelow, 2000; Izumi, 2002).

To investigate the above-mentioned issue, Izumi et al. (1999) and Izumi and Bigelow (2000) conducted a two-stage study in which they focused on the English past hypothetical conditionals, and compared an experimental group that was given output opportunities and subsequent exposure to relevant input and a control group that was exposed to the same input first and then asked to answer comprehension questions on the input. In both studies the output tasks were a reconstruction writing task and an essay-writing task, and the two studies were the same in every aspect except in the order of presenting the two output tasks. In Izumi et al. (1999), the reconstruction task was given in phase 1and one week after phase 1, an essay-writing task was given in phase 2, whereas in Izumi and Bigelow (2000), the order of tasks was reversed to examine if task ordering plays any role in accounting for the results. The findings revealed that the effects of output in promoting noticing of the form were not significant in the two studies. Regarding the acquisition issue, the studies revealed a contrasting finding: Izumi et al. (1999) found the experimental group made a greater improvement on the production test than did the control group, while Izumi and Bigelow (2000) found no advantage for the experimental group in gains on any of the post-tests.

Izumi (2002), building on previous studies, aimed at investigating whether output requirement (reconstruction task) and visual input enhancement, utilized together or separately, promote noticing and learning of English relativization (object-of-preposition type of relative clauses) among ESL learners. The findings considering noticing were somewhat mixed; nevertheless, those considering acquisition were much clearer and revealed a significant effect for output, none for input enhancement, and no interaction effect. More specifically, those students who reconstructed the text learned more about relativization than those who engaged in input comprehension activities irrespective of whether the input was enhanced.

In sum, the inconclusive findings by several researchers who have investigated the noticing function of output and its subsequent impact on L2 learning, together with the importance of this issue in current SLA warrants further studies in this area. The present study is an attempt to examine the effect of output (reconstruction tasks) on the acquisition of certain grammatical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

III. Research Questions

Drawing on the psycholinguistic rationale and empirical research on output (Swain, 1985, 1993, 1995, 2000, 2005; Izumi et al., 1999; Izumi and Bigelow, 2000; Izumi, 2002), and to further our understanding of the effect of output on acquisition in SLA, the present study focused on the following questions:

1) Does output requirement exert a significant influence on the acquisition of grammatical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners?

2) Does visual input enhancement have a significant influence on the acquisition of grammatical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners?

3) Is there a significant difference between visual input enhancement and output requirement with regard to the influence these two approaches to teaching exert on the acquisition of grammatical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners?

IV. Methodology

A. Participants

The participants in this study were 120 Iranian intermediate EFL learners, age 19-27, attending a language center in Esfahan, Iran. In order to make sure in objective terms that these learners were truly homogenous with regard to their English proficiency level, a Nelson English Language Proficiency Test (Fowler and Coe, 1976) was given to them. Having obtained the proficiency test results, the researcher decided to choose those participants whose score range fell one standard deviation above and below the mean (i.e. mean ±1). This being so, 90 students met this homogeneity criterion and were thus selected to serve as the participants of this study. Later, they were randomly assigned to the three groups (two experimental and one control) involved in the study (30 students each).

B. Linguistic Target

One of the fundamental components of language proficiency which make a positive contribution to the ways learners speak, listen, read and write is a sufficient knowledge of collocations. It has been suggested that pre-fabricated language chunks and routinized formulae play an important role in language acquisition and use (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992). The existing literature on collocations clearly indicates that a good knowledge of collocations and high language proficiency are tightly interrelated (Zhang, 1993; Ellis, 1999; Gitsaki & Taylor, 1997). Focusing on the importance of collocations to linguistic competence, Ellis (1999) contends that learners' fluent use of word sequences (i.e. frequent collocations, phrases, and idioms) is a very important index of native-like competence. In sum, it can be claimed that an increasing mastery of the most basic words and structures of the language, which becomes possible through strengthening the students' collocational power, results in a higher level of competence and communicative ability (Lewis, 2000). It is, therefore, important that L2 learners have a good knowledge of the particular patterns in which words are frequently grouped. If collocational associations are not learned as part of the L2 knowledge, the learners' speech or writing will be immediately judged as non-native or simply as weird. In other words, learners' lack of collocational knowledge makes them sound unnatural and not very competent in their language use— a prevalent problem in the present EFL situation in Iran. Some examples of wrongly used collocations are *good in swimming, *afraid from, *ability for doing something, *fascinated about something, * a problem of, etc.

Considering the importance of collocations, this study focuses on the acquisition of certain grammatical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners. Benson (1989) defines a grammatical collocation as a phrase which is composed of a preposition and a main word (noun, verb, or adjective) or a structural pattern such as a clause or a two-part verb. In his view, there are eight major types of grammatical collocations in English; however, given the limitations of space, this study will focus only on three of the eight types of grammatical collocations proposed by Benson (1989); namely, Type One (N.+ Prep.), Type Five (Adj.+ Prep.), and Type Eight (V.+ Prep.).

C. Procedure

The experimental sequence of the study was carried out over a period of around twelve weeks. As noted earlier, 90 homogenous learners were randomly assigned to three groups. There were two experimental (EG1 & EG2) and one control group (CG). One week prior to the first treatment session, all the participants took the pre-test which consisted of items designed to elicit the grammatical collocations in question and assess the learners' knowledge of these collocations prior to any type of treatment (see Appendix A for sample questions of the pre- and the post-test). Then, every group underwent ten different treatment sessions. There was an interval of around 5 or 6 days between the treatment sessions, and the post-test followed the last teaching session a week later. In an attempt to control for outside exposure to the target form, after completing the post-test, the learners were asked whether they had consulted with anyone or anything about the target form. The data from those who reported having done so were discarded. For this reason, the groups slightly differed in size; there were 26, 25, 28 participants in EG1, EG2 and CG, respectively.

D. Treatment

After the pre-test and during the treatment phase of the study, participants in all the three groups separately attended ten sessions of treatment in which they were all given a set of ten reading passages which were selected to serve the purpose of presenting the participants with the grammatical collocations in focus (see Appendix B for sample of reading passages). These reading passages were identical in content; however, they fulfilled different purposes in the treatment session. In all the ten treatment sessions for each of the groups the following procedure was run:

As for the students in EG1, after reading the text, they were asked to reconstruct some sentences based on the information in the input passage as accurately as possible. In other words, without looking back at the text, the students were encouraged to use the vocabulary prompts (cue words) provided for them to write a grammatical sentence about the events they had read about in the passage (see Appendix C for sample reconstruction task items). In fact, students in EG1 were engaged in an output task (reconstruction task) struggling to produce grammatical English sentences including grammatical collocations.

The reading passages given to students in EG2 were identical to those of the other two groups in content; nevertheless, the grammatical collocations in focus were made salient for EG2 learners through typographical techniques such as bolding and underlining. In other words, EG2 learners received enhanced input in their treatment sessions because the grammatical collocations were made visually salient via visual input enhancement (see Appendix B for sample texts). After reading the passage with the collocations highlighted, the students were supposed to answer

some reading comprehension question about the text. That is, unlike EG1 learners, participants in EG2 did not receive output tasks and were not encouraged to produce language including the target forms.

Students in the third group, who served as the CG, were asked to read the passages and answer some reading comprehension questions about the passage. In fact, they received neither an output task nor enhanced input.

E. Tests and Scoring Procedure

Since this study was designed to focus on the acquisition of grammatical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners after certain types of treatment were employed, a pre-test and a post-test (see Appendix A for sample questions) were constructed by the researcher to assess the subjects' knowledge of grammatical collocations prior to and after the treatment phase of the study. Both tests comprised 30 multiple-choice items from which the grammatical collocations were missing, and the subjects were required to complete the sentences by selecting the correct choice. It should be noted that since the pre- and post-test utilized in this study were researcher-made ones, they were both piloted prior to use and an alpha Cronbach method was applied to guarantee their reliability. Reliability indexes revealed that the researcher-made tests were acceptable for the purpose of the study.

In scoring the pre-test and the post-test, each correct answer was given a single point, and all the correct answers added up to a total sum. There was no negative point for the wrong answers or for the items not answered at all.

V. Statistical Analysis and Results

A. Pre-test of the Study

For the groups to be comparable and for an experiment like this to be meaningful, the researcher had to make sure that the learners in the experimental and control groups enjoyed the same level of knowledge regarding the linguistic forms under investigation (i.e. grammatical collocations). To meet this requirement, a pre-test was given to all three groups to measure their knowledge of collocations in focus. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the participants' mean scores on the pre-test across the three groups.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON THE PRE-TEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
EG1	26	11.00	18.00	14.3000	1.74494
EG2	25	12.00	17.00	14.3667	1.58296
CG	28	12.00	18.00	14.2000	1.64841

It can be seen in the above table that the mean scores for the three groups are statistically very close (14.3000≈14.3667≈14.2000). Therefore, it can be concluded that the learners in the three groups did not differ greatly from one another in terms of their knowledge of the target forms in question. That is, the participants' prior knowledge of the target forms was statistically almost equal.

B. Research Question 1

The first research question asked whether output tasks exert a significant influence on the acquisition of grammatical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners. To investigate the impact of output tasks on the subjects' performance on grammatical collocations, a paired-samples t-test was run. The t-test was intended to compare the obtained mean scores of the participants in EG1 on the pre- and post-test to indicate the effectiveness of the treatment. The descriptive statistics, along with the results of the t-test for EG1, are presented in Tables 2 and 3, respectively.

TABLE 2
PAIRED-SAMPLES DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR EG1

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	PRETEST	14.3000	26	1.74494	.31858
	POSTTEST	25.1000	26	2.33932	.42710

TABLE 3
PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR EG1

	Paired differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pre/posttest	-10.8000	1.15669	.21118	-11.2319	-10.3681	-51.141	25	.000

Given the information in Table 2, one can clearly see that the mean score obtained on the post-test (25.1000) is higher than the one obtained on the pre-test (14.3000). However, a paired-samples t-test was run to ensure that the observed difference was significant. Table 3 shows that there is a significant difference in the scores obtained from the pre- and post-test because the probability value is substantially smaller than the specified critical value (0.000<0.05). Accordingly, it can be claimed that output tasks were shown to exert a positive effect on the acquisition of the given collocations.

C. Research Question 2

The second research question asked whether input enhancement has a significant effect on the acquisition of grammatical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners. To answer this question, a paired-samples t-test was conducted. Tables 4 and 5 provide the descriptive statistics, along with the results of the given paired-samples t-test.

TABLE 4
PAIRED-SAMPLES DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR EG2

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	PRETEST	14.3667	25	1.65015	.30127
	POSTTEST	25.8333	25	1.66264	.30355

TABLE 5
PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR EG2

	Paired differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pre/posttest	-11.4667	2.01260	.36745	-12.2182	-10.7151	-31.206	24	.000

On a closer inspection of the mean scores given in Table 4, one can clearly see that the subjects in EG2 gained a higher mean score on the post-test after receiving the treatment (Pos-test=25.8333>Pre-test=14.3667). However, the researcher had to go further to find out whether or not the observed difference was significant. Therefore, the results of the t-test were taken into account. It can be concluded from the information presented in Table 5 that there is a significant difference in the performance of the participants on the pre- and post-test. This conclusion can be drawn because the probability value in Table 5 is observed to be 0.000 which is less than the critical value (0.05). In sum, it can be maintained that input enhancement has a positive impact on the acquisition of grammatical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

D. Research Question 3

The last research question asked whether there is a significant difference between visual input enhancement and output requirement with regard to the influence these two approaches to teaching exert on the acquisition of grammatical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners. The descriptive statistics of the scores obtained from the post-test demonstrate that the members of the experimental groups (EG1and2) outperformed those of the control group (CG). In fact, one can see in Table 6 that the mean score obtained by EG2 (25.8333) exceeds the mean score obtained by EG1 (25.1000) which is, in turn, higher than the mean score belonging to CG (14.5333).

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON THE POST-TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
EG1	26	25.1000	2.33932	.42710	24.2265	25.9735	22.00	30.00
EG2	25	25.8333	1.66264	.30355	25.2125	26.4542	23.00	30.00
CG	28	14.5333	1.61316	.29452	13.9310	15.1357	12.00	18.00
Total	79	21.8222	5.52131	.58200	20.6658	22.9786	12.00	30.00

Having gained some rudimentary information about the differences in the performance of the members of the three groups on the post-test, the researcher had to determine whether or not the observed differences were significant at the critical value (Sig.) of $p<0.05$. Therefore, a one-way between-groups ANOVA was conducted. Table 7 provides the results of the ANOVA.

TABLE 7.
THE RESULTS OF ANOVA ON THE POST-TEST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2398.822	2	1199.411	331.969	.000
Within Groups	314.333	76	3.613		
Total	2713.156	78			

On a closer inspection of Table 7, one can conclude that the three groups differed significantly with respect to their mean scores on the post-test because the significant value is observed to be 0.000, which is less than the critical value (0.05). Although the information presented in Table 7 is very revealing, it does not show where the observed differences lie. The researcher, therefore, had to run a Scheffe Post-hoc test. This post-hoc test indicates where the differences among the three groups (i.e. sets of scores) occur. Table 8 provides the results of the post-hoc test.

TABLE 8
THE RESULTS OF THE POST-HOC TEST

(I) TEACHING	(J) TEACHING	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
EG1	EG2	-.7333	.49078	.299	-1.9036	.4369
	CG	10.5667*	.49078	.000	9.3964	11.7369
EG2	EG1	.7333	.49078	.299	-.4369	1.9036
	CG	11.3000*	.49078	.000	10.1297	12.4703
CG	EG1	-10.5667*	.49078	.000	-11.7369	-9.3964
	EG2	-11.3000	.49078	.000	-12.4703	-10.1297

As mentioned above, the post-hoc test was employed to show where exactly the differences lie. In the above table, if there is an asterisk (*) next to the values listed in the second column, this means that the groups being compared are significantly different from one another at the $p<0.05$ level. In the first row of the table, the asterisk next to 10.5667 indicates that the difference between EG1 and CG is significant. Likewise, the difference between EG2 and CG appears to be significant because an asterisk can be seen next to 11.3000 in the second row of the table. In a nutshell, it can be claimed that CG is significantly different from EG1 and EG2, but there seems to be no significant difference between EG1 and EG2. As a result, it can be claimed that there is no significant difference between output requirement and input enhancement in terms of the influence they exert on the acquisition of grammatical collocations.

VI. Discussion

This study set out to investigate three research questions: (1) whether output tasks exert a significant influence on the acquisition of grammatical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners; (2) whether input enhancement has a significant effect on the acquisition of grammatical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners; and (3) whether there is a significant difference between visual input enhancement and output requirement with regard to the influence these two approaches to teaching exert on the acquisition of grammatical collocations by Iranian intermediate EFL learners. In brief, it was revealed that both output tasks and input enhancement have a positive impact on the acquisition of the target forms. Moreover, the findings indicated that these two methods were not significantly different with regard to the influence they exert on the acquisition of the target forms.

Firstly, the fact that the learners who engaged in output tasks and actual production of language did significantly better on the post-test suggests that having output opportunities was effective in developing learners' ability to use the target form more target-like or accurately. This is in line with Output Hypothesis proposed by Swain (1985, 1993, 1995, 1998, 2000, 2005). Swain (1985, 1995, 2005) maintains that output should not be viewed merely as an end product of learning, but as an important factor to promote L2 learning. The findings of the first research question in the present study also lend empirical support to previous experimental studies (Swain and Lapkin, 1995; Izumi et al., 1999; Izumi, 2002; Song and Suh, 2008) which claim that producing the target language provides learners with unique opportunities for a level of processing (i.e., syntactic processing) that may be needed for the development of target-like proficiency or the enhancement of accuracy. On the other hand, Izumi and Bigelow (2000) reported contrasting findings regarding the acquisition. According to them, there was no significant difference in gains between those learners engaged in output tasks and those involved in non-output tasks. On the whole, it should be noted that relatively few studies to date have investigated this issue and their inconclusive findings demonstrate the need for further research.

Secondly, the fact that the learners who received input enhancement treatment made significant gains with regard to the acquisition of grammatical collocations is consistent with the general trend observed in the works of Sharwood Smith (1991, 1993, 1994), who is deemed as a pioneer in input enhancement studies. Sharwwod Smith (1994) contends that "the most obvious way to try to affect the subconscious processes beneficially is by making relevant evidence in the input specially *salient*" (p.178, emphasis in the original). In addition, the present findings are in line with the previous studies on the effects of visual input enhancement which yielded positive findings for the facilitative role of input enhancement (Shook, 1994; Doughty, 1991; Williams, 1999). There are, however, a number of other studies showing incompatible results with the present findings. Such studies showed no significant effects or only limited facilitative effects for input enhancement (Alanen, 1995; Robinson, 1997; White, 1998; Gharaee, 2002).

Finally, it was found that the learners who engaged in the output tasks did not perform better on the post-test than those who did a kind of non-output task (input enhancement). The fact that the output task group and the input enhancement group showed comparable gain scores on the post-test indicates that output tasks were not significantly more effective than input enhancement task in facilitating development of learners' receptive knowledge. Accordingly, it can be claimed that an implicit and unobtrusive method such as input enhancement can be as effective as an output task which requires actual production of language on the part of L2 learners. On the other hand, no difference in the relative efficacy of these two methods may be attributable to the inadequacy of 'reconstruction' as a kind of output task. Perhaps other output tasks requiring deeper levels of processing and production will show more significant effects for output tasks in SLA.

VII. Pedagogical Implications

This study may have implications for L2 materials developers and teachers. It revealed that both output tasks and input enhancement lead to significant acquisition of target forms. Therefore, materials developers and teachers may use them as class activities that can appropriately control the learners' attentional resources without losing sight of meaning. Moreover, it would be useful in a classroom to devise and use these types of tasks so that learners can notice, take in, acquire and/or produce target forms in a meaningful context.

VIII. Limitations and Further Research

Acknowledging some limitations of the present study, certain suggestions can be made for further research. Firstly, this study adopted a short-term treatment with rather limited exposure to target forms. Further research can focus on the potential effects of longer-term treatments with larger amounts of exposure to target forms. Secondly, the findings of this study showed the positive effect of output tasks and input enhancement on the acquisition of certain grammatical collocations; however, not all linguistic features or rules may be equally amenable to these tasks. Thus, other researchers may focus on different target forms. Thirdly, the participants in this study were all intermediate learners. Another question which merits more investigation is whether or not students with other levels of proficiency (i.e. elementary and advanced) also benefit from output tasks and input enhancement. Finally, this study used only one type of output task—reconstruction task. Future research can focus on the effects of other types of output tasks.

Appendix A. Sample Questions from the Pre-/post-test

Read the following exchanges carefully and choose the correct answers.

1. A: Is he a good photographer?
   B: Yes, he has perfect skills …. photography. a) in b) on c) for
2. A: Hey, why are you so mad …. me?
   B: Because you told the teacher that I cheated on the test. a) at b) from c) over
3. A: Do you know I've failed my math test again?
   B: Yes, that's why I'm so disappointed …. you. a) at b) about c) in
4. A: What is the worst thing about being an only child?
   B: The biggest problem …. being an only child is that you always feel lonely. a) about b) with c) on
5. A: Did he finally break into movies?
   B: Yes he did, because he had a real enthusiasm …. movies. a) in b) about c) for
6. A: Come on! Tell me! What's the verdict?
   B: Don't worry. All the members agreed …. your new proposal. a) over b) on c) at

Appendix B. Sample Excerpt from the Texts Used during the Treatments

(Target forms in focus were bolded for EG2 but they were in plain form for EG1& CG)

I grew up in the south of Spain in a little community called Estepona. I was sixteen when one morning , my father, who was always **doubtful about** my **skills in** driving, told me I could drive him into a remote village called Mijas, about 18 miles away, on the condition that I take the car to be serviced by Mr. Robins at a nearby garage. We had to go all the way to Mijas because my father **believed in** Mr. Robin's **expertise in** fixing any potential **problems with** a car. It was a good **opportunity for** me to prove it to my dad that I was **good at** driving, so I readily accepted his offer. I drove dad into Mijas and promised to pick him up at 4 p.m., then **drove to** a nearby garage and dropped off the car. Because I had a few hours to spare, I decided to catch a couple of movies at a theater near the garage. In fact, I used to have a real **enthusiasm for** movies when I was a child, so I **headed for** the theater. However, I became so **immersed in** the movies that I completely lost track of time. When the last movie had finished, I looked down at my watch. It was six o'clock. I was two hours late….

Appendix C. Sample Vocabulary Prompts Used for the Reconstruction Output Task Used for EG1

Considering the information in the text, write complete sentences using the vocabulary given below.

- The boy/ashamed/telling/lies/his father
- Possible response: The boy was *ashamed of* telling lies to his father.
- The boy/confessed/his trip/movie theatre
- Possible response: The boy *confessed to* his trip to the movie theatre.
- The father/disappointed/his son
- Possible response: The father was *disappointed in* his son.
- The boy/decided/make/pleas/merci
- Possible response: The boy decided to make *pleas for* merci.

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A Freudian Reading of Philip Schultz's "The Wandering Wingless"

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***Abstract*—"The Wandering Wingless" is about a dog walker's life in New York City. It seems that the poet is representing his care about the horrors of September 11, the sibling relationship and the intimacy with animals. This paper, first interprets the poem on the basis of Freud's psychoanalytical theory, and then concludes that the output of this poem results from the influences of the death drive on the poet and the castration anxiety.**

***Index Terms*—"The Wandering Wingless", death drive, Castration Anxiety**

I. Introduction

"The Wandering Wingless" is one poem of the volume *Failure*, winner of the 2008 Pulitzer Prize for Poetry, which has gained enormous responses from various readers. There are also many writers having high praises. Gerald Stern, winner of "the National Book Award" said, "Philip Schultz's language remains that of a modern master as Isaac Rosenberg and Hart Crane. It is one thing I have always admired in his poetry, a heartbreaking tenderness that goes beyond mere pity and it is present in *Failure*. It shows as if he bears our pain." "The Wandering Wingless" is the longest poem in the volume, which includes 58 segments and 54 pages. To Gerald Stern again, "It's as if he bears our pain". With no exception, this poem also concentrates on the poet's regret and fear of the pain of life, the grief for his father's death and the horrors of September 11. It seems that the poet is just sharing his personal feelings with the reader by means of poem. Yet through a Freudian reading of the target poem, it is concluded that the output of "The Wandering Wingless" is the burst of the poet's castration anxiety and the influences of death drive.

II. The Influences of Death Drive on the Poet

According to the classical Freudian psychoanalytic theory, death drive is the drive towards death, destruction and forgetfulness. It was first proposed by Sigmund Freud in "Beyond the Pleasure Principle". The opposite of death drive is Eros (the Greek word for "love"), the tendency towards cohesion and unity. The death drive is sometimes referred to as "Thanatos" in post-Freudian thought, complementing "Eros", although this term has no basis in Freud's own work, being rather introduced by Freud's secretary, Paul Federn. According to Freud, the drive of this self-destruction does not only motive individuals or collectives to destroy themselves physically but also psychologically. Psychoanalysts then try their utmost to explore the headspring of this death drive. In *Critical Theory Today*, Lois Tyson claims that the death is attractive to the human being and this attraction varies in different degrees resulting from individual experiences. Furthermore, the thought of death keys into our fear of abandonment and our fear of being alone. This fear of abandonment includes the fear of being deserved and alone, fear of sibling's death and fear of intimacy. It is known that death is ultimate abandonment; your friends can not share your death, when everyone is abandoned by your friends, your siblings, and even God. Thus in some religious canon, it is said we human beings will not be alone for God, the Father will be there for us and with us and the Heavenly Father will not abandon his children even when everyone else we know has done so. Secondly, fear of abandonment also plays a crucial role in the fear of others' death. The death of ones' beloved will trigger him or her to meditate such questions as "what I have done wrong" and "why he or she leaves me alone". That is, the overwhelming feeling of loss is also a feeling of abandonment (Lois Tyson, 1999). Thirdly, the fear of abandonment also causes human being's fear of intimacy. As the blue song points out, "when you ain't got nothing, you got nothing to lose", that is one of the ways we can see how fear of death often results in fear of life. If we are not attached to life, it is natural we will not be desperate when life is gone. We are afraid of death but the ultimate destination of human is death. Therefore, we have no choice but to live our life in a dead way (a kind of suicide). We dare not to live a passionate life since we fear we will lose it some day. This lifeless life is also a kind of death from Freud's perspective. Although it is not biological death, it is emotional death. On the unconscious level, we are afraid of death, but the death is the only escape of this fear. The above explanation explains why human being is inclined to self-destruction (physical and psychological) , why someone is numb to life, and especially why emotional death is so attractive for us human being, for if we do not feel anything, we can not be hurt by it.

In "the Wandering Wingless", such emotional death drive can be sensed ubiquitously, which mainly reflects in three aspects, namely, the speaker's indifference to life, the doubt of God' Presence, and the death of speaker's father. It is obvious that the dog walker in the poem is the spokesman of Philip Schultz for the poet is also indulged in dog petting

just as a dog walker in reality. As the spokesman of the poet, the dog walker lives an indifferent life in the Washington Square, New York city. "The Wandering Wingless" is more like a narration than a poem. The dog walker is narrating his experiences about his dogs, his father's death, and the horrors of September 11. He is displaying a wearing picture to the audience gradually. According to Freud, this narration is just the sublimation of poet's unconsciousness. For the sake of analysis, the following chart is given to illustrate how the death drive of the poet is sublimed to the output of poem. This chart follows the four parts of the poem and the speaker's weariness, the death of the speaker's father and the speaker's doubt about God's presence are represented. The paper treats "the Wandering Wingless" as four parts and 58 segments; and the number in the bracket stands for the segment number in each part.

Section	The weariness	The death of father	Doubt of God's presence
Part one	an air of ever skulking fatigue… world weariness …of no one's interest(2) …of my seared brain …in a desperate hum(5)	the sparkling graves(4) When Dad's heart was failing (9) I understood he wanted to die(12)	I wandered, a false hallelujah, to swirl, flicker, and overflow(6)
Part two	but like me, they can't bear to own one. Anyone who's ever owned one knows what owing love means(5)waiting to be devastated(6) My brain doesn't care what it looks like(13)	He slid flat as a shadow and sat there, on the floor, twisted, gasping, looking up at me, his only child.(14)	Null
Part three	who have little to say and prefer the company of dogs who also have nowhere else to be, apparently. (5) A poor white dog in heat(10) only he can despair who is desperate(15)	In other words: why did Dad own, believe in, admit to, understand and love nothing…why was he so afraid of the benevolence deep inside him?(11) Get away from me! He said(14)	A glistening city of scarcity beyond my understanding where God lived(4)If I was the kind who seeks God during an emergency and then is ashamed all his life…(6)
Part four	"Why won't you own anything?" Because, frankly, I'm not prepared to do so.(4) If nothing is where I come from, return to, and am entitled to, what was I so afraid of losing?(5) Until there is nothing left but the sound of our voices and the eloquent silence of the stars. (12) I came to be here in this swallowed place.(13)	Null	As it was meant to be sung, as unraveling scrolls of prayers fell out of the molten sky pieces of oblivion(9)

A. The Speaker's Weariness of Life

As illustrated above, because of the influences of the death drive on the human being, some of us are afraid of devoting themselves to something, since we fear that the more we are devoted, the tenser fear we will get and the more desperate we will be when we lose it. This results in the speaker's lifeless life. The second segment of the first part begins with the background of speaker's living place "here in the **Village**, everyone owns a philosophy of fateful, exquisite reluctance; an air of ever skulking fatigue and deliciously illicit world-weariness". And the Village is capitalized, which indicates the living place of speaker, the New York City or even the whole world. The speaker can not feel the passion or vitality of the world, but only the fatigue and world-weariness. In the fifth segment of the first part, the speaker further gives description about his living background, "the wind comes whistling through, a torrent of fat squirrels scamper out of the knurled snout of the haunted ancient oak under which I prefer to understand, deep in its moist luxuriant decay, attempting to pluck slivers of tranquility out of the shade of my seared brain, cloaked as it is in a desperate hum of fear".

In the first part, the speaker is just describing the weariness of his living place, and in the second part, he expresses his fear of intimacy "they love dogs so much they vibrate, but like me, they can't bear to own one. Anyone who's ever owned one knows what owing love means" (the fifth segment of the second part). Although they are all obsessed to dog pet, they dare not have one since they fear they will lose the dog someday. When it comes to the third part, the speaker delivers his attitudes toward despair "about despair it must be said: only he can despair who is desperate…" (The fifteenth segment of the third part). That is only when we are absolutely devoted to something, can we feel desperate at its loss. He is giving the reason why he lives an indifferent life. At last, in the fourth part, although the speaker has realized the headspring of the despair, he can not escape such destination, accompanying with the despair. In the fifth segment of this part, the speaker is still wondering "If nothing is where I come from, return to, and am entitled to, what was I so afraid of losing". It is obvious the speaker is still confused about his fear of losing something. In a word,

because of the poet's repression of death drive, the only outlet is the poem.

B. The Death of Speaker's Father

It is known that the fear of death has close relationship with the fear of abandonment by your siblings, by your friends, and even abandoned by your pet (the loss or the death of your pet). Once this abandonment hits someone, especially when one is in his or her childhood, it will become the trauma of him or her in terms of psychoanalytic theory. Psychological trauma is a type of damage to the psyche that occurs as a result of a traumatic event. When that trauma leads to posttraumatic stress disorder, damage may involve physical changes inside the brain and to brain chemistry, which damage the person's ability to adequately cope with stress. It is known that the father of the poet died early when he was young (eighteen years old), which resulted in the suffering of the poet and his mother. "After Dad died, mother returned to her old job filing invoices and I found work replacing DuPont's roof, along with twelve black men, not one of whom had ever worked with a white boy before; her fingers were swollen red with paper cuts, her eyes black shallows". This suffering makes the poet more inclined to the weariness of life, for he can not bear losing his beloved one anymore. And some reviewers even doubt the poet's pain about the death of his father. For it is seemed that the poet is describing his father's death as a bystander, "I understood Dad was sick of working […] he was losing everything. I understood that he wanted to die". There are no sorrowful words describing the death of his father just "I understood". Besides, the father's death seems to be within his expectation. Actually, this kind of indifference is the mask of his pain of father's death. And the father's failure experiences also cast a shadow on the poet, "I understood Dad was sick of working fourteen hours a day", but until the death of his father, he can not understand why "he was losing everything". To conclude, the Dad has tried his utmost to do his business, the only thing he can get, unfortunately, is "failure". And all of these become the trauma of the poet, which results in the poet's living a lifeless life in New York City. What's more, dad is capitalized in the poem, which may attempt to universalize the figure of father or imply the Dad in the poem is the embodiment of God.

C. The Speaker's Doubt about God's Presence

During one interview, Philip Schultz said, "I thought it's funny that Jews don't have a guardian angel. I felt I should make up one". Therefore, one of his works is called "My Guardian Angel Stein" and the archetypes of Stein are probably his dedicated friend Yehud Amichai or to some extent his father. In the third segment of the third part, the poet writes, "O God full of mercy who dwells on high grant proper rest on the wings of the Divine Presence…" It is apparent that the Angel with wings can be interpreted as Father, one aspect of YHWH in Judaism. According to the Ten Commandments of Judaism, the Jews have to commit to the God's Presence and it is forbidden to doubt the presence of God and the Jews should not murder. While in the poem, the wings of Angel are broken, which indicates the loss of Angel's supernatural power. The poet doubts the power of Father for the Angel is the son of the God and the embodiment of the God. In the sixth segment of the first part, the poet is wondering :" is this what feels like to be dead, [I wondered,] a false hallelujah to swirl, flicker, and overflow, never again contrive to be anything more or less than a beginning, or middle, or end?". The compliment "hallelujah" to the God is modified by "false", which suggests the poet's irreverence. In the sixth segment of the third part, this irreverence goes further "If I was the kind who seeks God during an emergency and then is ashamed all his life […]." While according to the basic beliefs of Judaism, there is one God who created and rules the world. This God is omnipotent (all powerful), omniscient (all knowing) and omnipresent (in all places at all times). God is also just and merciful. It is a great satire that God is omnipotent, for he can not rescue his sons during an emergency. The speaker, the spokesman of the poet, is desperate for all his loss, the loss of his father and God. In a nutshell, the poet realizes he has lost everything and it is doomed he will be alone. Therefore, according to psychoanalysis, the only escape is death, the emotional death. It is natural, for a poet, the poem becomes his tool of catharsis (his loss of father in reality and the loss of God).

III. The "Wingless" in "The Wandering Wingless"

The Freudian theory is notorious for his pan-sexualism. No one can deny it is reasonable in some sense, though.

One of the major branches of Freudian theory is his interpretation of dreams. He interprets the dream as the speaking out of the unconscious. According to the Typographical Model of Freud, The unconscious is the storehouse of those painful experiences and emotions, wounds, fears, guilty desires, and unresolved conflicts we do not want to know about because we feel we will be overwhelmed by them. The unconscious comes into being when we are very young through the repression of these unhappy psychological events and during sleep, the unconscious is to express itself, and it does so in our dreams. However, the unconscious does not express itself in explicit way, but in very covert way in the form of defense, condensation and displacement. Through displacement, we use a "safe" person, event, or object as a "stand-in" to represent a more threatening person, event, or object. Condensation occurs during a dream whenever we use a single image or event to represent more than one unconscious wound or conflict. Freud asserts that the unconscious will express its suppressed wishes and desires in the form of images or symbols in our dreams. For a writer, the text is the disguised form of his or her dream. A writer's chief motivation for writing any story is to gratify some secret desire, some forbidden wish that was suppressed in the unconscious and the writer's work is a dream containing a hidden meaning. Thus through the interpretation of the dream (or text), we can go deep into the writer's unconscious.

Another major notion of Freud theory is the theory of psychosexual development. According to Freud, in our childhood, all of us go through three overlapping phases: the oral, anal, and phallic stages. During the phallic stage, Oedipus complex, Castration complex and Electra complex are formed in terms of Freud. Freud asserts during the late infantile stage, all infant males possess an erotic attachment to their mother and they all consider their father as rivalry, this is called Oedipus complex. Then the infantile male becomes aware of differences between male and female genitalia, he assumes that the female's penis has been removed. He then becomes anxious that his penis will be cut off by his rival, the father figure, as punishment for desiring the mother figure, this is called castration anxiety.

Referring to "the Wandering Wingless", firstly, it can be considered as the representation of the poet's dream, the nightmare, the horrors of September 11, the death of his father, and the suffering after his father's death. It is seemed that the poet is describing his horrible experiences. Actually, it is just the catharsis of his castration anxiety and the self-punishment or self-torture for his murder of his father.

If "the Wandering Wingless" is analyzed as a dream, the first image comes to our sight is the "wingless". As stated in *the Interpretation of Dreams*, the flight or the bird is the symbol of male or intercourse. Thus the "wingless" may suggest the castration. In the fourth segment of the first part, it is seemed the poet is sketching his father's despair after the failure of business; however, it is more like describing the intercourse between mother and father.

Dad sold gaskets
Without which sewing machines
Stopped stitching
The more refined crotches
Of the Finger Lakes region
In upstate New York.
He liked to say
He tried to sell God
A second Sunday
But no one buys anything
On Sunday. When
His heart was failing
He'd sit on his bed
Staring at his hands, unable
To understand why
They were so angry.
Inside the sparkling graves
of his shoes
He'd stand wavering,
Arms hanging,
Chest heaving,
Each sigh intricately
Intertwined
in the infinitely
Variegated blasts
Of his broken breaths,
Waiting
For his strength
To return.

It is obvious that this is the erotic sight of Father and Mother. For Freud, the child perceives the father's attention to the mother as sexual. So in the poet's young experiences, he might witness some sight and he is willing to see his father's incompetence. In the fourteenth segment of the fourth part,

Beyond Golden Gate Park
I could hear *ocean waves.*
My hands were shaking.
What was I doing here,
In this *public pain?*
Everything I loved I feared.
Was this what failure was---
Endless fear? My face
Pressed against cold bars,
Every muscle
In the universe relaxed as piss flowed warm
And free down
Both my legs

All the way to hell.

The "ocean waves" can be interpreted as female, Mother. He wants to kick out father from the world between mother and him. However, he fears he will be castrated by his father. In order to release/let out this anxiety, he appeals to writing. In a nutshell, the wingless does not only indicate the poet's castration anxiety but also suggests his displacement of his willingness of his father's inability even father's death. Then when his dreams come true (when his father is dead), he feels the sense of guilt and projects the sense of guilt onto his mental illness. In "the Wandering Wingless", the Saint Vincet' psych ward are mentioned several times and in the first segment of the fourth part, he began to punish himself "I got so sick of my voracious appetite for calamity, first I cut my left wrist and then my right one with funky Gillette and swallowed 15 meprobamates to stop the echoing in my waxy ears."

IV. Conclusion

As the winner of Pulitzer Prize, it is seemed that "the Wandering Wingless" is describing some universal topics, the horrors of September 11, the affection for the intimate sibling, and his affection for the dog. However, through the Freudian reading, it can be safely concluded that the output of this poem is just the poet's catharsis of his castration anxiety and the influences of death drive on him.

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Beyond Reading Comprehension: The Effect of Adding a Dynamic Assessment Component on EFL Reading Comprehension

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***Abstract*—Dynamic assessment (DA) stresses the need for unifying assessment and instruction. This paper presents an interactionist model of DA to assessment in reading comprehension of 30 Iranian male students who were selected based on available sampling procedure. Data collection procedures before and after implementation of DA were done through administration of multiple-choice reading comprehension test. The results of students' performance before and after implementation of DA were calculated through t-test. The results indicate significant improvement in student performance after implementation. Finally, the null hypothesis is rejected and it is concluded that incorporation of DA as a supplement procedure to standard testing has positive effective on both test performance and learning of students.**

***Index Terms*—dynamic assessment, static assessment, reading comprehension**

I. Introduction

Undoubtedly one of the most grueling and frustrating part of any educational course is the assessment part. Poehner (2008) asserts that "Students frequently echo this frustration when they are required to undergo regular assessment in order to demonstrate mastery of content or competency to pass to the next level of instruction" (p. 3). To make the situation even worse we raise the repetitious question of "why do we assess our students?" The fact is that assessment is usually looked at as an information-gathering tool (Bailey, 1996, cited in Poehner). Narrowing the function of assessment as only an information-gathering tool not only leads to bifurcation between teaching and assessment, but puts assessment in direct opposition to instruction. One possible way to combine the two distinct but related fields is the development of Dynamic Assessment (henceforth, DA). This reunification happens only when we integrate a mediation phase into our assessment (Lidz and Gindis, 2003). This view is in line with the approach to assessment and instruction described in the Sociocultural Theory of Mind (SCT), as developed by the Russian psychologist L.S. Vygotsky and his colleagues more than 80 years ago (Poehner, 2008).

According to Williams & Burden (1997) sociocultural theory of mind is part of a bigger paradigm called constructivism. Two names which are associated with constructivism are Piaget and Vygotsky. They differ mostly in the degree to which they value the role of social context in the development of language. For Piaget language develops as a result of gradual growth of general intellectual skills (Woolfolk, 2004). So, it can be said that Piaget theory is a developmental one. But, Lev Vygotsky offered an alternative to Piaget's stages of cognitive development. Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory of Development is now a major influence in education (Woolfolk, A., 2004). Vygotsky advocates the primacy of social constructivist theory in which social interaction is the driving force in language development. Social constructivist theory, according to Nyikos and Hashimoto (1997), is mostly applied to address the learning through social interaction as delineated by the *zone of proximal development* which is the distance between a child's actual cognitive capacity and the level of potential development through mediation or scaffolding. So, under collaborative condition students reveal certain emergent functions which have not been yet fully internalized, or which have not been part of Zone of Actual Development (Kuzlin and Grab, 2002). These functions belong to ZPD. While static tests reveal information about the already existent abilities, we need a testing system which reveals information about the emergent abilities of learners. Hence, DA is proposed as a way of measuring the emergent abilities of students in the realm of ZPD.

Central to Vygotsky's theory was also the relationship between the development of thought and language. Vygotsky's theory views language first as social communication, gradually promoting both language itself and cognition. This assumption constitutes the base of social constructivist theory which emphasizes the importance of Socio-cultural factors in understanding what occurs in society and constructing knowledge based on interaction (Derry, 1999). It is

assumed that if we are to apply social constructivist theory to our EFL instruction setting, the evaluation of the students in these settings also needs a change and should be appropriately redesigned. According to Dixon-Krauss (1996), ZPD is a dynamic working model because it both guides and evolves through the social interaction that occurs during the learning activity. If this is the case, then we should think of a new model in order to measure the level of development of students in such dynamic context. The proposal for measurement in such contexts has been *dynamic assessment* (DA, hereafter). According to Heywood and Lidz (2007) DA is a recently developed, interactive approach to psycho educational assessment that follows a test-intervene-retest format, focuses on learning processes and modifiability, and provides the possibility of direct linkage between assessment and intervention.

The focus of this paper is on the implementation of DA in the assessment of reading comprehension in EFL classroom setting. In what follows, we will first discuss briefly the related review of literature, the concept of the ZPD and its realization in DA procedures; next, we will compare DA to Formative Assessment (henceforth, FA). Then, adopting an interactionist model, treatment is given and finally results are analyzed. The general goal of this study is to clearly show that DA, not as an alternative but as a supplement to standard test, can be administered in EFL classroom.

The present study

Based on what has been said so far it seems that doing further research on DA is a necessity. It is a valuable tool for those practitioners who really wish to fill the gap between teaching and testing, and link them together. By adopting a DA procedure students will no longer look at testing as something disgusting or frightening, rather they see it as another learning opportunity. This issue becomes considerably important when it comes to the context of Iran, where students are still tested quite improperly. That is, current measurement trend in Iran is the defective but prominent view of "teach to test". In a context like Iran, where no documented research on DA has been reported, conducting a research with the aim of paving the ground for further research seems justifiable. In this study the researcher aspired to bridge the gap between teaching and testing by adding a DA during the assessment of reading comprehension, hoping that it would have a significant effect on the performance of the group who receive support and help during mediation. For this purpose the following research question was proposed:

Is there a significant difference between the reading comprehension performance of dynamically-assessed students and non-dynamically-assessed ones?

Based on the above research question the following null hypothesis was proposed:

H. There is no significant difference between the reading comprehension performance of the two groups.

II. Review of Literature

A. Theoretical Background

Although DA was the brainchild of Vygotsky's concept of ZPD, he himself did not use the term DA, (Poehner, & Lantolf, 2005). They believe that for first time it was A.R. Luria (1961), one of Vygotsky's most influential colleagues, who contrasts 'statistical' with 'dynamic' approaches to assessment. Unlike Standard tests which are psychometrically oriented, DA is rooted in the ZPD, so, its aim should be determining the extent to which the person's performance is modifiable. Because of the importance of ZPD, the author finds it essential to define ZPD in greater details.

1. Zone of Proximal Development

Vygotsky's sociocultural theory has two major features. The first, as it was mentioned is about the role of interaction in development. A second aspect of Vygotsky's theory is the idea that the capacity for cognitive development depends upon the "zone of proximal development" (ZPD). Vygotsky (1978) defines ZPD as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86). It, then, predicts the future development not *a priori* level. Poehner and Lantolf (2005) believe that "DA is very much in line with future-in-the-making models of development" (p. 237). As called for in Vygotsky's ZPD, assessment and instruction should be integrated as the means to move towards an always emergent (i.e., dynamic) future, rather than a fixed and stable steady state (ibid). Thus, it can be proposed that while static tests focus on the performance belonging to ZAD, DA tries to measure the emerging abilities which are not still fully developed and do not belong to the existing knowledge repertoire.

2. Dynamic Assessment versus Static Assessment

Emergence of new trends such as ZPD to language teaching calls not only for new approaches in language testing, but also for closer connection between these two fields. Static models of assessment which focus on student's existing knowledge and skills are no longer satisfactory. As Cioffi and Carney (1983) argue static measurement or non dynamic (NDA henceforth) procedures are the best choice when we want to evaluate the students' skill knowledge, but these procedures are insufficient for estimating the learning potential. Standardized testing can only inform much classroom-based assessment, even when the goal is to support learning (e.g., formative assessment, assessment for learning). Having said that, it should also be mentioned that whatever the shortcoming of static test were, they paved the ground for a more flexible approach to testing known as DA. DA development has been motivated by the inadequacy of standardized tests. The inadequacy can be summarized in the following points:

1). Static tests do not provide crucial information about learning processes

2). The manifested low performance level of many children, as revealed in standard test very frequently falls short of revealing their learning potential

3). In many static tests students are described mostly in relation to their relative position of their peer group, but they do not provide clear descriptions of the processes involved in learning, and

4). Static tests do not relate to non-intellective factors that can influence individuals' cognitive performance.

Dynamic assessment appeared not as a substitution for standardized test but as a complementary invention. It focuses on student's learning potential for learning. In other words, in the same way that ZPD focuses on the capacity and the level of potential development, DA focuses on learning potential and their ability to realize this potential during assessment process. It involves planned mediation of teaching and the assessment of effects of that teaching on subsequent performance (Campione & Brown, 1990). To summarize the differences so far, let us refer Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002), who make distinction between DA and NDA in three ways:

First, in terms of assessment goals, NDA focuses on 'products formed as a result of preexisting skills.' At the level of assessment administration, the non-dynamic paradigm does not permit 'feedback from examiner to test-taker regarding quality of performance' during the test procedure. Finally, with regard to the examiner's orientation in NDA, it is important 'to be as neutral and as uninvolved as possible toward the examinee (p. 28-29).

The difference between these two types of testing trends, or procedures does not stop here. Sternberg and Grigonernko (as cited in Lantolf and Thorne, 2006) identify three methodological and epistemological differences between DA and NDA. First, NDA focuses on past development while DA looks at the future development. The second issue is the relationship between examinee/examiner. In NDA examiner adopt a neutral role, but in DA examiner intervene in the assessment. Finally, in NDA there is no immediate feedback, but in DA feedback is given to students during a mediated procedure- and this is the crux of DA. According to Lantolf and Thorne (2006) "what makes a procedure dynamic or not is whether or not mediation is incorporated into the assessment process. In other words, fill-in-the-blank, multiple-choice, open-ended essay, or even oral proficiency test in themselves may or may not be dynamic" (p.331). Thus, there are no dynamic tests or instruments per se.

3. Approaches to Dynamic Assessment

DA is based on the Vygotskian notion of ZPD which captures the uniquely human potential to exceed beyond present capabilities in cooperation with others whose dialogic interaction mediates us to higher levels of functioning (Poehner, 2008). He adds that currently there a number of approaches and methods that fall under the umbrella term of term of DA. This is due to the fact that mediation can be implemented in a number of ways. But, According to (Lantolf and Poehner, 2004) there are two general approaches to DA, *interactionist* and *interventionist.*

Interactionist DA follows Vygotsky's tendency for dialogic interaction. In this approach, assistance emerges from the interaction between the mediator and the learner, and is therefore highly sensitive to the learner's ZPD. Imagine this scenario: a student is working on a reading comprehension multiple-choice item. He wisely identifies two incorrect options but when it comes to identifying the right answer between the other two option he gets stuck he cannot do that. Here you, as the mediator, steps in and tries to give hint. If the student cannot figure out the right answer more direct hints or support are provided until he gets to the right answer. Interventionist DA, on the other hand, remains closer to certain forms of static assessment and their concerns over the psychometric properties. Poehner (2008) states that the defining characteristic of interventionist DA is the use of standardized administration procedures and forms of assistance in order to produce easily quantifiable results that can be used to make comparisons between and within groups, and can be contrasted with other measures and used to make predictions about performance on future tests.

In addition to this dichotomous classification Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002) have described as *sandwich* and *cake* taxonomy of mediation. They believe that the sandwich format is much more in line with traditional experimental research designs in which treatment is administered following a pretest and a posttest. In this approach to DA, a mediation phase is similarly "sandwiched" between pretest and posttest that are administered in a non-dynamic manner. The *cake* format, however, refers to procedures in which mediation is offered during the administration of the assessment, usually whenever problems arise. As it was mentioned there are a number of other methods, such as Budoff's Learning Potential Measurement Approach, Guthke's Lerntest Approach, Carlson and Wiedl's Testing-the-Limits Approach, and Brown's Graduated Prompt Approach. Here we just mention their names and do not go into the details of their methodology, interested reader can refer to Poehner (2008) for more information.

Apart from these differences, it is the mediation phase of dynamic assessment which requires much care. This phase of the assessment is based on the Lev Vygotsky's concept of a ZPD. It is believe that interaction is a necessary precondition to learning (Nyikos and Hashimoto, 1997). The mediation stage reflects Vygotsky's ideas about instruction within the zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, as cited in Dixon-Krauss, 1996). It guides the teacher in making instructional decisions by analyzing the student, the text, and the type and amount of mediation she needs to provide. Thus, one may ask the question that how all these things can be attained in an academic setting. The answer is that all these things are achieved through *cognitive apprenticeship,* which is the topic of next section.

4. Cognitive Apprenticeship

According to Brown, Collins, & Duguid (as cited in Nyikos and Hashimoto, 1997) "Cognitive apprenticeship (CA) is the most frequently applied model of constructivist approaches" (p. 64). It strives to place teaching and learning practices within a rich and real-life context that is meaningful to students. Brill, Kim, and Galloway (2001) assert that

cognitive apprenticeship practices are educational approaches that strive, first and foremost, to place teaching and learning practices within a rich and varied context that is meaningful and authentic to students. It has certain characteristics such as modeling, scaffolding or coaching, and reflection.

Modeling starts from learning simple tasks, such as riding a bike which involves more physical skills to complex tasks that require cognitive processes. In a typical modeling strategy both teachers and students are serving cognitive role. The models should put their thoughts and reasons into words while explaining and demonstrating certain actions, because students cannot otherwise monitor the thinking process (Shunk, 2000, as cited in Brill, Kim, and Galloway, 2001). After all**,** the aim of modeling in cognitive apprenticeship is to show how a process unfolds. Scaffolding involves a teacher (or a more knowledgeable other) providing some type of assistance, help or support to a learner to facilitate attainment of a goal. In fact, scaffolding can be considered only one form of coaching (Brill, Kim, and Galloway (2001).

The cognitive apprenticeship model can also be implemented as reflection. The goal of reflection is that students have enough opportunities to look back and analyze their individual and group performance in order to have a more chance for understanding and improvement. Like other components of cognitive apprenticeship, reflection can be encouraged in students in a variety of ways. For example, a mentor can pose "why" questions. Cognitive apprenticeship with its emphasis on situated learning encourages authentic activity and assessment (Collins, Brown, & Newman, 1989). Because Cognitive apprenticeship provides students with authentic tasks it encourages them (Collins, 1991).

B. Empirical Studies on L2 Dynamic Assessment

In their comprehensive review of application of DA to educational settings Haywood and Lidz (2007) assert that "Campion and Brown (1987) have been pioneers in their attempts to assess specific academic domains in the framework of DA" (p. 77). Lantolf and Thorne (2006) believe that the entire body of research in this new avenue of research includes only few studies that focus on L2 learners or bilinguals. They begin their review with the work of Pena and Gillman (2000) (as cited in Lantolf and Thorne, 2006) who investigated the children's reasoning through DA. The second study which they refer to is that of Anton (2003) which uses DA as a placement procedure. Participants were asked to construct orally a past-tense narrative after watching a short video clip. This time the learners received no feedback or mediation. They were then shown a second clip and asked to repeat the task, but this time with the help of a mediator who offered suggestions, posed questions, made corrections and helped them think through decisions making. After approximately six weeks of instruction, the participants were re-administered the original independent and mediated narration tasks in order to cheek their progress.

Poehner (2008) also conducted a series of extensive DA case studies examining oral proficiency among advanced undergraduate learners of French. Another study is that of Kouzlin and Grab (2002) which is about the EFL reading comprehension of adult at-risk immigrants. The results of their study indicate that the procedure is both feasible and effective in obtaining information on students' learning potential. It is confirmed that students with a similar performance level demonstrate different, and in some cases dramatically different ability to learn and use new text comprehension strategies. One interesting aspect of their work is the manner in which they report the outcomes of the DA procedure. Rather than generating a qualitative report of each learner's performance for all stages of the study, they presented the learners' abilities with a single score which they themselves called Learning Potential Score (LPS) which is the difference between the learner's pretest and posttest scores.

Of other examples of the direct application of DA to the domain of language we can refer to the works of Roseberry and Collin (1991) and Jacobs (2001). The results of former study indicated that addition of intervention was effective. The results of the latter study also showed that inclusion of a dynamic component to preschool program developed the knowledge of preschool children. Bendar and Kletzian (1990) applied a pretest-intervention-posttest format to 29 students from grade 9 to 12 and they saw development in their reading.

Ableeva (2007) using a DA procedure in assessing listening comprehension of university level L2 learners of French uncovered the source of comprehension problems. He found that in one case student shifted to a single lexical item and in another one to cultural knowledge. This revealed that learners' abilities were more developed than one would have surmised from unmediated performance.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

There were 30 male EFL participants (fifteen in each class) who were selected based on the available sampling procedure. According to the final exams of the previous semesters of the language institution these students were supposed to enjoy the same proficiency level, and now they were at 12^{th} semester of New Interchange course. To double-check the homogeneity of subjects in terms of reading comprehension skill the reading part of Nelson English Language Proficiency Test was administered. To compare the gained mean scores of the two groups on the test a t-test was run to ensure that control and experimental group are homogenous. The results of the t-test are presented in table 3.1.

Table 3. 1. Independent t-test (group copmarison)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
	Equal variances assumed	1.554	.219	-.561	28	.577	-2.320	4.132	-10.63	5.989
	Equal variances not assumed			-.561	26.166	.577	-2.320	4.132	-10.64	5.997

As can be seen, the t-observed value, i. e. -.56 and the critical t-value at 28 degree of freedom is 2.084. In statistical term, the amount of t-observed, i.e. -56 at 28 degree of freedom is much lower than the critical F value, i. e. 2.048. Thus, when the t-observed is smaller than the critical-t value, it can be concluded that there is no significant difference between the means of the two groups and we can be on the safe side to claim the homogeneity of groups prior to the mediation. One of the two groups was randomly assigned to the control group and the other to the experimental group.

B. Instruments

In this study five instruments were used. The first one was the reading section of Nelson English Language Proficiency Test which was adopted from a Thesis by Avaz zade (2005, pp. 55). It was used to measure reading comprehension of students and ensure their homogeneity. Overall this test consists of 30 items. Four other reading comprehension tests from TOEFL Reading Flash (2005) were also used. According to Broukal, the author of the book, these passages are easier than the passages on the TOEF, so they can be used in classroom for students who need more work on reading. Haywood and Lidz (2007) also assert that the content of pre and post test should be just beyond the individuals' zone of actual development so that requires intervention or mediation. One text was used as a standard pretest, the other as the dynamic post test for determining the zone of possible development and the other two tests were used during the intervention phase as the material of practice.

C. Design

First it should be pointed out that this small-scale classroom research was implemented to improve the learning potential of students. But due to the fact that we did not have a pool of subjects we had to adopt especial design. As Best and Kahn (1989; 116) maintain "randomization involves pure chance of selection and assignment of subjects to experimental and control groups for a limited supply of available subjects". In other words, randomization occurs at two levels of selection and assignment. We did not have the first type of randomization and the only option left for us was to randomly assign them to experimental and control groups.

The design of the study was based on a *Sandwich model* which was introduced by Sternberg and Grigorenko (as cited in Poehner, 2008). According to Poehner (2008) in this approach to DA, a mediation phase is sandwiched between pretest and posttest that are administered in a non-dynamic manner. The performance on the post test can then be compared to that of the pretest in order to decide how much improvement has been made. Sternberg and Grigorenko also point out that the mediation procedure can be administered in either an individual or group setting. So, based on these theoretical assumptions the author implemented these procedures a detailed description of which is presented in the next part.

D. Procedure

In this study we selected two homogenous EFL classes but as was said to ensure their homogeneity a Nelson reading test was administered. Then, they were assigned to control and experimental groups. During four successive sessions 30 minutes of class time was allocated to mediation and discussion about the results of their exams. During the mediation phase the researcher followed an interactionist method which is based on cooperative dialoging. In this approach, assistance emerges from the interaction between the mediator and the learner. As the methodology of DA required us we have to abandon the traditional conceptualizations of the examiner/examinee roles in favor of a relaxed, stress-free, and dynamic relationship in which both are working toward the ultimate success of the student. In this joint enterprise the teacher (and in this case mediator himself) provided guidance. The fact is that in this method teacher cannot be predesigned because it is not possible to know in advance what feedback and support would be required by the student. The mediator provided help first for the failing individual with the necessary information about the problem and the possible ways of solving it. Then, once the individual has developed the ability to tackle the problem (through mediation work with the teacher), their ability to tackle similar tasks were assessed.

In fact the mediator did not follow any specific procedure for instruction because as Poenher and Lantolf (2005) stated in *interactionist* DA "instruction is not organized according to a net sequence" (p.10). They also assert that tasks are presented according to teacher's assumptions and the teacher should be ready to provide appropriate mediation at the appropriate time. It includes presenting the problem to the students and let them think through the process. During mediation it was tried to help the experimental group so that they could reach their full potential or what is known as zone of proximal development. A description of each stages of mediation is provided.

Phase 1: In the pre-test stage the students were given a reading comprehension test and their papers were taken home and corrected. After correction they were scored and it was tried to provide necessary information via marginal comments or other possible ways. Then, the papers were taken back to the class and distributed among students to start the second phase.

Phase2: This stage of the study was the heart of mediation and the most burdensome part for the researcher. The main content of the second part or the mediation phase was based on the performance of the students in the pre-test. During the mediation it was tried to provide enough feedback and discuss a wide range of topics that could be helpful in text comprehension. The teacher assisted the students as they were trying to agree on the correct answer of the questions that they missed. In fact, there was a kind of discussion. The discussion was about the text structure, cohesion devices, coherence, reading strategies and textual metadiscourse devices.

The mediator also helped students to understand the requirement of text comprehension, offer feedback, let the students verbally report the answering strategy, explain the reason, and examine the strategies used. For examples, they questioned reasons for choosing choice A rather than B, C, or D, and the teacher explained and discussed how a correct answer was obtained. During this stage several questions were raised by students. The dialogic nature of mediation lead to the development of insight of the subject's understanding of the structure of text, text comprehension, and better test taking strategies. Following is a list of the most frequently applied strategies for giving feedback on their pretest

- Providing marginal comments on the pre-test paper and discussing them with the students
- Asking marginal questions
- Providing tentative hints
- Asking peers for help

The pretests were given back to the students. In additions to collaborative reviewing the above-mentioned factors, in an attempt to increase their knowledge of text structure, the researcher asked the students to

- Highlight or underline modality markers which are used to comment on the truth-value of the ideas (e. g. it seems that)
- Highlight or underline sequencers and topicalizer (e. g. first, the next problem is)
- code glasses which help readers grasp the meaning of words (e. g. Assiduous which means "hard-working").

Phase3: in this part of the study the fourth reading comprehension was administered as the dynamic post test. The procedure of scoring was the same as pre test. That is, students were given score based on an interval scale, and false answer did not have negative score. The procedure we followed for calculating the end result of our study was the same as the method Kuzlin and Grab (2002) used in their study. We also reported the outcomes of the DA procedure in terms of Learning Potential Score. Rather than generating a qualitative report of each learner's performance for all stages of the study, we presented the learners' abilities with a single score which is called Learning Potential Score (LPS is the difference between the learner's pretest and posttest scores. The results are presented in more details in next part

IV. Results

The main purpose of this study was to find the effect of dynamic assessment procedure on reading comprehension performance of EFL students. Assuming that DA would have no significant effect on the reading ability of students, the following research question was proposed. The following is a recitation of the research question:

Is there a significant difference between reading comprehension performance of dynamically-assessed students and non-dynamically-assessed ones?

Based on this question the following null hypothesis was proposed:

There is no significant difference between reading comprehension performance of dynamically-assessed students and non-dynamically-assessed ones?

In order to probe the null hypothesis stating that there is no significant difference between the EFL students' performance on non-dynamic and dynamic reading assessment the two groups first took a standard or a non-dynamic reading test. After reviewing the results of their test and giving additional instruction during mediation phase, a dynamic post-test reading comprehension was conducted. It should be pointed out that our control group also took the same tests but instead of instruction in the mediation phase a placebo was introduce to them. In order to compare the mean scores of the control and experimental groups on the pretest and posttest, the gained mean score for each group was separately computed by subtracting the posttest mean score from the pretest mean score. An independent t-test was run to compare the difference in the mean scores of the two groups. Table 4.2. shows the results.

TABLE 4. 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

	GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
PRETEST	1.00	15	13.5333	2.1252
	2.00	15	14.0333	2.0482
POSTTEST	1.00	15	14.1667	1.3844
	2.00	15	17.3333	1.7995

TABLE 4. 2.
INDEPENDENT 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
Equal Variance assumed	3.763	.058	4.011	28	.000	2.17000	.24081	1.6858	2.65419
Equal Variances not assumed			3.011	43.217	.000	2.17000	.24081	1.6844	2.65558

As can be seen, the t-observed value is 4.01, and the critical t-value at 28 degree of freedom is 2.084. In statistical term, this amount of t-observed, i.e. 4.01 at 28 degree of freedom is bigger than the critical F value of 2.048. Thus, when the t-observed is bigger than the critical-t value, it can be safely concluded that there is a significant difference between the means of the two groups. Thus, the null hypothesis can be safely rejected and we can claim the effectiveness of instruction during the mediation phase.

Effect size

The information gained so far give us only an indication of whether the difference between groups is 'statistically significant' (i.e. not likely to have occurred by chance) or not. But, there is more to research than just obtaining statistical significance. One way that you can assess the importance of your finding is to calculate the 'effect size' (also known as 'strength of association'). Effect size statistics provide an indication of the magnitude of the differences between groups (not just whether the difference could have occurred by chance). There are a number of different effect size statistics, the most commonly used being eta squared. Eta squared can range from 0 to 1 and represents the proportion of variance in the dependent variable that is explained by the independent (group) variable. Calculating the eta squared value (effect size) for this research the obtained value was .36. The guidelines for interpreting obtained value are as following: .01=small effect, .06=moderate effect, .14=large effect. Based on these guidelines for interpreting effect size .36 shows a large effect size.

V. INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The aim of this paper was to explore the feasibility and practicality of development and implementation of DA to reading comprehension of EFL students in the context of Iran. A comparison of mean score of experimental group displayed that the mean score of experimental group had an increase of 2.3 score in posttest while the increase for the control group was only 1.1. It reveals that the students in the experimental group performed better in comparison with the students in the control group. The finding is consistent with the finding of Kuzlin and Grab (2002), who provided evidence for the positive effects of DA on performance of students. Based on the results of the study it can be discussed that DA is more than just a formative assessment. As we have seen in our brief analysis of the data of teacher interact with students we saw the aim was to promote development. Thus, one possible explanation for the positive effect of DA on reading comprehension is that it is more than just a sheer form of assessment. DA is a pedagogical approach which is supported by theories of mind and development. It is an approach which stresses the inseparability of assessment and instruction. Adding DA to the testing setting reduces the stress, gives learners extra confidence and they feel that there is someone who cares about them when they get stuck.

As all of us, either as student or as teacher have experienced situations in which we knew something but because of some destructive factors such as stress or test anxiety our mind went blank. Having this in mind, if we can create through DA a stress-free situation in which students are assured that there is someone who will care about them if they get stuck, their performance will increase dramatically. This issue is blatantly important for Iranian students who often lack strategies for coping with reading task and easily fall behind in completing the demanding task of reading comprehension. In this regard, teachers' behavior plays an important role in the real performance of students. Through their interaction and communication they will facilitate and assist forward students in selection of the right choice.

VI. Conclusion

This paper aimed at determining the effect of dynamic assessment of reading comprehension. Although in this research we saw a change in the performance of our experimental group, one should keep it in mind that mediation phase during which there is a dialogic interaction or interplay between mediator and learner may not result in sudden change in performance. Moreover, DA is highly influenced by its reliance on the meditational skills of the examiner. Put together, we should remember that even if we see no dramatic change it should not be interpreted as an indication of the lack of development, instead it impacts learner development. In addition to the statistical findings of this research there are a number of advantages in implementing DA that we can say that the end justify the means. Of major advantages of DA which justify its implantation is its fairness. It should be pointed out that DA is an integral part of the assessment but not its entirety, because no one approach can provide adequate answer to all questions.

In this study we only worked with 30 male students. Future research can investigate the same research project with both male and female subject. In this study we used the sandwich model of mediation. Other researcher can use other models of mediation. Research on DA has mostly focused on expert-novice relationship, but future research can work on the peer-peer interactions as possible sources of mediation. And finally, here we worked only on one skill known as reading, while further research can open new avenues of research into other areas such as listening, writing, vocabulary acquisition and so forth.

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Effectiveness of Remedial Techniques on the Performance of Special Students in the Subject of English

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***Abstract*—The research aimed to find out the effectiveness of remedial techniques on the performance of the students suffering from dyslexia. It was an experimental study which was conducted in institute for special children. The students were first tested for dyslexia through the diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders of American psychiatric association (DSM-IV-TR). The identified students were pre-tested and then they were divided in control and experimental group. All the students were kept under same conditions. The students of control group were taught for ten weeks with normal teaching methods while the students of experimental group were taught with remedial techniques along with normal method. Remedial techniques were applied by the teachers having special training in one-to-one teaching, pair reading, and drill of work sheets and activities to improve their behavioral problems. After ten weeks both groups were post-tested twice. It was found that remedial techniques have positive effect on student's performance in the subject of English. The study recommended proper clinics for diagnosing dyslexia among students.**

***Index Terms*—remedial techniques, dyslexia, reading difficulties in English, learning disabilities**

I. Introduction

Dyslexia is a term that is used for reading disability. It is the most common type of learning disability in which students suffer severe difficulty in learning to read. A child with this problem have poor acquisition and use of words skills, might have difficulty in blending sounds into words, suffers with problems in remembering auditory sequences and also manifest more speech and language difficulties. They have great difficulty with spellings. They also have some visual memory disorder and are not able to interpret accurately what they observe. A dyslexic child might see certain letters backward and upside down and also see parts of words in reverse.

Dyslexia can go undetected in the early grades of schooling. The child can become frustrated by the difficulty in learning to read, and other problems can arise that disguise dyslexia. The child may show signs of depression and low self-esteem. Behavior problems at home as well as at school are frequently seen. The child may become unmotivated and develop a dislike for school. The child's success in school may be jeopardized if the problem remains untreated. There is a range of definitions that are currently used to describe dyslexia. Most of the definitions include the following aspects:

• The neurological and genetic causes of dyslexia

• The characteristic difficulties associated with dyslexia, such as phonological, visual and auditory processing difficulties

• The associated characteristics of dyslexia - difficulties relating to memory, , time management, processing speed, organization, and sequencing and planning

• The need for over-learning and specific teaching approaches

• The overlap with other conditions such as dyspraxia, dyscalculia and attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) (Reid, 2007, p. 5)

Dyslexia is an impairment of reading ability, such that a person can make little sense of what he or she reads; letters or words often appear to be transposed. Dyslexia is not caused by a sensory defect. It is not vision problem. It's not just that the letters don't make sense or can't be put together to form words. Dyslexic children have difficulty making sense of any conceptual information given to them in written form (Dworetzky, 1996, p. 516). According to Ormrod (2000) students may have trouble recognizing printed words or comprehending what they read. An extreme form of this condition is known as dyslexia. While Martleu (1992, p. 375) states that it was predicted that the dyslexic children would have particular difficulties in writing words to a dictation because of problems in relating phonemes to graphemes and applying orthographic rules.

A. Researches on Dyslexia

1. CAUSES OF DYSLEXIA

Exact causes of dyslexia are still a question to be answered by the scientists, psychologists and educationists. It has been proposed that reading disabilities result from independent deficits and orthographic deficits (Castles & Colthert, 1993, p.150) and deficits in rapid naming (Wolf & Bowers, 1999, p.416). Double deficit modules (Wolf & Bowers, 1999, p.417) and triple deficit modules (Badian, 1997, p.69) have also been proposed in which reading disability requires two or three deficits, but these deficits are also implicitly independent.

2. GENETICS

Many studies have focus on the role of genetics in reading, writing and language disabilities. Studies have shown strong evidences that dyslexia is a hereditary disability. The cause of word-blindness has been assumed to be due to hereditary transmission. Research study of family histories of children who displayed substantial learning deficit showed that most of the children had an immediate family member with a reading disorder, and therefore it is suggested to be a hereditary trait.

3. BRAIN DYSFUNCTIONS

The brain is the control center of the body. When something goes wrong with the brain, something happens to any or all of the physical, emotional, and mental functions of the organism. Learning difficulties such as Dyslexia (difficulties with reading), Dysgraphia (difficulties with writing) and Dyscalculia (difficulties with mathematics) are associated with lack of brain access and lack of brain and sensory integration. According to Marshall (2003) scientists studying the brain have found that dyslexic adults who become capable readers use different neural pathways than non-dyslexics. Research shows that there are two independent systems for reading: one that is typical for the majority of readers, and another that is more effective for the dyslexic thinker.

◇ The Corpus Callosum

◇ The Magnocellular

Recent studies have suggested that many of the functional deficits found in dyslexics are processes controlled by the magnocellular pathway. Researchers have found that most dyslexics show reduced contrast sensitivity at low spatial frequencies and low luminance levels. This implies that their visual abilities are impaired in times of low light. Visual motion sensitivity, regardless of the frequency and illumination levels, is also greatly impaired. Recent evidence gathered by both elicited potential and MRI studies have supported this visual motion deficit. All of these deficits indicate a possible disruption to the magnocellular pathway (Stein, 1997, p.147).

4. DIAGNOSIS OF DYSLEXIA

Diagnosis of dyslexia is not an easy task. It is a difficult disorder to be diagnosed. There are many factors that a psychologist, educationist or health professional reviews to diagnose the reading disability. The assessment determines the child's functional reading level and compares it to reading potential, which is evaluated by an intelligence test. All aspects of the reading process are examined to find out where the breakdown is occurring. The assessment also finds that how a child takes in and processes information and what the child does with the information. The tests determine whether a child learns better by hearing information (auditory), looking at information (visual), or by doing something (kinesthetic). The assessment also help in finding that whether a child performs better when allowed to give information (output), by saying something (oral), or by doing something with their hands (tactile-kinesthetic). The assessment also evaluates how all of these sensory systems work in concurrence with each other.

A standard battery of tests (http://www.medicinenet.com/script/main/hp.asp) can be used to assess dyslexia and it may include the following tests:

1). Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Third Edition (WISC-III)

2). Kaufman Assessment Battery for Children (KABC)

3). Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale
4). Woodcock-Johnson Psycho-Educational Battery
5). Peabody Individual Achievement Tests-Revised (PIAT)
6). Wechsler Individual Achievement Tests (WIAT)
7). Kaufman Tests of Educational Achievement (KTEA)
8). Bender Gestalt Test of Visual Motor Perception
9). Beery Developmental Test of Visual-Motor Integration
10). Motor-Free Visual Perception Test
11). Visual Aural Digit Span Test (VADS)
12). Test of Auditory Perception (TAPS)
13). Test of Visual Perception (TVPS)
14). Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test-Revised
15). Expressive One-Word Picture Vocabulary Test
16). Test for Auditory Comprehension of Language

5. TREATMENT OF DYSLEXIA

Before any treatment is started, an evaluation must be done to determine the child's specific area of disability. There are many theories about successful treatment for dyslexia yet there is no actual cure for it. The school can develop a plan with the parent to meet the child's needs. The plan may be implemented in a Special Education set-up or in the regular classroom. A treatment plan according to the need of child will focus on strengthening the hiss weaknesses while utilizing the strengths. A direct approach may include a systematic study of phonics. Special techniques designed can be used to help all the senses work together efficiently. Specific reading approaches that require a child to hear, see, say, and do something (multisensory), such as the Slingerland Method, the Orton-Gillingham Method, or Project READ can be used. Computers are powerful tools for these children and should be utilized as much as possible. The child should be taught compensation and coping skills. Attention should be given to optimum learning conditions and alternative paths for student performance.

There are alternative treatment options also available outside the school setting in addition to school activities. Although alternative treatments are commonly suggested, there is a limited research supporting the effectiveness of these treatments. In account, many of these treatments are very expensive and it may be easy for disturbed parents to be deceived by something that is expensive and sounds attractive.

The most important feature of any treatment plan is attitude. The child will be prejudiced by the attitudes of the adults around him. Dyslexia should not become an excuse for a child to avoid written work. Because the academic demands on a child with dyslexia may be great and the child may exhaust easily, work increments should be broken down into appropriate portions. Frequent breaks should be built into class and homework time. Corroboration should be given for efforts as well as achievements. Substitute to traditional written assignments should be explored and utilized. Teachers are learning to deliver information to students in a variety of ways that are not only more interesting but helpful to students who may learn best by different techniques. Interactive technology is providing interesting ways for students to feedback on what they have learned, in contrast to traditional paper-pencil tasks.

B. Remedial Techniques

There are number of remedial programs available for students suffering from dyslexia. According to Hardman, Drew, and Egan (1996, pp. 287-289) individualized reading instruction is often required for a student with serious reading disabilities. Such individualization may be accomplished with many different materials (e.g., trade books), which are typically selected for reading levels and topics of high interest to the students. The basis for individualization falls on the shoulders of the teacher, who needs to have considerable knowledge of reading skills and procedures for specific, individually tailored instruction.

Depending on the severity of the problem, specific instruction may improve performance, although there may not be significant generalization beyond the limited focus of the training. In some cases if the disability is quite severe, a person must be taught to compensate through alternative means of accessing information and even than used reading sparingly.

Electronic technology can provide an effective means of instruction for some students with learning disabilities. Developmental reading instruction programs are often successful for students with learning disabilities and typically use the approach of introducing controlled sight vocabulary with an analytic phonics emphasis. Individualized reading instruction is often required for a student with serious reading disabilities. Such individualization may be accomplished with many different materials for example trade books which were typically selected for reading levels and topics of high interests to the students. The basis for individualization falls on the shoulder of the teacher, who needs to have considerable knowledge of reading skills and procedures for specific, individually tailored instruction.

According to Dworetzky, (1996, p.517) a number of interesting techniques are used to help dyslexics overcome their difficulties, and they have often proved very effective. Spira, Brackan and Fischels (2005, p.230) states that improvement in reading achievement through elementary school was strongly related to individual linguists and behavioral attributes that were measured in kindergarten. Simple correlations between kindergarten skills and growth indicated that those children who had a relative strength in phonological awareness, oral language, print knowledge,

letter-word identification, and class room behavior in kindergarten were more likely to show improvement after encountering initial reading difficulties in first grade. In addition, measurement of any remedial instruction received by the children would be useful in determining the effects of special intervention services, tutoring, or any other extra help on children's improvement.

Over the past 20 years, researchers have focused their attention on different aspects of instructional methods that accelerate reading development in young children who are either experiencing or are at risk for reading failure. Within the broad context, perhaps the most important simple conclusion about reading disabilities is that they are most commonly caused by weakness in the ability to process the phonological features of language. The study clearly demonstrated that phonological intervention had influenced the reading competence among the reading disabled readers. The performance of these children has been improved considerably from pre treatment to post treatment condition (Pani, 2004).

Parkay and Stanford (1995, p. 171) stated that classroom teachers play an important role in providing for the education of learning-disabled students. By being alert for students who exhibits several of the following symptoms, teachers can help in the early identification of learning disable students so that they can receive the special education services they need.

- Short attention span (restless, easily distracted)
- Reverse letters and numbers (sees b for d, 6 or 9)
- Reads poorly, if at all (below age and grade level)
- Often confused about directions and times (right-left, up-down, yesterday-tomorrow)
- Personal disorganization (cannot follow simple schedules)
- Impulsive and inappropriate behavior (poor judgment in social situation, talks and acts before thinking)
- Poor coordination (has trouble in using pencil, scissors, crayons)
- Inconsistent performance (cannot remember today what was learned yesterday)
- Fails written tests but scores high on oral exams (or vice versa)
- Speech problems (immature speech development, has trouble expressing ideas)

After initial referral by a classroom teacher a team consisting a learning disabilities teacher, psychologist, and social worker or nurse evaluate the student to determine if the child has a learning disability. In the event the child does, he or she is usually placed in a classroom with a teacher trained in dealing with learning disabilities. In that classroom, the child is taught through techniques that involved not only the child's sense of hearing and vision but also touch and movement (Hardman, Drew, & Egan, 1996, p. 287-289).

According to Kirk & Gallagher (1986, pp.391-393) some of the remedial techniques are:-

1). The Kinesthetic Method

In this method reading is taught in four developmental stages:

Stage-1. The child traces the form of a known word while saying it, and then writes it from memory, comparing each trial with the original model.

Stage-2. The child looks at the word or phrase while saying it, then tries to write it from memory, comparing each trial with the model.

Stage-3. The child glances at the word and says it once, then produces it from memory.

Stage-4. The child begins to generalize to read new words on the basis of experience with previously learned word.

2). The phonic-grapho-vocal Method

A revised version of this method is 'Phonic Remedial Reading Program'. It is a programmed phonic system that emphasizes sound blending and incorporates kinesthetic experience. The lessons follow the principles of effective programmed learning:

- Minimal change (each lesson incorporating only one new sound)
- Over learning through repetition of each new sound in a variety of settings and frequent review drills
- Prompting and confirmation
- Only one response taught for each symbol
- Self-reinforcement (the student's immediate knowledge of success) and social reinforcement (by the teacher)

3). The Visual-auditory-kinesthetic (VAK) Method

It is a phonic system for the remediation of reading disabilities. In this method children learn both the names and the sounds of the letters. The names are used for spelling; the sounds, for reading. A systematic procedure is followed in which the child is told the name of a letter and then its sound. The child then says the sound and traces it or writes it from memory. After learning some consonants and vowels, the child is required to sound each letter and blend the sounds into a word. Once the child has learned to sound, write, and read three –letter words, the words are used in stories that the child reads silently and a loud.

4). Multi Sensory Approach

Multi Sensory Approach is a variation of VAK method. The program includes a teacher's guide and a set of auxiliary material. The child first hears the sound or letter or word, then sees it on a card, and then traces it with large arm swings. The procedures were designed to teach writing, spelling, and reading to a small group of children in a class room setting.

The purpose of the present study was to find out the effectiveness of remedial techniques on the performance of the students suffering from dyslexia and to find the role of teachers in this regard.

II. Objectives of Study

The objectives of the study were:

1. To identify the students suffering from dyslexia.
2. To find out the possible causes of dyslexia.
3. To determine the extent to which dyslexia affect student achievement in subject of English.
4. To find out effectiveness of the applied remedial techniques on the performance of the students suffering from dyslexia.

III. Hypothesis

Ho: There is no significant difference between the achievement scores of dyslexic students before and after applying remedial techniques.

H1: There is a significant difference between the achievement scores of dyslexic students before and after applying remedial techniques.

IV. Method of the Study

It was an experimental research. It involved the collection, analysis and interpretation of data collected for the purpose. Due to non-availability of standardized achievement tests in subject of English, researcher made validated achievement tests that were used to measure the achievement level of students. The study was conducted during a period of four months from January 2010 to April 2010 in a school for special children namely "STEP TO LEARN" at Islamabad. All the students enrolled in this institute suffer from different learning disabilities. The students who were unable to work out in main stream sent to this institute for special studies. The successful students were admitted back in ordinary schools after recovery. The students were diagnosed as dyslexic on the basis of criteria of DSM-IV-TR (1994) i.e., current Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders of American Psychiatric Association, and IQ testing. Thus only ten students were identified with reading disability and were included in study. The ten students [7 (70%) boys and 3 (30%) girls with a mean age 8 years, range 7 to 11] were identified with reading disability and were included in study.

The students were divided into experimental and control group and each group contained five members. Both the groups were taught a common course but with common teaching method. However, the experimental group was then taught with special remedial techniques. In this study teachers used the remedial techniques like one-to-one teaching, pair-reading, phonetic techniques, and drill method. For this purpose the teachers were given training to use remedial techniques to improve behavioral problems of students. After training the teacher's applied the techniques for ten weeks. Thus, the students of experimental group were taught with remedial techniques which included the use of one-to-one teaching, pair reading and work sheet drill to improve the reading disability problem of the dyslexic students. One-to-one instruction is generally considered to be the most effective way of increasing student's achievement as indicated by Elbaum et al (2000). For this a course out-line was designed by researcher followed by training of teachers. Special kinds of work sheets were also prepared that were used with continuous practice and drilling of work sheets.

The students were first subjected to general class activities to improve their behavior problems, to develop their interest and concentration in work, to build their eye contact, to develop or increase griping such as using pencil, rubber, scale, color pencils or crayons etc. That was done by in-door and out-activities, involving different games like puzzles, races etc.

Since students show very slow change in their performance so they were observed after every fifteen days. An observation sheet was prepared to note down activities of the slow learners. After completing the duration of ten weeks the students were twice post-tested and the results were recorded. After completing the duration two post tests were conducted to find out the achievement level of students after remedial techniques had been applied. Post tests were taken from the students of control group as well. The pre and post test were compared to find out the improvement. Post test of both the groups were also compared.

A. Instruments of Research

Pre-test and post-tests were used as instrument in the study. The tests were constructed on the basis of the course content of English that was taught to both control and experimental group. The pre-test and post-test-1 were of 40 marks. The scores of the students were used to find the achievement level of the students after remedial techniques were applied. Similar pre-test and post-tests were used to test the achievement level of control and experimental group. The students were given one hour to complete the test. The test was collected, scored and then. The post-tests were administered to both groups in same environment as were available for pre-test. Both groups completed their post-tests in allotted time.

B. Analysis of Data

The data collected through tests, observation sheets and questionnaire. A comparative analysis was expressed in terms of mean. The data about students' performance were treated by independent as well as dependent t-test and significant difference was calculated from it. A summary of pre-test of both groups is given in table 1.

TABLE 1
EXPERIMENTAL/CONTROL GROUP PRE-TEST RESULTS

Group	Student-1	Student-2	Student-3	Student-4	Student-5	Mean score
Experimental	9 (23%)	12(30%)	17(43%)	8(20%)	12(30%)	11.6
Control group	8(20%)	18(45%)	12(30%)	9(23%)	11(28%)	11.6

The two groups were taught a common course but with different methods. The experimental group was taught with special remedial techniques while control group student were taught with usual teaching techniques. After completing the duration of ten weeks the students were twice post-tested and the results were recorded as shown in table 2.

TABLE 2
EXPERIMENTAL/CONTROL GROUP POST-TESTS RESULT

Group	Post-test	Student-1	Student-2	Student-3	Student-4	Student-5	Mean score
Experimental	1	23(58%)	29(73%)	35(86%)	25(63%)	33(83%)	29
	2	21(52%)	28(70%)	34(85%)	23(58%)	31(78%)	27
Control	1	10(25%)	12(30%)	11(28%)	10(25%)	13(33%)	11
	2	5 (13%)	9 (23%)	7(18%)	7(18%)	11(28%)	8

The table 2 indicated that mean score of the experimental group was higher than the control group.

C. Testing of Research Hypothesis

t-test was performed to test the hypothesis of the study. Results concluded that the mean score of students taught by the remedial techniques was higher than the mean score of the students taught by ordinary method as indicated in table below:

TABLE 3
COMBINED MEAN SCORE OF STUDENTS

Group	Combined mean	t- value
Experimental group	28	7.5(df 8) at $p<0.05$
Control group	10	

D. Analysis of Questionnaire

A questionnaire was used to collect information from parents and teachers about dyslexic students. A summary of the analysis is presented in table 4:

TABLE 4
CHARACTERISTIC OF STUDENTS SUFFERING FROM DYSLEXIA

Characteristics	Percentage of Occurrence
Boys	70
Girls	30
Family History Positive for Dyslexia	60
Birth Problems	30
Normal Early Development	90
Use of Drugs	10
Head Injuries	20
Emotional Crises	50
Disturbed Sleeping Habits	10
Wrong Eating Habits	10
Behavioral Problems	90
Aggressive	90
Reading Problems	100
Writing Problems	60
Mathematic Problems	60
Attention Problems	80

The table 4 revealed that 60% students showed positive family history for dyslexia. About 30% dyslexic students have some birth problems but mostly have normal birth. 10% dyslexic students have been given drugs in their lives while 20% suffered from head injuries. 50% students suffering from dyslexia have emotional crises in their early lives. It was found that 10% dyslexic students have sleeping disorders and wrong eating habits. 90% students suffering from dyslexia have behavioral problems and they are aggressive. All dyslexic students have problems in reading while 60% students have problems in writing and mathematics while 80% dyslexic students have attention problems. The general

characteristics shown by dyslexic students are summarized in table 4.14. It was found that most of the dyslexic students showed very slow progress in studies but their behavior problems were recovering a little faster as they were given individual attention. Some of them showed good progress in mathematics, some in English but slow progress in reading.

V. Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn from the above study.

- Learning disabilities especially dyslexia goes unobserved in students from parents and teachers and the problem of the students persists.
- Dyslexia is a disability which is a main hindrance in learning and as a result the purpose of education is not achieved.
- Dyslexia affects the achievement level of the students in the subject of Englsih.
- Remedial techniques like one-to-one teaching, pair reading and drilling of course, have a positive effect on dyslexic student's performance.
- Teachers play a key role in solving the problem of dyslexia.

VI. Recommendations

During the research it was found that unfortunately in Islamabad there is no proper institute for the diagnosis and treatment of dyslexia. Most of the teachers and parents did not know about the learning disabilities and the student is blamed for his failure. It is important that Ministry of Education should take the steps to educate the teachers about dyslexia and train them to teach the students. Also there should be proper clinics where students can be diagnosed for dyslexia and to the extent to which it has affected their achievement level. There should be forums where parents can be informed about dyslexia and ways to overcome it as parents can play a key role in solving the problem of dyslexia along with teachers.

It was also recommended that there was a great need of research to be carried out in field of dyslexia. The study further recommended organizing seminars and workshops to create awareness in general public, parents, teachers and students.

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Active and Passive Students' Listening Strategies

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***Abstract*—To determine the relationship between active and passive student's listening strategies, 70 students (all beginners) were selected. All subjects who were the researcher's students participated in four data gathering sections. They took Raven IQ test, attention test, Irenck Lie test, and strategy questionnaire. The results of the IQ and attention tests divided the subjects in to active and passive groups. 20 subjects were eliminated from the study due to their responses to the Irenck Lie test. 50 subjects remained for the rest of the study. Student's responses to the strategy questionnaire revealed a strong relationship between both group s in this order of importance: (a) person knowledge. (b) strategy knowledge, (c) task knowledge (d) strategy knowledge, (e) task knowledge. The strategies that were not selected by both groups were metacognitve and strategy knowledge. In this study active group outperformed passive ones both in the range and type of listening strategies.**

***Index Terms*—active student, passive student, listening, strategies**

I. Introduction

Listening is an active information process ability. In this active process students receive and construct information. As a result, listening is actually more than hearing (Rost, 1990). In this particular ability, students use different strategies during listening. Active students use their own strategies and passive ones apply their own strategies during listening process (Rost, 1991).

In recent years the main focus of teachers and researchers is on knowing these strategies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1989). By using different techniques they elicit these strategies from students. In fact these strategies should be found in student's minds. Here, teachers try to find the active student's strategies during listening and teach them to passive students. Teaching these strategies (i.e., active students strategies to passive students), teachers hope to help passive students and enable them to over come their difficulties in listening comprehension.

Strategies are the specific methods and techniques employed by the students for processing the input language information (Willing, 1985, pp. 278-9). Strategies are hence viewed as a way of managing the complex information that the learner is receiving about the target language.

These techniques and strategies help the students to facilitate their own learning. In order to collect data about listening strategies, researchers can use "think – aloud" procedures in which students are interrupted during a listening comprehension activity and asked to indicate what they were thinking. Teachers can tape- record the voice of a student during the time he explains what he was thinking. After interviewing both passive and active students, researchers can obtain the data. These findings will show the different strategies used by both groups. Teachers can also provide their students with listening material sand ask them to listen to these materials at home (Goh, 1997). Here. The students are required to write diaries at home during the listening process and indicate the strategies they used during this process.

Another technique for collecting data about learning strategies is the use of questionnaire. In this method students are allowed to select the strategies that are mentioned in the questionnaire. By comparing the active and passive student's strategies, the researcher can differentiate among them. According to O' Malley and Chamot (1989) the advantage of questionnaire in collecting data is in delimiting the responses to information that is relevant and in simplifying data manipulation since you can code and analyze the data.

II. The Current Study

A. Participants

The participants for this research consisted of 70 students at both guidance and high school levels. 30 students enrolled in second grade at guidance school, 15 in third grade at guidance school, and 25 in first grade at high school levels. At this center, the students are required to study English in the 2nd grade at guidance school. Because the number of students were small, this school followed the coeducational system at guidance school level. All the subjects were the researcher's students and they participated their English classes 4 hours a week. They were engaged in listening to English tapes, prepared by Ministry of Education, 2 hours a week.

B. Instruments

The data were collected using four separate instruments: (a) the IQ test of Raven, (b) an article of a Persian news paper which asked the students to underline the /I:/ sound(attention test), (c) the Lie test of Eyrenck, and (d), the listening strategy questionnaire to assess student's reported self-perception of their listening comprehension strategies.

C. Procedure

The research was conducted at a small school with the students studying English as a foreign language. Eleven well-recognized listening strategies were introduced to the students during their listening course. The date gathering sessions were conducted in the student's own classrooms during regular class time to minimize the impact of the environment. More over, in order to reduce the student's stress, one of the researcher's colleagues administered the tests. To perform their tasks eagerly, the students were paid money after completing each test. All the tests were written in Persian language since the students were beginners. After completing the first task, the listening strategy, which took 15 minutes all the answer sheets were gathered.

In the second task, the IQ hand books and answer sheets were distributed among the students. The subjects were instructed how to perform the task. This session took the longest time of the administration. After 45 minutes all answer sheets and hand books were gathered. During the third task, the subjects were asked to under line the /I:/ sounds of a Persian article . This article contained 100 /I:/ sounds and was selected from a Persian newspaper .After 10 minutes all the answer sheets were gathered. For the fourth task, the students were instructed to give Yes/No responses to the Lie test of Eyrenck during 10 minutes.

D. Data Analysis

In order to calculate the student's IQ, their responses to the IQ test were checked. Then by subtracting their date of birth from the date of the administration of the IQ test, the students ages were accounted. In order to change the raw scores of IQ in to their equal IQ, the Table of Raven test for the students in province Qazvin was used.

The attention tests were checked by accounting the number of the underlined /I:/ sounds. This test contained 100 /I:/ sounds and each sound received one score. After checking the student's answers to the lie test, the students whose scores exceeded 14 were eliminated from the study. This test had 20 items and each Item received one score.

The listening strategy Questionnaires were checked for the strategy comparison. This questionnaire included eleven well- recognized active listening strategies. The students were to select the strategies they used when listening to English language.

III. Results

The results of the Lie tests were examined through the students answers to the Lie test. After checking the student's responses to the Lie test, 20 subjects were eliminated from the study and 50 subjects remained for the rest of the study. According to the personality test of Eyrenck for IRANIAN teenagers, prepared by the Ministry of Education, the scores above 14 are not reliable. In other words, the student who scored more than 14 in the Lie test of Eyrenck, he is in the critical status. Therefore, his responses are not reliable in selecting listening strategies.

The responses to IQ test and attention test were used to separate the students in to active and passive groups. In fact, the student whose IQ exceeded 100 fell in to active group; on the other hand the student with the IQ of lower than 90 fell in to passive group. Using Table of Raven for the students in Province Qazvin, the raw scores of IQ were changed in to their equal IQ. As a result of the student's responses to the IQ tests 25 students fell in to active group and 25 students were placed in to passive group. The range of IQ in the active group was from 100 to 120 and the IQ of passive group ranged from 75 to 90.

As a results of the student's scores on the attention testes 25 fell in to active group and 25 were placed into passive one .By accounting the number of underlined /I:/ sounds, the student's attention were calculated. Here, the subjects whose score exceeded 90 from 100 were placed in to active group and the subjects with the attention of lower than 90 fell in to passive group. The range of attention scores in the active group was from 90 to 100 and in the passive group the attention scores ranged from 60 to 85.

In this study the student's active participation in English class were also taken in to consider. The results of the subject's scores on IQ and attention tests supported their active class participation.

The relationship between active and passive student's listening strategies was examined through the students' responses to the strategy questionnaire. Relationships between active and passive student's listening strategies were found by using Pearson's correlation coefficient to compare the result of strategy questionnaire. The relationship between active and passive group's listening strategies were noticeably strong ($r = 0/81$, $p < 01$). The correlation coefficient of strategy use between both groups were calculated ($r = 0/81$). Upon closer observation of the student's strategy selection, the researcher saw strong relationships at some strategies. The strategies they selected the most in common are as follows: (a) searching for meaning, (b) considering the context and color of word, (c) knowing whether close or cursory listening is required, (d) checking their understanding, (e) taking few notes, (f) giving complete attention to the task. Subjects selected these strategies in the above order of importance.

TABLE 1
SELECTED USE OF DURING LISTENING STRATEGIES

Listening strategies		Active group	Passive group
1. I give complete attention to the task and demonstrate interest.	Agree Undecided	56% 44%	12% 88%
2. I search for the meaning of the words.	Agree Undecided	96 4	84 16
3….I constantly check my understanding of the message.	Agree Undecided	76 20	24 80
4….I check my understanding by making connections with people , places , situations and ideas I know.	Agree Undecided	00 100	00 100
5….I check my understanding by determining what will be said next .	Agree Undecided	8 92	00 100
6….I check my understanding by determining speaker's intent , infer what the speaker doesn't say , responding to what has been said and passing judgment	Agree Undecided	24 76	00 00
7….I know whether close or cursory listening is required and adjust my behavior accordingly .	Agree Undecided	72 28	60 40
8….I am ready to take notes , outline , map, categorize, I sift and sort and add my own information.	Agree Undecided	00 100	00 100
9….I take fewer and meaningful notes.	Agree Undecided	76 24	20 80
10….I distinguish message from the speaker .	Agree Undecided	8 92	00 100
11….I consider the content and color of words.	Agree Undecided	76 24	72 28

The researcher has also found the existence of another relationship between the groups. In fact, all the subjects did not select some strategies. The strategies they did not select were making connections, categorizing, mapping and outlining. Some strategies were selected only by active group. They were (a) determining what will be said next, (b) distinguishing the message from the speaker.

IV. DISCUSSION

Throughout the report of the results of this study, the researcher offered some speculative thought on why certain data displayed the way they did. In this section in order to understand further the implications of this study, observations of the results will first be presented in terms of cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies. According to Rubin Joan (1994) cognitive strategies involve how to store and retrieve information. Metacognitive strategies involve planning monitoring, and evaluating comprehension. In addition to metacognitive strategies, listeners use metacognitive knowledge about themselves and how they listen best (person knowledge), about how much text to listen to, how difficult a text is etc, (i.e., task knowledge), and about strategies and their relation to text and tasks (i.e., strategy knowledge).

In general terms, the results showed that although all the learners were aware of all the strategies mentioned in the questionnaire, they did not select connection with people, places, and ideas (i.e., metacognitive strategy), and outlining, stiffing and sorting , and adding one's information (i.e., strategy knowledge).

On the other hand the strategies only selected by active group were determining the speaker's intent and infer what has not been said, determining what will be said next (i.e., both metacognitive strategies). The same relationship surfaced with person knowledge in that nobody in the passive group reported distinguishing message from the speaker (i.e., person knowledge).

According to their responses, the subjects selected using the following strategies in common and in this order of importance: (a) searching for meaning, (b) considering the context and color of words, (c) knowing close or cursory listening is required, (d) checking their understanding, (e) taking fewer notes, and (f) giving complete attention to the task. Here, we see person knowledge (a) and strategy knowledge (b) occupied the strong relationship between both groups. The same relationship surfaced with (c) which is a task knowledge. The strategies that were selected the least in common by both groups were metacognitive strategy (d) strategy knowledge (e) and task knowledge (f).

Form a global perspective, the results of this study indicated that person knowledge, strategy knowledge, and task knowledge revealed the strongest relationships. In the case of searching for meaning of words (person knowledge). The reason could be lied in the fact that the subjects in this study were beginners. They found themselves less capable of performing the integrative skills for listening comprehension and had to rely on the more discrete skills, like searching for meaning. On the other hand the strategy knowledge and task knowledge are less integrative in comparison to metacognitive strategies.

The strategies that were selected the least in common by both groups were checking one's understanding (i.e., metacognitive strategy), note taking (strategy knowledge) and attention to listening (task knowledge). These strategies particularly metacognitive one were among the integrative strategies and as the results revealed active students outperformed the passive ones in these strategies.

Some strategies were not selected by all participants in this study. They were connection (i.e., metaconitive strategy) and outlining, sifting and sorting (i.e., strategy knowledge). These strategies might be among the most integrative strategies; however, all participants were a were of them. What does all of this suggest?

First, this study suggests that active students outperformed the passive ones both in range and type of listening strategies.

Second, although the students had the required knowledge, skills and strategies to listen and learn, they did not seem to use them as effectively as they should. Being strategic is not simply a matter of knowing what strategy to use but also how to use it successfully.

This is what Baker and Brown (1984) called the separation between "knowing what" and "knowing how" These results in fact paralleled Baker and Brown's findings (1984). This subject might be discussed from another perspective in linguistics in that one's performance is lower than his competence.

Third, the fact that active students outperformed the passive ones do not reject the existence of relationship between them. There was a strong correlation between their strategy use ($r = 0.81$, $p < 01$). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. In other words, all of the participants have selected some strategies, but the range and type of strategies appeared to differ between them. The active group perceived themselves to be the most strategic listeners and outperformed the passive group.

V. Conclusion

Students do not have an innate understanding of what effective listeners do; therefore, it is the responsibility of teachers to share that knowledge with them. Perhaps the most valuable way to teach listening skills for teachers is to model them themselves, creating an environment which encourages listening. Teachers can create such an environment by positive interaction, actively listening to all students and responding in an open and appropriate manner. Teachers should avoid responding either condescendingly or sarcastically. As much as possible, they should minimize distractions and interruptions. It is important for teachers to avoid numerous opportunities for students to practice listening skills and to become actively engaged in the listening process. The results of the study have shown that both active and passive students made use of listening strategies. However, active group outperformed passive ones both in type and range of strategy use.

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Developing Effective Learning and Teaching in Higher Education

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***Abstract*—This paper compares the China's learning and teaching methods with the western countries' to find out a more effective related pattern in higher education appropriate to China's practices. Then alternative methods are found to explore the potential of effective teaching and learning with a SWOT analysis of current Chinese teaching situation.**

***Index Terms*—higher education, learning and teaching pattern, SWOT analysis**

I. Introduction

Nowadays, most Chinese universities adopt a great diversity of teaching and learning methods to help cultivate large numbers of qualified graduates to satisfy practical need of Chinese economy's rapid development. However, not all of these teaching and learning methods have reached anticipative effect, and compared with some western countries' highly developed educational explore, Chinese universities have a long way to go and the potential of learning and teaching in higher education is also huge.

In this article, we would have a try to find out a more effective learning and teaching pattern in higher education appropriate to China's practices by comparing the china's related methods with the western countries' (including UK). Then alternative methods are found to explore the potential of effective teaching and learning with a SWOT analysis of current Chinese teaching situation on the basis of summarizing my self-reflection.

II. The Comparison Of The China-Western Education

A. The Comparison of Education Theory of Human Nature

From mainstream culture and mainstream education, China's educational philosophy, in essence, is based on "evil" human nature, it is assumed that students are not very worthy of trust and respect in the minds of teachers. However, the teaching concept of western education is established on the basis of "good" human nature, that is, the students are worthy of trust and respect in the minds of teachers. The difference of human nature assumption is one of fundamental reasons making Chinese and Western education different.

From the point of Chinese educational philosophy, teachers in the instinctive idea assume that their students are more inclined to be some kind of "evil", which means students are not always sensible, not quite consciously, not quite well-behaved, and therefore, students is not quite worthy of trust and respect, and must be kept in strict discipline on them and constraints. Otherwise, students are likely to violate the wishes of educators and do what should not happen. Thus, in Chinese education system, suspicion is far more than trust, contempt is much more than respect, criticism is far more than praise, inhibition is much more than encouragement, and stipulation is far more than freedom. In Chinese teacher's subconscious, if they do not pay more attention to their students, students probably do what they don't expect to come. Teachers often consider the management of education to be the one-sided understanding of the control and obedience, rather than activation, mobility and creation. This educational philosophy is established on the basis of "evil" human nature assumption lacking of resection and trust.

In the Western philosophy of education, teachers instinctively are more inclined to consider their students to be "good", namely, students' nature is good, and they are worthy of trust and respect. Otherwise, the original Latin is impossible to endow education the meaning of "elicit" and "Export". The education after the Renaissance can not be filled with the liberation of humanity and respect for people's natural instinct and assertive individual freedoms implication. Generally speaking, in Western education, including British education, the teachers give more trust than suspicion to their students, more praise than criticism, more tolerance than hypercriticism, more encourage than suppression, more freedom than constraint. The relationship between teachers and students is more friendly and less of confrontation and tension. As students gained more trust and freedom, their consciousness, self-control and sense of responsibility are relatively strong.

B. The Comparison of Education Direction

In the concept of some Chinese teachers, students are passive recipients who know little. If there is no teacher to teach, students will achieve nothing, which is deeply rooted in China's educational concept. Therefore, China's educational theory and educational practice pay much more attention to teachers' teaching than students' learning with special emphasis on the authority of teachers. So, the status of teachers is above the one of students in the process of teaching. In the eyes of Chinese teachers, the so-called teaching is thought to be a process of exerting educational influence on students and delivering knowledge from "outside" to "inside". Students' brain is like some kind of vessels, and teachers are the traffickers of knowledge and morality. Students can only be educated, and can not learn anything without teachers' teaching. In Chinese teacher's idea, education means infusion to students from "outside" to "inside", infusion almost becomes education.

Western educational philosophy think students naturally have a God-given "seed" of the true, the good and the beautiful. The educational function lies in conducting and promoting this natural inhesion. Therefore, education is not the process of teaching something pre-setting and no-doubt into the brain of students, but is a process of conducting the talent out of students that is inherent.

Socrates, originator of Western education, called for "spiritual midwifery" type of educational methods, which best describes the teaching meaning and connotation of "extraction" and "export" in Western educational tradition. In Socrates, education programs seems like a midwife midwifery, teachers as midwives, students as maternal, fetus as God-given unyielding "seed", educating is just like the process of "mother" give the birth of "fetus" in the assistance of "midwife". This educational philosophy has a profound impact on the original nature of Western education.

C. The Comparison of the External Form of Teaching

Generally speaking, China's school teaching is very serious, stiff and solemn in terms of external form, and pay excess attention to its pursuit of purpose planning, organization, uniformity and standardization with little flexibility, randomness, contingency and a sense of humor. For teachers, this kind of teaching is very tired, and students are also hard to learn. Teachers teach rigidly and students' learning is also rigid.

In accordance with the requirements of formal classroom teaching, external specifications of teaching is paid much attention from the students' sitting position and voting position to teachers' arrange of the classroom phase of the state of division and allocation of time, and even the writing on the blackboard design, etc., all plans and specifications must be sought to ensure that the teaching is proceed step by step. In short, teachers have been too rigidly adhere to the teaching of the external form, and so teaching activities are full of heavy polishing flavor and artificial taste.

Thus the created atmosphere of teaching often makes teaching " The form gathering but the absolute being scattered", despite the surface form of teaching standards is very tight and students also focus their attention on the surface, the classroom is very possible lack of intrinsic appeal. Students may not develop a sense of excitement and thinking vitality. This teaching will make students feel an inner repressed, passive and non-self-confidence, which is not conducive to activate the inherent vitality of the students and active students think, also not easy to enable students to truly feel their dominant position.

In comparison, the classroom atmosphere in Western education seems more natural, flexible and has much more random, less binding, less rules, and less formalism. Teachers and students in teaching are relatively free, relaxed, active and flexibility. Teachers' teaching and students' learning are not required to follow the mandatory standards and uniform requirements, and do not have to comply with any unitary notion of truth and values, so teaching and learning design, teaching and learning content and the way of teaching and learning have greater freedom and flexibility. Although the students in the classroom do not have to sit straight and hands behind, and the classroom discipline appear to be somewhat noisy, chaotic, students in this relaxed atmosphere would be inherently feel relaxed and freedom, especially in terms of thinking. Students are more active, more dare to think, and do not fear anything, this teaching atmosphere often makes teaching "the form scattering but the absolute being gathered ".

D. The Comparison of Relationship between Teaching Process and Teaching Results

In China, if students do not know or do not understand teaching content, the teachers are often very natural to draw a conclusion and to obtain conclusions directly presented to them, and very little by way of teaching and learning process and deep interaction with the students, and seldom guide students to take the initiative to analyze, synthesize, abstract, summary, compare, judge, selection, exploration, trial and error, and to raise questions, analyze problems and find out.

This kind of neglect on the teaching process is mainly manifested in two aspects: First, teachers are better used to educate and inject the ready-made knowledge and conclusions to the students directly; second, teachers are more accustomed "to teach on behalf of the study," that is, teachers substitute their students' learning process with teaching. In this teaching process, teachers use their own minds too much and the students' own thinking is substituted. Teaching content analysis, synthesis, abstraction, generalization, comparison, judge, selection are often completed ahead of schedule when preparing lessons, and not be able to more fully reflect in the process of interaction and communication of teachers' teaching and students' learning. Teaching and learning process, especially the students' learning process has been simplified too much. Obviously, such teaching not only distorts the meaning of "teaching", but also distorts the "learning" connotations.

In contrast, the western countries pay more attention to teaching process, rather than the results of teaching. It is more

concerned about the development of inner qualities and potential, rather than ready-made access to knowledge and conclusions.

It is based on this concept that both teachers and students are not agreed to the Chinese teaching, and the practice of teaching is more concerned with the interaction and communication between teachers and students, rather than mastering and memory of ready-made knowledge and conclusions. This kind of teaching method gives students enough space to explore, and teachers usually play a guide role and partners in an equal relationship.

In their view, the development of students' potential and the promotion of inner quality in large is realized in the process of teaching and learning and in the process of the exploration and the progressive realization of a two-way exchanges between teachers and students. The interests gained by students in learning also largely come from their learning experience and feeling.

From the angle of obtaining of knowledge and conclusions, this kind of teaching method seems too tortuous; it appears some waste of time. However, from cognitive development and potential development perspective, this teaching is valuable and efficient. In western educational theory, the greater emphasis is given on teaching process rather than teaching results. The intention of our teaching is not to build a small modern library, but to enable students themselves think like a mathematician mathematics, like the historians think of history as the process of making access to knowledge reflected. Knowledge is a process rather than a result. "

E. The Comparison of Teaching Emphasis' Object

Chinese education weighs community, western countries emphasize particularly on individual education. This is the fundamental difference of Chinese traditional family-based culture and western traditional individual-based culture on educational aims and value orientation.

The basic characteristics of traditional Chinese culture is to emphasize the unity and to neglect individual differences, that is, emphasizes on group and neglect the individual.

Ancient China took the maintenance of group co-ordination and social stability as the highest of ethical and political principles, put the community's overall interests of the individual interests as the sole frame of reference. The group's overall interests are the starting point and destination of the individual interests and include or are on behalf of the individual interests. For the group, the individual has more obligation than rights, more devotion than obtain. The value of the individual can only be realized in the whole society. Educational activities focus on "general" awareness and consciousness, neglecting in-depth dissection and analysis. Emphasis on group values has some positive significance on the cultivation of overall system for the students thinking ability,, but also to some extent induce despotism, repression, binding of human individuality and initiative.

Western cultural traditions pursue individual-based, self-centered culture, focusing on integrity and dignity. As early as in ancient Greece Bolikeli times, Protagoras proposed the proposition of "man is the measure of all things", affirmed the status of human subjectivity. These principles of promoting personal supremacy were written into the western textbooks.

Since then, most western educational thinkers took people who have personality and originality as the basic standard of training personnel, promoting people's autonomy and independence. Individualism is not stressed by competing interests, but rather on the defenders of personality of humanitarianism and human rights of human nature. Emphasis on individual value is in favor of development of individual initiative, but the individual-based thinking also makes the concept of kinship and clan groups indifferent.

By the above comparison, we can feel the huge differences between Chinese and western teaching concept and it also reflected many problems existing in Chinese education. However, generally speaking, it can not simply to say which educational philosophy is better and more effective. Each has advantages and disadvantages, has their special characteristics and excitement.

III. The SWOT Analysis Of China-Western Education

In the above, we draw the difference between Chinese teaching pattern and western countries and are aware of many disadvantages. However, the rapid development of China's economy provides great demand for excellent students; Chinese higher education also has a huge potential to satisfy the talents demand. Now, the development of effective educational methods is a priority. Here, SWOT analysis is applied to identify the internal and external factors and help find ways to improve Chinese teaching and learning problems.

SWOT analysis is a strategic planning method used to evaluate the Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats involved in a project or in a business venture. It involves specifying the objective of the business venture or project and identifying the internal and external factors that are favorable and unfavorable to achieving that objective. With the review of my teaching career in BUCEA, I made below SWOT analysis:

Strengths

- Teachers' higher teaching level
- The introduction of advanced teaching facilities raises teaching efficiency
- Stronger wishes of schools and teachers to improve teaching efficiency

Weaknesses

- Too much emphasis on teaching surface, ignoring the teaching content
- Students' learning initiative is not strong
- The weak interaction between students and teachers
- Teaching methods are few and of low-efficiency

Opportunities

- China's rapid economic development provides higher demand for improving teaching efficiency
- Western developed countries have a lot of teaching experience to use for reference
- Government and schools increase capital investment to explore alternative teaching methods

Threats

- The scarcity of outstanding teachers
- The overall standard of teaching lagged behind

From the analysis above, we could conclude that despite most Chinese universities currently are faced with a lower teaching situation, the potential to explore alternative ways to enable a more effective student learning environment is huge under a large number of favorable external conditions. Chinese universities should make full use of favorable external conditions to adjust teaching methods timely.

IV. The Enlightenment Of China-Western Educational Contraction

Based on the above SWOT analysis, several alternative methods are found to explore the potential of effective teaching and learning:

A. To Promote Student-centered Approach

China's education advocates people-oriented management, while the western education advocates people-centered management. China's education system produces people who are basically theoretical talents, while western people are mostly creative talents. Therefore, we should learn the western educational theory on the basis of characteristics of Chinese culture, that is, respect for individuality and uphold freedom under the premise of the basic respect for the traditional Chinese and basic preferences.

When talking about teaching innovation, the traditional views can not be all denied and China's education in this cultural environment should be given enough attention. Therefore, putting the innovation of the educational concept under the thinking mode of traditions is essential. Absorbing the essence of western education is helpful to transform and deepen Chinese educational pattern.

B. Emphasis on the Combination of Theoretical Knowledge and Knowledge Application

China's education focuses on the teaching of systematic and theoretical knowledge emphasizes on student mastery of knowledge, but neglects the students' hands-on and practical ability; and western education attaches importance to the students' hands-on and practical ability, but ignores the theoretical guidance. If the combination of Chinese and western education is realized, it can enable students to both master the theoretical knowledge and to apply their guide practice. To implement the people-centered principles of education and to take into account the actual needs of students, it should begin from the student's own characteristics. The teachers' adult way of thinking can not be transferred to students; student-acceptable forms of education should be used to guide their active learning. Teachers should always pay their attention to students' life experience, interest in learning to promote course content to achieve the modernization, and to promote active involvement of students to explore and to train students to have the information-handling capacity, problem-solving capabilities and the ability to exchange and cooperation.

C. To Promote Individualized Education

Teachers in the teaching process should guide students to raise questions, solve problems, and can target different learning content to help students choose a different approach to learning, such as: acceptance, exploration, imitation, experience, etc.; so that students' learning becomes rich and full of personality, leaving all-round development time and space to facilitate students to develop creativity and autonomy, diversity, individuality and continuous development under the guidance of teachers.

D. To Explore Diverse Teaching and Learning Approaches

Previous teaching methods are few and very rigid. The results of teaching and learning are very limited, so the explosions of the alternative effective teaching and learning methods to improve the current teaching level in China's majority of universities are necessary. Several potential strategies and methods include E-learning, increasing the group discussion etc.

In short, Chinese and western education has a lot to compensate for the individual inadequacies. Recently, one important feature of the education reform is that East-West mutual education and mutual integration come into the eyes of universities' managers.

As the economic and social development levels of some western developed countries are relatively higher, the modernization of education is still leading the world in many ways. They have a number of advanced thinking on

learning and teaching idea that China can learn from. In order to accelerate the modernization of education, we should reflect on the shortcomings of traditional Chinese concepts of education, and take the reform and development in the context of inheriting and developing traditional teaching merits.

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The Effect of Multimedia Glosses on Online Computerized L2 Text Comprehension and Vocabulary Learning of Iranian EFL Learners

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***Abstract*—This study investigated the effects of different types of multimedia glosses, namely text, picture, and text plus picture on online computerized L2 text comprehension and vocabulary learning of junior high school students. About 60 female Iranian junior high school students were selected from a population pool of 102 volunteers based on their performance on a standard English proficiency test (Nelson). Afterwards, they were randomly assigned to 4 groups of 15, three gloss groups, subsequently exposed to the research treatment and one control group. Taking advantage of the results of the pilot study, some words of the computerized written texts were glossed and hyperlinked by a computer software program. When the students clicked on hyperlinked words, a new page appeared and showed the word with a definition in English (textual gloss group), a picture (pictorial gloss group), or a combination of both definition and picture (textual plus pictorial gloss group). Participants in each experimental group read the texts under one of the three mentioned conditions. Statistical analyses of the results reveal that 1) all multimedia gloss groups comprehended computerized L2 texts significantly better than the control group, 2) A significant difference between the multimedia gloss groups and the control group in the production of the target vocabulary items was found. 3) The mix gloss group insignificantly outperformed the textual and pictorial gloss groups in computerized L2 text comprehension, and 4) regarding vocabulary learning, the mix gloss group significantly outperformed the other two gloss groups. Hence, the findings of this study indicate that utilizing computers and multimedia glosses can be influential in language teaching in general and online L2 text comprehension as well as incidental vocabulary learning in particular.**

***Index Terms*—L2 text comprehension, online computerized text, gloss, multimedia gloss, vocabulary learning**

I. Introduction

Undoubtedly, words are the building blocks of language and the lack of words will surely become an obstacle to the acquisition of other aspects of language including reading, writing, listening and speaking. Thus, how to enlarge vocabulary size and how to use vocabulary in a productive way have become major concerns of L2 learners as well as L2 teachers.

Foreign language vocabulary plays an important role in achieving high-level of reading ability and enhancing comprehension (Anderson & Freebody, 1981; Markham, 1989; Segalowitz & Watson, 1995). It is necessary to point out that the relationship between vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension is not a completely straightforward one. Reading comprehension requires a host of interactive variables, which operate in a complicated unison (Chun & Plass, 1997). Reading is, thus, dependent not only on vocabulary knowledge, but also on background knowledge, synthesis and evaluation skills and strategies, metacognitive knowledge, and skill monitoring. The relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading albeit not exclusive remains an important one. Even though some recent studies have been published which challenge this role (Chodkiewicz, 2001; Laufer & Nation, 2001), it is widely believed that reading is an important source of vocabulary acquisition both in L1 and L2 (Bogaards, 2001; Krashen, 1989; Watanabe, 1997).

According to Krashen (1989), vocabulary acquisition while reading occurs in an incidental way. Even though incidental learning while reading is relatively successful, many researchers report data showing that its efficiency can be enhanced further by rendering the text more comprehensible through usage of glosses or a dictionary, for example (Hulstijn, 1992; Watanabe, 1997).

In the present study, vocabulary learning and reading comprehension in a media environment enhanced with glosses were investigated. Glosses would be substitutes for the traditional dictionary with which the student had to switch focus from the passage to the dictionary with the consequent waste of time and effort.

Despite the recognition of the importance of vocabulary acquisition, vocabulary learning seems to be a great headache to many language learners. Learners tend to forget newly-remembered words quite soon or they find it rather difficult to use them in speaking or writing because of the lack of knowledge of collocations or pragmatics. However, the appearance of CALL seems to provide a new outlook for language teaching and learning as well as vocabulary acquisition.

Ever since the advent of computer-assisted language learning (CALL), teachers and researches alike have tried to devise ways in which computer technology can be of use in foreign language classes. Up to now, plenty of research in this regard has been conducted (Makoto, 2006; De, Ridder, 2002; Jeong, 2001; Groot, 2000; Ellis, 1994; Dunkel, 1991).

According to Jones (2000), the availability of many current electronic resources provides numerous opportunities for making texts more comprehensible to learners. Indeed, one of the recent developments in making texts more comprehensible to readers is using computerized glosses or annotations.

Therefore, the major purpose of this study is to examine the usefulness of multimedia glosses in online reading comprehension process and vocabulary learning. Since the concept of glossing is too broad to be investigated within a single study, the effectiveness of only three online computerized gloss conditions (textual, pictorial, and textual – pictorial) will be studied. This study also investigates what type of available gloss (textual, pictorial, or a combination) better aids L2 (second language) students to comprehend an online written passage and acquire more vocabulary incidentally.

II. Statement of the Problem

Even though there are several ways for presenting and introducing new vocabulary in a reading comprehension text, glossing (textual and/or pictorial) have not been appreciated at least in Iranian high schools. It is inevitable for foreign or second language learners to confront new and unfamiliar words in the text they read. Referring to a dictionary and guessing meaning from contextual clues are two commonly used strategies by the learners. Checking the unknown words in a dictionary, specially when the number of new words is high, often interrupts the process of reading and distracts the reader's attention; besides, since there are often several meanings in a dictionary for every word, there is the possibility that the reader chooses the wrong and inappropriate meaning. In the case of guessing or inferencing also it is possible for the reader to make erroneous inferences for similar lexical forms or idioms.

Some researchers report that students who are able to consult glosses before or during the reading process recalled more of the text than those without glossing aids (Davis, 1989; Jacobs et al., 1994). However, this study tries to investigate the effects of different types of gloss (text, picture, and text + picture) on L2 text comprehension, specially when the goal is comprehension of a computerized text in order to have an empirical evidence of such an effect.

III. Objectives of the Study

This study intended to investigate the effects of exposure to any type of gloss, namely textual, pictorial, and textual plus pictorial, on L2 learner's reading comprehension and vocabulary learning when the goal is exclusively comprehension of an online computerized text.

In other words, the study aimed at examining the usefulness of online textual and/or pictorial glossing on vocabulary learning and reading comprehension ability of L2 learners. By using Mayer's work (1997, 2001, 2002, 2005b) carried out in the field of psychology, this study has addressed the use of textual and pictorial glosses for a meaningful learning. Participants would read a text under four online conditions, (no gloss, text gloss, picture gloss, and text plus picture gloss). These different conditions were used to assess whether any of them would promote comprehension of an online computerized text and vocabulary learning of the target words. Comparing the functions of three mentioned conditions of glossing in reading comprehension and production of target words was another objective of the present study.

IV. Research Questions

According to the stated problem, the following research questions have been addressed in this study:

1. Does exposure to any type of gloss (text, picture, and text plus picture) have a significant effect on L2 readers' comprehension of an online computerized reading text, as measured by a comprehension test?

2. Does exposure to any type of gloss (textual, pictorial, and textual plus pictorial) have a significant effect on L2 readers' learning of online computerized target words, as measured by a production test?

3. Which type of gloss (text, picture, and text plus picture) has a more significant effect on L2 readers' comprehension of an online computerized reading text, as measured by a comprehension test?

4. Which type of gloss (textual, pictorial, and textual plus pictorial) has a more significant effect on L2 readers' learning of online computerized target words, as measured by a production test?

V. Research Hypotheses

Based on the questions cited above, this study aimed at testing the following null hypotheses:

H1. Exposure to any type of gloss (text, picture, and text plus picture) does not have a significant effect on L2 readers' comprehension of an online computerized reading text, as measured by a comprehension test.

H2. Exposure to any type of gloss (textual, pictorial, and textual plus pictorial) does not have a significant effect on L2 readers' learning of online computerized target words, as measured by a production test.

H3. None of the gloss types (text, picture, and text plus picture) have a more significant effect on L2 readers' comprehension of an online computerized reading text, as measured by a comprehension test.

H4. None of the gloss types (textual, pictorial, and textual plus pictorial) have a more significant effect on L2 readers' learning of online computerized target words, as measured by a production test.

VI. Methodology

A. Participants

The population of the participants at the time of the study was 102 female junior high school students studying at Najafabad shahed high school. To assess their general language proficiency level, the standard test of Nelson (2001) was administered. The students' performance on the reading comprehension and vocabulary sections of Nelson test was analyzed to ensure that they were homogeneous in terms of their proficiency level. Only the participants whose scores on this test fell between one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were selected. Finally, 60 participants were qualified to be included in the study. Later, these homogenized participants were randomly assigned to three experimental groups labeled as textual, pictorial, textual plus pictorial groups, and one control group.

B. Instruments

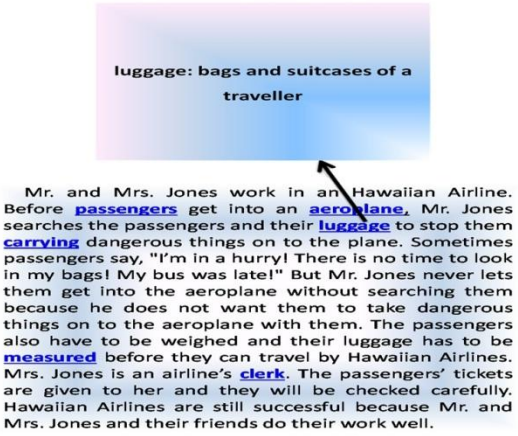
1. Nelson test

In order to determine the general proficiency level of the participants and to screen them, reading and vocabulary sections of Nelson test (2001), including 30 questions, were used as reliable and valid test for the selection of 60 intermediate participants. The individual scores on these two sections of Nelson were analyzed to ensure that they were of the same level of language proficiency.

2. Online computerized reading text

Three appropriate reading passages were selected. It was necessary to determine the readability of the three computerized reading passages the participants were to receive on the day of exposure to the research treatment. The readability level of each computerized reading passage was computed separately by Microsoft Office Word 2007. After matching the readability of the passages to the students' proficiency levels, they were tried out by the selected individuals in the pilot study in order to underline all the unknown words in the passages. Only words underlined by more than half of the participants were selected to be glossed. Based on the result of the pilot study, the passages were computerized, and some words of that computerized written passages were glossed, and hyperlinked by a computer software program called Power Point. The software included different slides that showed computerized reading passages with bold, and underlined words, the definitions of the words, their pictures, and combinations of them. Taking advantage of the results of the pilot study, the pictures exactly related to the meaning of the words were selected. When the participants clicked on the hyperlinked words, a new window appeared and showed the word with a definition in English (textual gloss group), a picture (pictorial gloss group), or a combination (textual plus pictorial gloss group). After receiving the definitions and pictures of the words in a new window, the participants could go back to the passage by clicking again. As can be seen in the following pictures, participants in textual gloss group read a computerized written passage and got access to the definitions of bold, and underlined words in English by clicking on them. Pictorial gloss group got access to their pictures, and mixed gloss group read a computerized written passage by accessing to both definitions and pictures of unknown words. Some examples of the computerized texts along with the hyperlinked words are presented in the following pages.

Example 1: Online computerized reading passage for textual gloss group



Example 2: Online computerized reading passage for pictorial gloss group

Mr. and Mrs. Jones work in an Hawaiian Airline. Before passengers get into an aeroplane, Mr. Jones searches the passengers and their luggage to stop them carrying dangerous things on to the plane. Sometimes passengers say, "I'm in a hurry! There is no time to look in my bags! My bus was late!" But Mr. Jones never lets them get into the aeroplane without searching them because he does not want them to take dangerous things on to the aeroplane with them. The passengers also have to be weighed and their luggage has to be measured before they can travel by Hawaiian Airlines. Mrs. Jones is an airline's clerk. The passengers' tickets are given to her and they will be checked carefully. Hawaiian Airlines are still successful because Mr. and Mrs. Jones and their friends do their work well.

Example 3: Online computerized reading passage for textual-pictorial gloss group

Mr. and Mrs. Jones work in an Hawaiian Airline. Before passengers get into an aeroplane, Mr. Jones searches the passengers and their luggage to stop them carrying dangerous things on to the plane. Sometimes passengers say, "I'm in a hurry! There is no time to look in my bags! My bus was late!" But Mr. Jones never lets them get into the aeroplane without searching them because he does not want them to take dangerous things on to the aeroplane with them. The passengers also have to be weighed and their luggage has to be measured before they can travel by Hawaiian Airlines. Mrs. Jones is an airline's clerk. The passengers' tickets are given to her and they will be checked carefully. Hawaiian Airlines are still successful because Mr. and Mrs. Jones and their friends do their work well.

3. Production test

The participants were given three printed paper reading passages with appropriate readability levels followed by a production test. After each written passage was read, the four groups were given the achievement production test. The annotated words in the three computerized reading passages were the focus of the production task. As mentioned in the piloting section, fill-in-the-blanks items were produced by the researcher and a couple of the experts in the field.

4. Comprehension test

After completing the production test, all groups were given an achievement comprehension test consisting of multiple-choice comprehension questions in English. The reliability and validity of the comprehension tests were established. Some specialists in language teaching and testing were asked to review the test, and there was a general consensus among them concerning the content validity of the test.

Participants were allowed to refer back to the passages to answer the comprehension questions if they needed to. In this study, the reading comprehension multiple-choice questions focused on the overall comprehension of the passages, since as the teacher-researcher experienced, comprehension questions should aim at measuring whether students achieve a clear understanding of events happening in the texts.

C. Procedure

The present study was conducted in Najafabad Shahed high school computer site. As it was illustrated in the participant section, 60 participants were selected from among a total of 102 participants on the basis of their scores on the standard proficiency test (Nelson, 2001). After the researcher made certain that the participants formed a homogenous sample, they were randomly assigned to one of the four groups; three gloss groups (textual, pictorial, and textual plus pictorial), and a control group.

On the day of exposure to the research treatment, participants in the three gloss groups received instructions for each gloss conditions. All groups could have access to the texts via internet since the computerized texts, as mentioned earlier, were added to high school computer site for online teaching of reading and vocabulary. Participants were tested individually and they worked through the text at their own pace. This way of teaching was an online process. Textual gloss group read the online computerized written passages having access to the definitions of the glossed words in English. Pictorial gloss group read the online computerized written passages with access to the pictures of the glossed words. Mix gloss group read the online computerized written passages with access to the pictures and the definitions of the glossed words. Control group read the online computerized written texts without having any access to the definitions or pictures of the glossed words.

During the sessions of instruction, the participants had access to online reading passages at high school computer site. As it was mentioned above, the participants in each group worked through the passages under different conditions. The gloss groups could consult glosses by placing the mouse pointer over the colored boldface words. When the participants clicked on the hyperlinked words, a new page appeared and showed the word with a definition in English (textual gloss group), a picture (pictorial gloss group), or a combination of both (textual plus pictorial gloss group). Participants in control group read the texts without having any access to glosses. After completion of the online reading task in different conditions by the participants themselves, the teacher-researcher asked them some questions orally in order to assess whether any of them comprehended the passages and learned the glossed words.

In the next session which was held after four days, three printed paper reading passages followed by the production and comprehension tests were administered to the participants. These three printed paper reading passages are different from the three main online computerized passages of the experiment. But, they included the same key words that were glossed in the three experimental passages and with the same appropriate readability level. Participants read the printed paper passages one by one. After reading each passage, they took a paper version of the production and comprehension tests including 12 questions in the same session. Every passage included 6 fill-in-the-blank production questions, and 6 multiple-choice comprehension questions. The 18 annotated words in the three experimental computerized reading passages were the focus of production tasks. Each computerized passage included 6 annotated words, so each printed paper passage followed by 6 fill-in-the-blank questions.

Participants performed the production tests first so that the multiple choice comprehension tests would not provide additional exposure to the target words, enhancing their recall. The annotated words in the reading texts were the focus of the production tests. Participants were given sentences in English and they were asked to fill in the blanks. They could refer back to the texts to help them find an appropriate word for each blank.

Comprehension tests consisted of multiple-choice comprehension questions in English. Participants were allowed to consult with the texts to help them answer the comprehension questions if they needed to. The multiple-choice comprehension questions dealing with overall comprehension of the texts by considering specific meaning of the words glossed in the experimental texts, aimed at measuring whether participants achieved a clear understanding of events happening in the texts. The participants answered the questions on the answer sheets which were distributed towards the end of the reading task.

VII. Data Analyses

In the present study, a series of matched *t*-tests were run to compare the mean of each gloss group with that of the control group on the reading comprehension and production tests. One-way ANOVA test was performed to examine if there exist any significant differences among the three gloss groups regarding L2 text comprehension and vocabulary learning. Analysis of variance procedure was followed by Post hoc Scheffe test. This test was run to reveal the level of significant differences among groups.

A. Results of the Reading Comprehension Test for Three Gloss Groups and Control Group

In order to confirm or reject the first null hypothesis (i.e., Exposure to any type of gloss, text, picture, text plus picture, does not have a significant effect on L2 readers' comprehension of an online computerized reading text as measured by a comprehension test.), first the descriptive statistics of the participants' performance on the comprehension test of 'gloss groups' (text, picture, text plus picture) and 'control group' were calculated. Second, a matched t-test was run to compare the means of the two groups. This test run on the mean scores shows a significant difference between the two means. Table 1. represents the descriptive statistics of the performance of three experimental groups and control group on reading comprehension test.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: PERFORMANCE OF THE FOUR GROUPS ON READING COMPREHENSION TEST

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	minimum	maximum
Control	15	5.500	1.1952	3.5	7.0
Text gloss	15	6.367	2.1084	3.0	8.5
Picture gloss	15	6.400	1.8439	4.0	10.0
Mix gloss	15	6.500	1.9086	4.0	9.5

Table 1 illustrates the descriptive statistics of the four groups' scores on text comprehension measures and the total comparison of the scores of the participants among the three gloss groups and the control group. The difference among the means of the gloss groups and control group showed that the annotation groups outscored the control group on comprehension of L2 texts.

A series of matched t-tests were run on comprehension mean scores to determine whether type of gloss had a significant effect on the reading comprehension. The results are represented in the following Tables.

TABLE 2.
ONE SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS OF THE COMPREHENSION TEST: CONTROL AND TEXT GLOSS GROUPS

	Test Value = 0					
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
textual gloss	11.695	14	.000	6.3667	5.199	7.534
control	17.822	14	.000	5.5000	4.838	6.162

As the results of Table 2 show, the difference between the means of the textual gloss group and control group reveals that the participants in textual gloss group outperformed the control group on reading comprehension measures. In order to see if the difference is significant, a matched t-test was run. Since the observed *t* is greater than the critical *t* with 14 degree of freedom at the 0.05 level of significance, the first null hypothesis is rejected. The level of significance is .000 < 0.05, and the difference between the means of two groups is statistically significant.

TABLE 3.
ONE SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS OF THE COMPREHENSION TEST: CONTROL AND PICTURE GLOSS GROUPS

	Test Value = 0					
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
Pictorial gloss	13.443	14	.000	6.4000	5.379	7.421
control	17.822	14	.000	5.5000	4.838	6.162

In table 3, in order to see if the difference between the means of two groups is significant, a matched t-test was run. Since the significance level (.000) is smaller than the alpha level (0.05), and the difference between the means of two groups is meaningful, the first null hypothesis is rejected. Therefore, exposure to picture gloss has a significant effect on L2 readers' comprehension of an online computerized reading text.

TABLE 4.
ONE SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS OF THE COMPREHENSION TEST: CONTROL AND MIX GLOSS GROUPS

	Test Value = 0					
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
textual-pictorial	13.190	14	.000	6.5000	5.443	7.557
control	17.822	14	.000	5.5000	4.838	6.162

It can be clearly seen in Table 4 that the amount of *t*-observed is significant at the probability level of p=.000, which is smaller than 0.05. In other words, the mix gloss group significantly outperformed the control group on reading comprehension measures. Since the significance level (.000) is smaller than the alpha level (0.05), the first null hypothesis is rejected. It can be concluded that multimedia annotations have a beneficial effect on comprehension of L2 texts.

B. The Results of Production Test for Three Gloss Groups and Control Group

In order to support or reject the second null hypothesis (i.e., Exposure to any type of gloss, text, picture, text plus picture does not have a significant effect on L2 readers' learning of online computerized target words as measured through a production test.), first the descriptive statistics of the participants' performance on the production test of both 'gloss groups' (text, picture, and text plus picture) and 'control group' were calculated. Second, in order to compare the mean of each gloss group with that of control group on the production test, and to find out whether or not there is a meaningful difference between their means, a t-test was run. In Table 5, the descriptive statistics of the performance of three experimental groups and control group on production test are presented.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: PERFORMANCE OF THE FOUR GROUPS ON PRODUCTION TEST

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	minimum	maximum
control	15	3.200	1.6776	0.5	6.0
Text gloss	15	5.233	1.8791	2.0	8.5
Picture gloss	15	5.933	2.3518	2.5	10.0
Mix gloss	15	8.100	1.5260	5.5	10.0

Looking at the descriptive data in Table 5, it can be noticed that mean scores of participants in the three gloss groups are different from and higher than the control group indicating that multimedia annotations have affected the production of target words.

A series of t-tests were performed to examine if there exist any significant differences among three gloss groups and control group regarding vocabulary gains.

TABLE 6.
ONE SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS OF THE PRODUCTION TEST: CONTROL AND TEXT GLOSS GROUPS

	Test Value = 0					
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
Textual_gloss	10.786	14	.000	5.2333	4.193	6.274
control	7.388	14	.000	3.2000	2.271	4.129

As the above table displays, the difference between the means of the groups shows that the participants in text gloss group had better performance than those of control group in vocabulary acquisition measures. In order to see if the difference is significant, a matched t-test was run. Since the significance level (.000) is smaller than the alpha level (0.05), and the difference between the means of two groups is statistically significant, the second null hypothesis is rejected.

TABLE 7.
ONE SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS OF THE PRODUCTION TEST: CONTROL AND PICTURE GLOSS GROUPS

	Test Value = 0					
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
Pictorial_gloss	9.771	14	.000	5.9333	4.631	7.236
control	7.388	14	.000	3.2000	2.271	4.129

As table 7 represents, the difference between the means of two groups is significant. Based on the results presented in the above table, there exists a meaningful difference between the means of picture gloss and control groups in L2 vocabulary learning. Thus, the second null hypothesis is rejected since the level of significant differences between groups is .000 < 0.05.

TABLE 8.
ONE SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS OF THE PRODUCTION TEST: CONTROL AND MIX GLOSS GROUPS

	Test Value = 0					
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
textual-pictorial	11.425	14	.000	6.9000	5.605	8.195
control	7.388	14	.000	3.2000	2.271	4.129

In table 8, the difference between the means of the two groups shows that the participants in combination gloss group outperformed those of the control group in vocabulary acquisition measures. In order to see if the difference is significant, a matched t-test was run. Since the significance level (.000) is smaller than the alpha level (0.05), and the difference between the means of two groups is statistically significant, the second null hypothesis is rejected. Therefore, Exposure to text plus picture gloss has a significant effect on L2 readers' learning of target words.

C. Comparison of Comprehension Test Results of Three Gloss Groups

In order to confirm or reject the third null hypothesis (i.e., none of the gloss types, text, picture, text plus picture, have a more significant effect on L2 readers' comprehension of an online computerized reading text, as measured by a comprehension test.), first, the descriptive statistics of the participants' performance on the means and standard

deviations of three gloss groups of reading comprehension test were computed. Second, One-way ANOVA was employed to calculate the amount of variance between and within the gloss groups (text, picture, text plus picture). Third, Post hoc Scheffe test was run to determine whether the difference existing among groups was significantly meaningful for text gloss, picture gloss, and mix gloss.

The descriptive statistics of the three gloss groups' scores on text comprehension measures and the total comparison of the scores of the participants among the three gloss groups were illustrated in Table 1. The difference among the means of three gloss groups on reading comprehension test showed that the pictorial gloss group outperformed the textual gloss group and the combination gloss group outperformed all other groups (textual and pictorial) on this test. The results of ANOVA presented in Table 9 confirm these findings. This test was computed on the production scores to determine whether to determine whether or not type of gloss had a significant effect on the reading comprehension.

TABLE 9.
ONE-WAY ANOVA RESULTS OF THE COMPREHENSION TEST FOR THREE GLOSS GROUPS
ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.144	2	.072	.019	.981
Within Groups	160.833	42	3.829		
Total	160.978	44			

According to the above Table, since the significance level (.981) is greater than the alpha level (0.05), there are no significant differences among the three gloss groups (text, picture, and mix). Therefore, the third null hypothesis is confirmed. As the results suggest, exposure to types of gloss in this study did not appear to have a differential effect on the learners' abilities to comprehend L2 texts. The Post hoc Scheffe test in the following table shows the level of significant differences among the annotation groups.

TABLE 10.
POST HOC SCHEFFE RESULTS OF THE COMPREHENSION TEST FOR THREE GLOSS GROUPS
Multiple Comparisons

(I) group1	(J) group1	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
text	picture	-.03333	.71455	.999	-1.7693	1.7027
	mix	-.13333	.71455	.981	-1.8693	1.6027
picture	text	.03333	.71455	.999	-1.7027	1.7693
	mix	-.10000	.71455	.989	-1.8360	1.6360
mix	text	.13333	.71455	.981	-1.6027	1.8693
	picture	.10000	.71455	.989	-1.6360	1.8360

The level of significance for text gloss group and picture gloss group is .999 > .05, meaning that no significant difference exists between these two gloss groups in reading comprehension test. The level of significance for text gloss group and mix gloss group is .981 > .05, which means there is no meaningful difference in the performance of the groups on text comprehension measures. Based on the results of the post hoc test, the level of significance for picture gloss group and mix gloss group is .989>.05. Thus, this conclusion can be drawn that there exists no significant difference between these two groups. The results indicate that no meaningful differences were found among the three gloss types (text, picture, mix) for the reading comprehension test.

D. Comparison of Production Test Results of Three Gloss Groups

In order to support or reject the fourth null hypothesis (i.e., none of the gloss types, text, picture, text plus picture, have a more significant effect on L2 readers' learning of online computerized target words as measured through a production test.), first, the descriptive statistics of the participants' performance of three gloss groups of production test were computed. Then, one-way ANOVA was used for the obtained experimental data. This test was run to determine if the difference among the three gloss groups regarding producing target words was significant or not. Finally, Analysis of variance procedure was followed by Post hoc Scheffe test. This test was run to reveal level of significant differences among groups.

As the descriptive data in table 5 show, The difference between the mean scores of the three gloss groups, text, picture, text plus picture, on production measures indicate that the pictorial gloss group outperform the textual gloss group and the combination gloss group outperform the other groups (textual and pictorial) on the production test. One-way ANOVA was run to determine if the difference among the annotation groups regarding vocabulary learning was significant or not.

TABLE 11.
ONE-WAY ANOVA RESULTS OF THE PRODUCTION TEST FOR THREE GLOSS GROUPS
ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	67.011	2	33.506	8.825	.001
Within Groups	159.467	42	3.797		
Total	226.478	44			

The results obtained from ANOVA test presented in Table 11 confirm a significant difference among participants' production measures in three gloss groups. In other words, since the significance level (.001) is smaller than the alpha level (0.05), there are significant differences among the three gloss groups. Therefore, the forth null hypothesis is rejected.

ANOVA procedure was followed by Post hoc Scheffe test. This test was run to reveal the level of significant differences among the three gloss groups. The details of this post hoc test are presented in Table 12.

TABLE 12.
POST HOC SCHEFFE RESULTS OF THE PRODUCTION TEST FOR THREE GLOSS GROUPS
Multiple Comparisons

(I) group2	(J) group2	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
text	picture	-.70000	.71151	.591	-2.4286	1.0286
	mix	-2.86667 *	.71151	.001	-4.5953	-1.1381
picture	text	.70000	.71151	.591	-1.0286	2.4286
	mix	-2.16667 *	.71151	.011	-3.8953	-.4381
mix	text	2.86667 *	.71151	.001	1.1381	4.5953
	picture	2.16667 *	.71151	.011	.4381	3.8953

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

The level of significance for text gloss group and picture gloss group is .591 > .05, this shows that there is no significant difference between these two glossing conditions in production test. The level of significance for text gloss group and mix gloss group is .oo1<.05, meaning that a meaningful difference exists in the performance of the groups in vocabulary gains. Based on the above Table, the level of significance for picture gloss group and mix gloss group is .011<.05, which means that there exists a significant difference between these two groups in producing target words.

The results obtained from Post hoc Scheffe test presented in Table 12. reveal that the mix gloss group significantly outperformed all other groups on the production measures.

VIII. DISCUSSION

Concerning the first research question, results of the present study indicate that the participants exposed to multimedia glosses (textual, pictorial, textual plus pictorial) outperformed those who received no such instruction, and there was a significant difference in the performance of gloss groups and that of control group on the comprehension test. As far as reading comprehension is concerned, the three gloss groups significantly outperformed the control group even though no significant difference among experimental groups was detected. These findings are not surprising and are in tune with the previous findings that have shown reading comprehension to be affected by the inclusion of annotations. Glosses, whether multimedia or traditional have had significant effect on the comprehension of a written text (Davis, 1989; Jacobs, DuFon, & Hong, 1994; Lomicka, 1998; Bowles, 2004; Mayer, 2005b).

This finding of the study supports the study conducted by Bowles (2004), who employed think-aloud protocols and compared computerized glosses with the traditional ones in vocabulary acquisition and text comprehension measures. The results indicated that both experimental groups, multimedia and traditional gloss groups, had an advantage over the control group in reading comprehension. Along the same lines, in the present study, all groups exposed to glosses outperformed the control group and there was a meaningful difference between the performance of the participants in the gloss groups and those of the control group in comprehension of an online computerized passage.

Considering the second research question, which investigated the effect of types of gloss on production tasks, all groups exposed to glosses outperformed the control group in producing target words. Also a significant difference between the three gloss groups and the control group was found in the production task. These results contradict with the findings of the previous studies that have shown production of target vocabulary items not to be affected by the inclusion of annotations (Chun & Plass, 1996; Lomicka, 1998; Kost et al., 1999; Bowles, 2004). Participants seemed to focus on text comprehension, leaving aside word morphology or any type of lexical association which would be indicative of processes that might lead to vocabulary acquisition (Bowles, 2004; Lomicka, 1998).

The findings of this study related to the second research question are consistent with the findings of the previous studies (Hulstijn et al., 1996; Watanabe, 1997), in which it is argued that the inclusion of glosses promotes vocabulary

learning. Both studies conducted by Hulstijn et al. (1996), and Watanabe (1997), however, measured vocabulary learning through recall and post-vocabulary tests only so that any deeper interpretation of those results is not available.

Previous studies carried out by Yeh and Wang (2003), and Yoshii (2006) investigated the effect of different types of multimedia glosses on incidental vocabulary learning. They concluded that providing different types of glosses was effective in the learning of target words. Along the same lines, the present study indicated that all multimedia gloss groups outperformed the control group and a meaningful difference existed between gloss groups and control group in producing target words.

In response to the third research question in which the effect of any types of glosses is investigated related to the computerized text comprehension, the picture gloss group outperformed the text gloss group and the combination gloss group outperformed all the others. In other words, comprehension of the text was better aided by visual and textual information as provided by combination glosses.

As proposed by Mayer (2001, 2005b) providing learners with both picture and text glosses so that they could process information through different channels allowed participants to better comprehend the text. Participants in the mix gloss group outscored participants in the text only gloss group and picture only gloss group, but they did not significantly outperform each other. That is, there was no meaningful difference among gloss groups in reading comprehension. It seemed that any type of gloss (text, picture, text plus picture) in comparison with each other did not offer enough support to overall comprehension of the passage.

The results of the current study related to the third research question indicated that the three gloss groups (text, picture, text plus picture) insignificantly outperformed each other respectively on reading comprehension test. This finding supports the previous study conducted by Plass, Chun, Mayer, and Leutner (1998) who investigated the effect of different types of glosses according to the students' preferred mode on text comprehension and learning of the new words. The results of their study provided justification for the generative theory of multimedia learning (Mayer, 1997), an earlier version of Mayer's cognitive theory of multimedia learning (Mayer, 2005b). The participants of their study performed better on the posttests when both visual and textual information were selected, moderate when only one mode was selected, and worse when neither was selected. In addition, participants comprehended the text better when they could choose the gloss in their preferred mode.

Finally, concerning the fourth research question in which the effect of type of gloss on the production task was investigated, the picture gloss group insignificantly outperformed the text gloss group but the combination gloss group significantly outperformed all the others. In other words, a meaningful difference existed in the performance of the combination gloss group and the other two gloss groups in the production of target words.

The finding of this study related to question four confirmed the previous findings (Al-Seghayer, 2001; Chun & Plass, 1996; Yeh & Wang, 2003; Yoshii & Flaitz, 2002). The results of their studies suggested that a combination of textual and pictorial glosses was more beneficial to the learners in vocabulary learning, possibly due to the fact that they received two modes of input (Ellis, 1994), namely verbal and visual.

The outcome of this research that text plus picture group significantly outperformed the text only and picture only gloss groups in producing target words, is interesting and clearly contrasts with the results of the third research question, in which no meaningful difference among any gloss groups (text, picture, text plus picture) in reading comprehension test was found. This seems to indicate that multimedia glosses had a different effect on reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition. As it is mentioned above, it seems that the three gloss types in comparison with each other do not offer enough support to overall understanding of the passage, but significantly aid in learning target vocabulary items.

In the mix gloss group, where students got a text gloss along with the picture, they did not have to interpret what the picture meant and most of them read aloud the definition given. In other words, most participants took advantage of combination gloss group. The appearance of both text and picture seemed to have a cognitive impact on the participants' vocabulary learning and reading comprehension. However, it eventually only had a significant effect on vocabulary learning, as shown by the quantitative results of the present study.

To sum up, the results of the present study would then provide support for Mayer's cognitive theory of multimedia learning (Mayer, 2001, 2005a, 2005b) and its SLA conceptualization (Plass & Jones, 2005) that accounts for different channels to process textual and pictorial input. As shown by the quantitative results of this study, better comprehension of computerized reading passage and vocabulary learning occur when both channels (verbal and visual) are engaged.

IX. Conclusion

The findings of the present study demonstrate first that all multimedia gloss groups comprehend online computerized L2 texts significantly better than the control group. Second, Multimedia gloss groups learn the target words better than the control group. There is also a significant difference between multimedia gloss groups and the control group in the production of the target vocabulary items. Third, regarding reading comprehension, the combination gloss group insignificantly comprehend an online computerized L2 text better than all other gloss groups. Finally, regarding vocabulary learning, the combination gloss group significantly outperform the other two gloss groups.

The results of this study also reflect the fact that utilizing computers and multimedia glosses can be influential in language teaching in general, and online computerized L2 text comprehension as well as incidental vocabulary learning in particular.

To conclude, unlike traditional vocabulary teaching in which learners are exposed to scarce authentic learning material as well as monotonous vocabulary learning method, the integration of CALL to vocabulary learning and reading comprehension can become a dynamic learning process in which ample learning materials from multiple sources, both textual and pictorial, are adopted, and varied learning modes which combines classroom learning with online learning are realized.

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Vocabulary in the Approaches to Language Teaching: From the Twentieth Century to the Twenty-first

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***Abstract*—This study gives an overview of the nine twentieth-century approaches to language teaching and demonstrates how vocabulary teaching was regarded and what techniques were used to teach vocabulary in each of the approaches. The reasons of the emergence of a new approach to language teaching are pointed out for each approach as well. Finally, the current status of vocabulary teaching and the causes of debates among vocabulary researchers are discussed. It can be concluded that although a systematic and principled approach to teaching vocabulary has not yet been found, teaching vocabulary learning strategies explicitly has attracted the attention of many researchers around the world.**

***Index Terms*—vocabulary teaching, language teaching approaches, strategy training**

I. Introduction

After many decades of being neglect and receiving little importance, teaching and learning second language (L2) vocabulary has now markedly become into the focus of interest of many applied linguistic researchers and language teachers (Barcroft, 2004; Decaricco, 2001; Read, 2000). Moreover, lexical competence is currently acknowledged to be a core component of communicative competence by many vocabulary specialists, which provides much of the basis for how well learners speak, listen, read and write (Coady & Huckin, 1997; Richards & Renandya, 2002). In the past, it was thought that vocabulary could simply be learned effortlessly, and received only incidental attention in many textbooks and language programs. However, mastering vocabulary is one of the most challenging tasks that any learner faces when learning a foreign language and, thus, many language learners devote a great deal of time on memorizing lists of L2 words and rely on their bilingual dictionary as a basic communicative resource; furthermore, they consider L2 acquisition as essentially a matter of learning vocabulary.

The low status of vocabulary teaching in past years can largely be attributed to the language teaching approaches which were dominant at that time. Changes in language teaching approaches throughout history have reflected shifts in theories of the nature of language and of language learning; they have also reflected recognition of changes in the kind of proficiency learners need. Takefuta and Takefuta (1996) in their bibliographic study emphasized the close relationship between vocabulary teaching and teaching methodologies of English. In this light, the purpose of this article is to explore how vocabulary instruction was regarded in the different approaches to language teaching based on the classification proposed by Celce-Murcia (2001), and more specifically to give an overview of the importance each approach has placed on vocabulary teaching and to discuss the possible shortcomings of each approach. Finally, the current status of vocabulary teaching is discussed.

Celce-Murcia (2001) classifies the major trends in language teaching in the twentieth century into nine approaches, namely, (1) Grammar-Translation, (2) Direct, (3) Reading, (4) Audiolingualism (United States), (5) Oral-Situational (Britain), (6) Cognitive, (7) Affective-Humanistic, (8) Comprehension-Based, and (9) Communicative. The importance given to vocabulary and the way it was taught within each of these approaches are briefly discussed in the next part.

II. The History of Vocabulary Teaching in the Twentieth Century

A. Grammar Translation Approach

Grammar Translation, an extension of the approach used to teach classical languages to the teaching of modern languages, dominated foreign language teaching from the 1840s to the 1940s. In its modified form, this approach continues to be widely used in some parts of the world today. The fundamental goal of learning a foreign language in Grammar Translation Approach is to be able to read its literature. In order to do so, students are expected to learn the

grammatical rules and vocabulary of the target language using bilingual word lists. It seems that the advocates of this approach had chosen the principles of Faculty Psychology as the basis for their learning theory (Chastain, 1988). It was thought that memorizing vocabulary items, grammatical rules, and translation would provide language learners with useful mental exercise, which would enhance their intellectual growth. Although the prescriptive grammatical rules and their exceptions formulated by traditional grammarians were taught in this approach, it lacked a justified theory of language or learning (Richards & Rodgers, 2003).

Vocabulary lists are a familiar part of the lesson in this approach and a typical exercise is to translate lexical items or sentences from the target language into their mother tongue using dictionaries to (or vice versa). Another exercise given to the students is a list of words which they are required to find their antonyms or sometimes their synonyms in the reading passage they are studying or define the words that they encounter in the reading passage. Recognizing cognates is an exercise mostly given to students in this approach, which means they should identify and learn the spelling or sound pattern that corresponds between the target language and mother tongue (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

Although along with teaching grammatical rules deductively emphasis was placed on vocabulary, the main objection to this approach was that it lacked realistic oral language and the result of this approach was an in ability on the part of the student to use the language for communication. Zimmerman (1997) states that these objections hold implications for vocabulary instruction. One of the critics of this approach in the 1860s was Prendergast, in his manual he described how children learn languages in ready-made chunks and listed what he believed to be the most frequently used words in English. Prendergast (1864) emphasized that the high frequency words should be taught in ready-made chunks. Unfortunately, his interest for teaching vocabulary did not catch on.

B. Direct Approach

By the end of the nineteenth century Direct Approach or Method emerged as a reaction to the Grammar Translation Approach and its failure to produce learners who could communicate in the foreign language they were studying. This approach stressed the ability to use rather than analyze a language as the goal of language instruction or in other words, the main goal was to train students to communicate in the target language and to have an acceptable pronunciation. The idea behind the Direct Approach was that we learn languages by hearing them spoken and engaging in conversation (Hubbard, Jone, & Thornton 1983). In this approach, the learners are expected to imitate and practice the target language until they become fluent and accurate speakers and, as there is no translation, it is assumed that they will learn to think in the target language.

It is supposed that vocabulary can be acquired naturally through interactions during the lesson; therefore, vocabulary is presented in context and is graded from simple to complex. In this approach, vocabulary is emphasized over grammar (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Concrete words are taught through objects, pictures, physical demonstration, and abstract words are taught by grouping words according to a topic or through association of ideas (Zimmerman, 1997).

The Direct Approach was perceived to have several drawbacks. It required teachers who were native speakers or had native-like fluency in the foreign language. Although it offered innovations at the level of teaching, it lacked a through methodological basis (Sweet, 1899). Brown (1973) describes his frustration in observing a teacher performing verbal gymnastics in an attempt to convey the meaning of Japanese words, when translation would have been a much more efficient technique. Takefuta and Takefuta (1996) in their work on teaching methodologies summarize that before the 1940s, vocabulary teaching had been "taken lightly" under Grammar- Translation Method, or Direct Method.

C. Reading Approach

Following the Coleman Report in 1929, reading became the goal of most foreign language programs in the United States and its popularity lasted until World War II (Richards & Rodgers, 2003). This approach began to function as an alternative to the Direct Approach and was chosen for practical reasons, limited class hours, the qualification of the teachers, and the need of the learners. It was claimed in this approach that reading knowledge could be achieved through the gradual introduction of words and grammatical structures in simple reading texts.

The vocabulary used in the reading passages is controlled at beginning levels and is chosen according to their frequency and usefulness. The acquisition of vocabulary is considered to be more important than grammatical skills and is expanded as fast as possible through intensive and extensive reading. The translation of vocabulary items and sentences are permitted.

The Reading Approach held sway in the United States until the late 1930s and early 1940s (Darian, 1972; West, 1941). When the World War II broke out and made it imperative for the U.S. military force to quickly and efficiently learn foreign languages, the popularity of this approach waned. The deficient vocabulary knowledge gained through the Reading Approach and its lack of emphasis on oral-aural skills gave rise to language learners who could not communicate in the target language (Celce-Murcia, 2001).

D. Audiolingualism (United States)

The Audiolingual Approach which was dominant in the United States during the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s is known to be a major paradigm shift in foreign language teaching (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). The combination of structural linguistics theory (Bloomfield, 1933), contrastive analysis (Fries, 1945), oral-aural procedures, and behaviorist psychology (Skinner, 1957) led to the development of Audiolingual method. The theory of language underlying

Audiolingualism is structural linguistics which its fundamental tenet is that speech is language. This approach adopts the behaviorist view as its theory of learning which claims that learning is a matter of "habit formation" (Decarrico, 2001). The main emphasis in this approach is placed on the grammar of a language which should be overlearned.

The new grammatical points and vocabulary are presented through dialogues. Most of the drills and exercises that follow the dialogues are manipulative and pay no attention to content. In this approach, the major objective of language teaching is to acquire the grammatical and phonological structures of a language; thus, vocabulary learning is kept to a minimum (especially in the initial stages) and new words are introduced and selected according to their simplicity and familiarity to make the grammar practice possible (Zimmerman, 1997). Takefuta and Takefuta (1996) claim that one reason that vocabulary was "restricted" under Audiolingual Approach is that it emphasized the phonological aspects of language learning.

After a long period of widespread popularity, this approach faced criticism on two fronts: (1) its theoretical foundations was questioned and was averred to be unsound in terms of both language theory and learning theory. (2) The learners were unable to transfer skills acquired through Audiolingualism to real communication situations (Richards & Rodgers, 2003). However, vocabulary learning seemed to be fruitful in this method as stated by Coady (1993) it is thought that exposure to language and good language habits leads to an increased vocabulary.

E. Oral-situational Approach (Britain)

This approach was developed by British applied linguists as a reaction to the Reading Approach and its lack of emphasis on oral-aural skills; it enjoyed popularity during the1940s, 1950s, and 1960s. Similarities can be found between the Direct and Situational Approaches but a great deal has been added to it from the works of British functional linguists, especially J.R. Firth, who believed that language form is determined by its context and situation (Celce-Murcia, 2001). The theory of teaching of this approach is characterized as a type of British "Structuralism" and its theory of learning is a type of behaviorist habit-learning theory. In this method all lexical and grammatical items are presented and practiced in situations (e.g. at the supermarket, at the bank, at the post office).

The vocabulary items are chosen according to the situations being practiced. Vocabulary selection procedures are followed to ensure that an essential general service vocabulary is covered (Richards & Rodgers, 2003).

Oral-Situational Approach and Audiolingualism share a great deal of similarities; thus, they confronted the same criticisms and like the Audiolingual Approach the view of language teaching and learning underlying the Oral-Situational Approach were called into question in the mid-1960s .

F. Cognitive Approach

The Cognitive Approach offered relief to the criticisms bombarded to the behaviorist features of the Audiolingual Approach. It was influenced by cognitive psychology (Neisser, 1967) and Chomskyan linguistics (Chomsky, 1959, 1965). According to Chomsky's Generative linguistics, language is represented as a speaker's mental grammar, a set of abstract rules for generating grammatical sentences. The rules generate the syntactic structure and lexical items from appropriate grammatical categories are selected to fill in the corresponding slots in the syntactic frames. In this approach, language learning is viewed as rule-acquisition, not habit-formation. Vocabulary is important, especially at intermediate and advanced levels.

Although no teaching method directly stems from the Cognitive Approach, Gattengo's Silent Way (1976) shares certain principles with it. The principle of Silent Way which states that "teaching is subordinated to learning" is in keeping with the active search for rules ascribed to the learner in the Cognitive Approach. In this method, a distinction is made between several classes of vocabulary items. As cited in Richards and Rodgers (1986), the first class consists of common expressions in the daily life, the second class consists of words used in communicating more specialized ideas such as politics and the last class consists of more functional words of language.

G. Affective-humanistic Approach

This approach which emphasizes respect for the individual (each student, the teacher) and for his or her feelings, emerged as a reaction to the Audiolingualism and Cognitive Approach that lacked the affective consideration (Celce-Murcia, 2001). In this approach, learning a foreign language is viewed as a self-realization process. Much of the instruction involves pair-work and group-work; peer support and interaction are viewed as necessary for learning.

A teaching method which can be illustrative of this approach is Lozanov's Suggestopedia (1978). In this method, the memorization of vocabulary pairs, in which a target word is followed by its native translation, is emphasized. In this method, lexis is emphasized and lexical translation is emphasized more than contextualization and claims about the success of the method often focus on the large number of words that can be acquired (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

Another teaching method which is the result of the influence of Roger's humanistic psychology and like this approach advises teachers to consider their students as "whole persons" is Curran's Community Language Learning (1976). This method is most often used in the teaching of oral proficiency. It does not use a conventional language syllabus which determine in advance the grammar and vocabulary to be taught, but learners nominate the things they wish to talk about. Particular grammar points, pronunciation patterns, and vocabulary are worked with, based on the language the students have generated (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

H. Comprehension-based Approach

Comprehension-Based Approach establishes that listening comprehension is very important and will allow speaking, reading, and writing to develop spontaneously over time, given the right conditions. It is claimed in this approach that there are similarities between the process of first and second language acquisition (Postovsky, 1974, Winitz, 1981). Second language learners, like first language learners, should be exposed to a great deal of authentic language, pass through a pre-production period and during this period they can respond nonverbally in meaningful ways and learn grammar sub-consciously.

Asher's Total Physical Response (1977) is the result of his investigation about the Comprehension-Based Approaches, Developmental and Humanistic Psychology and his own principles of learning theory. In this method, grammatical structure and vocabulary are emphasized over other language areas. It requires initial attention to meaning rather than the form of the items (Larsen-Freeman 2000).

It seems with the shift to generative linguistics in the 1960s, vocabulary in the Cognitive, Affective-Humanistic, and Comprehension-Based Approaches was afforded somewhat more importance, but the focus on rules of grammar was still served to reinforce the idea that lexis was somewhat secondary (Carter & McCarthy, 1988). Bridal (2003) concerning the history of language teaching states that vocabulary instruction has been treated in more or less the same way and it is apparent that direct vocabulary instruction has not been a focus of instruction in L2 classrooms for much of this century and this area has been neglected. However, after the 1970s, as Communicative Approach emerged, vocabulary teaching suddenly became a "hot topic" (Takefuta & Takefuta, 1996).

I. Communicative Approach

The method which has dominated the last several decades of this century is the Communicative Approach which is the result of the works of anthropological linguistics (e.g. Hymes, 1972) and Firthian linguists (e.g. Halliday, 1973) who view language first and foremost as a system for communication. In the 1970's attention was drawn to the importance of communicative competence and knowledge of the rules of language use (Hymes, 1972). This led to a shift away from a focus on accuracy and the forms of language, to a focus on communication and fluency. Although there are different interpretations of communicative language teaching, this approach to L2 interpretations typically focuses on functions of language use and a more authentic use of language in the L2 classroom or better to say instead of focusing on sentence levels forms it centers on discourse level functions.

With its emphasis on fluency over accuracy, and a focus on encouraging learners to communicate their messages and intentions using the linguistic resources available to them, vocabulary has not been a primary concern of this methodology and was given secondary status, taught mainly as a support for functional language use (Decarrico, 2001). As in previous approaches, it was generally assumed that vocabulary would take care of itself; therefore, it is assumed that there is no real need for direct vocabulary instruction (Schmidt, 2000).

III. The Current Status of Vocabulary Teaching

During the last three decades, the outlook on vocabulary has radically changed and researchers have shown outpouring interests towards this area. Therefore, the movement toward effective methodologies for teaching vocabulary has emerged and researchers and language teachers have also suggested many strategies and techniques for vocabulary learning, which are dependent on the efforts of each learner (Cohen & Macaro, 2007; Mizumoto & Takeuchi, 2009).

Two major directions towards vocabulary teaching and learning have been the cause of debate among vocabulary researcher: (1) Explicit instruction which involves diagnosing the words learners need to know, presenting the words for the first time, elaborating word knowledge, and developing fluency with known words; and (2) Incidental learning which is acquiring vocabulary through other communicative skills such as listening, reading, speaking, or writing. Nation (2002) argues for a systematic rather than an incidental approach to the teaching of vocabulary and asserts that such a focus is an essential part of a language course. On the other hand, Hunt and Beglar (2002) recommend the combination of these two approaches and also acknowledge the need for strategy training. They suggest that learners need to be taught strategies for inferring words from contexts as well as those which can help them retain the words they have encountered. Since the onset of learning strategy research three decades ago, there is a consensus in this field that strategy training warrants time and effort both in and out of the classroom (see, among others, Fan, 2003; Macaro, 2001; Takeuchi et al, 2007). There are not yet clear insights from research studies to inform teachers what they should do to best help their learners improve their foreign language vocabulary knowledge.

IV. Conclusions

This paper has tried to demonstrate how vocabulary teaching is viewed in each teaching approach and how a new approach has emerged due to the deficiencies and impracticalities of the previous ones. Vocabulary teaching has not yet reached the level of consistency and systematicity that the teaching of other language skills enjoy such as grammar, although it has recently gained much attention in second language acquisition research. Further studies may help recognize what are the most effective procedures for vocabulary teaching. For the time being, the most plausible approach for a language teacher is to cautiously experiment the kind of activities available in the course-books and to

measure their usefulness in assisting learners in acquiring vocabulary and also to try to involve the learners in their own learning and to make them responsible for their own vocabulary development.

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