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Contents

REGULAR PAPERS

- Finnish Students' Dedication to and Interaction in Communicative Oral Practice in Foreign Language Classroom 1057
Pirjo Harjanne
- Self-esteem, Motivation, and Anxiety of Korean University Students 1069
Lelanie M. Basco and Sang-Ho Han
- The Role of Vocabulary Breadth and Depth in Reading Comprehension: A Quantitative Study of Finnish EFL Learners 1079
Noora Harkio and Päivi Pietilä
- The Impact of Listening Strategies on Improving Learners' Listening Skill in Iran 1089
Behnam Arabi Zanjani and Siros Izadpanah
- Investigating the Iranian EFL Teachers and Learners' Beliefs about Teacher Efficacy 1097
Ahmad Yaghoubi and Mojgan Nosrati Kordkandi
- English-major Pre-service Teachers' Language Learning Strategy Use in terms of Enjoyment of English Learning 1103
Chaoying Zhou and Channarong Intaraprasert
- A Review of Shahriar's Persian Divan Words 1111
Mojtaba Shoaee
- Psychoanalytical Analysis of Gerald's Three Coverts to Perpetrate Violence in D.H. Lawrence's *Women in Love* 1117
Mohammad Hosein Gharib and Ahmad Gholi
- Dickens's Neutral Philosophy of the French Revolution in *A Tale of Two Cities* 1123
Ali Abdullah AL-Zuhairi
- Exploring EFL Learners' Preferences, Perceived Needs, and Perceptions about Language Learning Strategies 1128
Maryam Alsadat Mortazavi and Hamed Barjesteh
- The Application of Projected Visuals in Teaching Collocations to Intermediate EFL Learners 1136
Zohre Asgari Rad and Andisheh Saniei
- Developing Communicative Competence for the Globalized Workplace in *English for Occupational Purposes* Course in China 1142
Qing Xie
-

A Questionnaire and Model of Role Identity for Iranian English Language Teachers: A Structural Equation Modeling <i>Moslem Sadeghi and Rahman Sahragard</i>	1153
The Influence of Phonological and Grammatical Awareness on EFL Students' Reading Performance <i>Aliye Mohammad Jafari and Neda Fatehi Rad</i>	1164
A Study on Teaching Methods of Reading Comprehension Strategies by Comparison between TEM-4 Reading Comprehension and IELTS Academic Reading Comprehension <i>Qian Feng and Liping Chen</i>	1174
An Investigation of the Frequency of Occurrence of Passive Structures in Classical and Modern Persian Literature <i>Ahmad Sabouri Kashani, Marzie Taheri, Elham Fallah, Fatemeh Niknezhad, Saeideh Mansouri, Farzad Mahmoudi, Maryam Bagheri, and Fereshte Rahnavard</i>	1181
The Contribution of Word Webbing to Project-based Learning in Teaching Vocabulary: A Comparative Study in an EFL Context <i>Maryam Reisi and Andisheh Saniei</i>	1190
Construction of Hybrid Identity in Samuel Selvon's <i>The Lonely Londoners</i> and <i>Moses Ascending</i> <i>Tingxuan Liu</i>	1198
Language and Power: The Use of Persuasive Techniques in Iran and U.S. President Speeches <i>Sohrab Rezaei and Niloofar Nourali</i>	1203
Analysis of Language Needs of English Literature Majors: A Non-native Context Study <i>Ali Asghar Poorbehzadi and Mehdi Haseli Songhori</i>	1210
Semantic Map and HBV in English, Chinese and Korean—A Case Study of <i>hand</i> , 手 and 手 <i>Chengyu Nan</i>	1216
Investigating the Role of Experience in Reflective Practice of Iranian Language Teachers <i>Hooshang Khoshshima, Aminollah Shirnejad, Sajjad Farokhipour, and Jaseb Rezaei</i>	1224
From Classmates to Soulmates: Diary of an Educational Reincarnation in Critical Reflection-based Iranian EFL Classroom <i>Alireza Ameri and Fatemeh Mohammad Jafari</i>	1231

Finnish Students' Dedication to and Interaction in Communicative Oral Practice in Foreign Language Classroom

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Abstract—The aim of this study is to gain a deeper understanding of how Finnish-speaking students' communicative oral practice in a foreign language, Swedish¹, is carried out through cooperative scheme-based and elaboration tasks in the language classroom. The specific focus is on the students' dedication and participatory interaction. The study is carried out as a didactically oriented micro-ethnographic case study, in which the teacher acts as a researcher of her own teaching. The data, gathered through tape recordings of the students' oral practice, are analysed through qualitative content analysis methods supplemented with some quantifications. The main research findings are that a good deal of dedication to the oral practice, as well as cooperation, and interactive and self-generated communication in Swedish are realised. Many students' use of L1, Finnish, especially when creating intersubjectivity and in scaffolding, is also evident.

Index Terms—foreign language teaching, oral practice, communicative practice, cooperative task, schema-based task, elaboration task

I. INTRODUCTION

The motivation of this study lies in two aspects. First, communicative language teaching (CLT) has been the official target of foreign language (FL) teaching in Finland since the nationwide core curriculum in 1994, but the implementation of the communicative target in Finnish FL classrooms has been neither widely discussed nor researched. There are, however, some findings (e.g., Alanen, 2000; Harjanne & Tella, 2009; Harjanne, Reunamo & Tella, 2015) that show a call for a change of FL pedagogies from more traditional form-based type of teaching to communicatively oriented ones. Second, teaching of Swedish language as a mandatory school subject in Finnish schools has been a very much discussed language policy issue. It has been claimed that Finnish-speaking students lack motivation to study Swedish and that they learn only little Swedish at school (e.g., Tuokko, 2009). The need for new types of didactical methods seems to be obvious.

The aim of the present study, where the teacher acts as a researcher of her own teaching, is connected to CLT while communicative language proficiency was the goal in teaching and studying the target language. This study focuses on one method of practising a foreign language orally in the classroom: cooperative scheme-based and elaboration tasks designed according to the principles of CLT. Communicative oral practice in this study means instructed textbook-based or applied practice, where the students use Swedish in context-related communication while generating their own language. The specific focus of this study is on participation interaction in communicative oral practice in Swedish in the language classroom.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In the theoretical framework of this study (Figure 1) communicative oral practice is seen as part of FL didactics, a science of the teaching–studying–learning (TSL) process (e.g., Kansanen, 1990; Uljens, 1997). FL didactics comprises the complex FL teaching reality, including not only teaching and learning but also studying as an equal concept (e.g., Harjanne & Tella, 2007). Within this didactic framework, oral practice is linked to students' active and purposeful studying.

¹ Swedish is the second national language in Finland. In this study, it is considered a foreign language from the students' point of view whose mother tongue is Finnish.

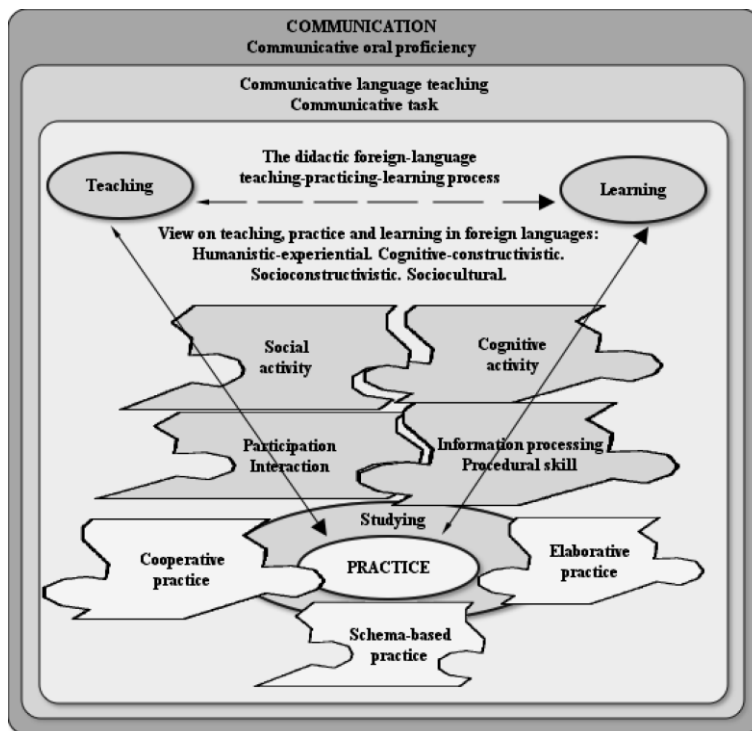


Figure 1. Communicative oral practice through cooperative scheme-based and elaboration tasks within the didactic teaching–studying–learning process (Figure in Finnish, Harjanne, 2006, p. 8).

In this study communicative oral practice is linked to CLT methodology (e.g., Brown, 2001; Ellis, 2003), which represents a student-centred approach to FL teaching in which the student is seen as an interactive participator in communication, the language as context-related communication and FL learning as a social, affective and cognitive process. Communicative oral practice, as CLT, aims at communicative language proficiency, i.e. communicative competence (Common European Framework, CEFR, 2001) or, rather, intercultural communicative competence (e.g., Byram, 2010). The key component of this study is the communicative task, the various definitions of which mostly emphasise pragmatic language use, focus on meaning, communication related to real life communication and a communicative goal (e.g., Ellis, 2003; Skehan, 2003). Both authentic and pedagogical tasks are defined in the CEFR (2001, p. 158) as communicative when “they require learners to comprehend, negotiate and express meaning in order to achieve a communicative goal”.

Communicative oral practice in the present study is implemented through tasks conceptualized within a CLT framework, being cooperative scheme-based and elaboration tasks. Scheme-based tasks (e.g., Bartlett, 1932/1995; Kristiansen, 1992) and elaboration tasks (e.g., Anderson, 1995; Craik & Tulving, 1975) are based on the cognitive-constructivist conception of learning in which FL learning is considered an individual construction of knowledge and skills, requiring thinking, comprehension and much practice. As for oral practice through cooperative tasks (e.g., Johnson & Johnson, 1989; Nunan, 1992), it is based on the humanistic-experiential conception of learning (e.g., Kohonen, 1992; Kolb, 1984) and shares common principles with the socio-constructivist conception of learning (e.g., von Wright, 1992) and the socio-cultural approach to learning (e.g., Lantolf, 2000) as well. In oral practice through cooperative tasks, students have individual and shared responsibility for interactive communication. Hence, in communicative oral practice through cooperative and scheme-based elaboration tasks, FL learning is seen holistically. The socio-cultural view on learning as participation (e.g., Sfard 1998, p. 7) informs the communicative oral practice in this study. Consequently, it is seen that communication in social interaction promotes FL learning and, crucially, it is seen as learning in a fundamental way, as van Lier (2000, p. 246) puts it. Additionally, communication in social interaction is thus seen as an evidence of communicative competence (see Säljö, 2001, p. 114).

III. THE STUDY

A. Research Task

The aim of the present study is to describe, analyse and interpret how Finnish-speaking lower and upper secondary students carry out communicative oral practice in a foreign language, Swedish, in the language classroom. The research task is specified in the following research questions:

1. In what ways do Finnish-speaking students dedicate themselves to communicative oral practice through cooperative scheme-based and elaboration tasks in a foreign language, Swedish?

2. Which interaction strategies do Finnish-speaking students use in communicative oral practice through cooperative scheme-based and elaboration tasks in a foreign language, Swedish?

The answers to research questions were gathered through tape recordings of the students' communicative oral practice in the classroom.

B. Research Design

This study represents a qualitative, didactically oriented, micro-ethnographic case study, including features of explorative practice where the teacher acts as a researcher of her own teaching. The study, conducted in a natural classroom environment, aims to understand and interpret communicative oral practice in line with qualitative research strategy (Bryman, 2001, pp. 278–280; Creswell, 2003, pp. 181–182). The focus is a topical and complex social phenomenon in a natural context, that is, the students' communicative oral practice in Swedish in the language classroom, and on communicative features and patterns of social face-to-face interaction (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993, pp. 8–9; Yin, 2003, pp. 1–19). In line with the nature of a case study, the students' oral practice was observed from different perspectives and described and interpreted systematically and in detail, including direct quotations, which help to form a comprehensive understanding of the practice as a whole (see Syrjälä, 1994, p. 13). Further, in the spirit of exploratory practice (Allwright, 2003), the teacher as a researcher in the present study hoped to gain an in-depth understanding of her students' practice trying to analyse and understand what is occupying her mind in the classroom, that is, communicative oral practice in Swedish, thereby promoting professional development as a teacher.

C. Data Collection

The data were collected from two groups of Finnish-speaking students from a Helsinki-area school: a group of lower secondary students (N=13) and a group of upper secondary students (N=9). The lower secondary students had completed only about 40 lessons of 45 minutes in Swedish. The upper secondary students had studied Swedish for 6 years (primary school and lower secondary school) and for less than one school year (40–50 lessons of 45 minutes) in upper secondary school. The difference in language proficiency between these two students groups is, however, out of the scope of this study.

The students' instructed oral practice in this study was tape-recorded. The tape recordings cover five cooperative scheme-based and elaboration oral tasks on different topics (Table 1). The cooperative tasks were designed following the principles of 'learning together' approach (e.g., Johnson & Johnson, 2002) or jigsaw learning technique (e.g., Aronson et al., 1978) highlighting reciprocal responsibility for participation in communicative oral practice and scaffolding. In the scheme-based tasks the textbook passage was practised as hierarchical communicative wholes and as for the elaboration tasks, they required self-generated elaboration of the language (see Kristiansen, 1998). The text-based practice refers to tasks where the textbook passage was practised as such, while in the applied practice the textbook passage was applied and linked to new communication contexts. The students were made aware of the meaning and the goal of communicative oral practice in a foreign language and they were supervised systematically in study strategies.

TABLE 1.
TASKS USED IN THE STUDY.

<i>School level</i>	<i>Text to be elaborated</i>	<i>Task description</i>	<i>Cooperative technique</i>
Lower secondary	På varuhuset [At the department store]	Text-based scheme-based elaboration of a textbook passage using a role-play task (a shop assistant and a consumer)	'Learning together' approach
	På varuhuset [At the department store]	Applied scheme-based elaboration of a textbook passage using a role-play task (a shop assistant and a consumer)	'Learning together' approach
Upper secondary	De unga i de vuxnas värld [Youth in adults' world]	Applied elaboration of a textbook passage by adding own views and experiences connected to the topic	Jigsaw learning technique
	Hösten [Autumn]	Text-based elaboration of a textbook passage by retelling a story about a young boy's life	Jigsaw learning technique
	Finnarnas och finlandssvenskarnas Fester och traditioner [The Finns' and Finland-Swedes' celebrations and traditions]	Applied elaboration of textbook passages using a role-play task (a Finnish exchange student and a Finland-Swedish exchange student)	'Learning together' approach

The tape-recorded data were transcribed and the most noticeable mispronunciations were marked. The students were coded to allow anonymity. The extra data include study course plans, lesson plans, study instructions and video recordings of the lessons.

D. Data Analysis

The data were systematically observed and analysed in the spirit of empirical induction (see Grönfors, 1982, p. 31) and linking the analysis to the theoretical framework of the study (see Eskola & Suoranta, 2000, p. 186). The transcribed tape recordings were primarily analysed through qualitative content analysis methods and supplemented with some quantifications (e.g., Tuomi & Sarajarvi, 2002). The focus of the analysis was on the content and typical participatory features of the students' communication (see Tesch, 1990, pp. 60–61). The students' communicative oral practice was not categorised beforehand, but was considered context-related including the complex interaction in the

classroom (e.g., van Lier 1988, pp. 13–14, p. 24). The analysis was thus open to unexpected findings as well. Categories linked to each research question were created from the data, and they were connected to the communication context and supported with direct quotations from the students' speech. The long-term analysis process covering a span of a couple of years went on as a recursive and evolving cycle between data collection, modification of the research questions, data categorisation and interpretation. (See Bryman, 2001, p. 180, pp. 264–291, p. 381; Creswell, 2003, p. 14, pp. 181–182.) The data analysis was implemented in three stages, from reduction through clustering to abstraction, as described by Miles and Huberman (1994). At the third stage of abstraction, the interpretation included the idea of 'what were the lessons learned', as presented by Lincoln and Guba (1985).

IV. FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS

The research findings and their interpretations are discussed below according to the corresponding research question. In the oral practice the students used the target language Swedish [Swe] and also their mother tongue Finnish [Fi], both translated into English in the student quotations below.

A. *Dedication to Communicative Oral Practice in Swedish*

The Finnish-speaking students' dedication to communicative oral practice in Swedish through cooperative scheme-based and elaboration tasks manifested itself strongly in three main categories: (i) negotiation of task performance, (ii) negotiation of task topic, and (iii) fun. Here, negotiation of task performance is seen as linked to the students' dedication to communicative oral practice, although because of its role in steering the interaction process, it could also be seen to represent interaction strategies (see CEFR, 2001, p. 84). As for fun, it is interpreted as the students' dedication to practice, when the task contents or an episode in the practice they generate provides them genuine amusement and they have a good time as in real-life communication.

Negotiation of task performance. Negotiation of task performance was found in all five tasks, in a total of 110 lines (*us*² 72, *ls*³ 38), and in almost every cooperative pair's practice (27/31). The frequency varied, however, between the different pairs. Negotiation of task performance focused on five dimensions: the task itself (46/110), how to start the task (12/110), how to continue the task (25/110), how to steer back the communication to the task (10/110) and how to finish the task (17/110). Negotiation of task performance focused, thus, mainly on the task itself. The students checked that they had understood how the task should be performed and cleared up any confusion. They confirmed what they were expected to say and clarified whether performance of the task was sufficient.

(*us* 14 I B1+2 FF)

TEACHER (*in the background*): en minut kvar [Swe] / [one minute left]

L-- vi måste också lite mera smalltalk [Swe] / [we must also little more small talk]

J ja [Swe] / [yes]

L det finns - det blåser idag [Swe] / [there is - it is blowing today]

J ja det är ganska kallt också [Swe] / [yes, it is rather cold too]

(*ls* 27 Ib Vs)

TEACHER (*in the background*): en minut--- sen slutar vi [Swe] / [one minute--- then we'll finish]

E (*laughing*) ---- otetaan tää vielä kerran --- [Fi] / [let's practise this once again]

M otetaan toistepäin [Fi] / [let's change the roles]

E ei - här i mitten se on hyvä ... [Fi-Swe-Fi] / [no - here in the middle it is good...]

joo tää on ihan hyvä okeij hyvä alotetaan [Fi] / [yeah this is quite good OK good let's start]

M määhä haluan olla tuo (*unclear*) [Fi] / [I want to be that one (*unclear*)]

E ei [Fi] / [no]

M miksei [Fi] / [why not]

E no okeij [Fi] / [well OK]

Negotiation focusing on starting the task was often linked to the students' roles in the task or to simulating communication outside the classroom. Negotiation of task performance also focused on how to carry on the task, which happened more often in the lower secondary students' practice than among the upper secondary students. It is interesting that negotiation of the task performance focused least on steering back the communication to the task. The students' negotiations focused on finishing the task too, which, interestingly enough, happened more often in the upper secondary students' practice than among lower secondary students. The analysis showed surprisingly that first, communication not relating to the task was minimal and, second, that the students used the whole practice time, without exception. The students did not stop practising until the teacher said it was time to stop, and they often continued practising even after that. The students seemed, thus, to get involved in the communicative oral practice in earnest and feel responsible for its success in the spirit of cooperative learning principles.

The students' broad and diverse negotiations of task performance in this study are in line with the research findings of Platt and Brooks (1994), for instance. The students' negotiations included two crucial features highlighted in the

² *us* stands for upper secondary education (grades 10–12)

³ *ls* stands for lower secondary education (grades 7–9)

sociocultural approach: intersubjectivity and scaffolding (e.g., Roebuck, 2000; Wells, 1999). Intersubjectivity manifested itself in a variety of ways. The students tried to achieve a mutual orientation of the task and a joint understanding of its objectives and desired performance, and they steered joint participation to meet the objectives of the task. According to Antón and DiCamilla (1999), this kind of intersubjectivity in communication makes scaffolding possible, a finding in this study too. While communicating, the students gave help and feedback to their interlocutors at appropriate times, and scaffolding (Wood, Bruner & Ross, 1976) came thus true. Negotiation of task performance can be seen to reflect the students' interest in performing the task and consequently is interpreted in this study as dedication to oral practice. When negotiating, the students encouraged their interlocutors to perform the task and controlled their performance – hence, they took on the role that traditionally has belonged to the teacher.

Negotiation of task topic. Negotiation of task topic was not at all as common and diverse as negotiation of task performance. The data included a total of 60 lines in which the students negotiated task topic, all of which occurred in the upper secondary students' practice. The students posed amplifying questions about the topic several times (12/60), reflected on the task topic only a few times (5/60), and only once (1/60) asked their interlocutor's personal opinion about the topic. The upper secondary students mostly linked the topic to their own milieu (22/60) and added their own opinions to the topic (20/60).

(us 6 IIABC R)

H jag tror att öh – ungdomar vill få mera [Swe] / [I think that h'm – young people want to have more]

A+M ja [Swe] / [yes]

H ansvar [Swe] / [responsibility]

A ja de vill bli mera självständiga och fri/a(?) [Swe] / [yes they want to become more independent]

M ja – – [Swe] / [yes]

H jag tror att det är ganska bra [Swe] / [I think that it's quite good]

A det är mycket bra tycker jag [Swe] / [it's very good I think]

M ja [Swe] / [yes]

Naturally, negotiation of task topic was closely connected to the task type. A communicative task should be related to real life and be meaningful for the students. The upper secondary students' tasks that inspired the most negotiation of the topic were a discussion about the relationships between youth and adults (*De unga i de vuxnas värld*) and a role-play about Finns' and Finland-Swedes' celebrations and traditions (*Finnarnas och finlandssvenskarnas fester och traditioner*). The task *Hösten* [Autumn], in which students elaborated on a story by retelling it, did not motivate them to negotiate the topic.

Negotiation of task topic is an example of interactive communication and can be interpreted as an evidence of interest in the topic. Discussion unrelated to the task can instead be interpreted as lack of interest in the task, but such conversation was very uncommon in the data. It should be noted that it was difficult to interpret unambiguously which speech was unrelated to the task, because it was seen in this study, in line with the objectives and principles of communicative oral practice, that discussion in a FL classroom includes deviations from the topic just as discussion outside the classroom.

The lower secondary students did not negotiate the task topic at all in the way the upper secondary students did. Their scheme-based role-play tasks guided strictly their dialogue and did not seem to motivate them to negotiate the topic. It is also important to note that they were very beginners in studying Swedish and their command of Swedish was thus very low. Instead of negotiating the topic, they expressed their interest in it, for instance, with an excited tone of voice and by actively elaborating on the topic with their own stories.

Fun. The third very evident manifestation of the students' dedication to communicative oral practice was fun that is, playing with words, enjoying themselves or having a good time with the task, verbally or otherwise. Fun was identified in 108 lines (us 85, ls 23). Verbally expressed fun was more evident in the upper secondary students' oral practice. The lower secondary students' fun did not explicitly manifest itself as words, presumably due to their lower proficiency in Swedish, but rather in the way they fully engaged with their roles and expressed their lines. The students' fun was focused on the task topic (61/108) or the communication context of the tasks (24/108) generated by themselves and the Swedish language (23/108). Fun focusing on the task topic was thus most common. In the role-play on the Finns' and Finland-Swedes' celebrations and traditions, the upper secondary students enjoyed themselves, for instance, by overplaying the Finns' and Finland-Swedes' stereotypical characteristics and habits.

(us 15 II B2+4 FF)

L hej -- spelar du handboll [Swe] / [hey -- do you play handball]

A ja - det är en mycket fin sport [Swe] / [yeah - it's a very fine sport]

L ja - jag spelar handboll i en segelbåt [Swe] / [yeah - I play handball in a sailing boat]

A (laughing) ja – [Swe] / (laughing) [yes]

L+A ja -- jag seglar också... [Swe] / [yes -- I sail as well...]

A jag seglar världen runt... [Swe] / [I sail round the world...]

L just som Hjallis Harkimo... [Swe] / [just as Hjallis Harkimo...]

A och alltid havsintressekläder [Swe] / [and always sea hobby clothes]

...seglingjacka och seglingbyxor och [Swe] / [...sailing coat and sailing trousers and]

L ja, och seglinghatt och ja ... [Swe] / [*yes, and sailing hat and yeah...*]

A ... och min väska är som segelbåt [Swe] / [*...and my bag is like a sailing boat*]

...och vi har ankora i öronen... [Swe] / [*...and we have anchors in the ears...*]

L ja, och jag har en fisk i fickan... (*laughing together*) [Swe] / [*yes, and I have a fish in the pocket...*] (*laughing together*)

As for the lower secondary students, they had a good time when shopping for clothes, for instance, making fun of the size, model, colour and price of the clothes, and when trying on the clothes.

(*ls 32 IVb Vs*)

S det är snygg kan jag prova dem [Swe] / [*it is cool may I try them on*]

B ja provrummet är därborta i fönstret [Swe] / [*yes the fitting-room is there in the window*]

The students also enjoyed the communication context of the tasks, for instance, by cheerfully overacting. Further, they had a great time with the Swedish language (23/108) by playing with it and making light of their own linguistic problems. All in all, the students were relaxed and had fun with many aspects of the tasks. The fun in the students' oral practice in Swedish was unexpected, but positive and surprisingly varied.

In summary, the students' dedication to the communicative oral practice, by negotiating the task performance and the topic and by having fun, shows that interactive communication and cooperation were realised in their oral practice. The students worked in a target-oriented and responsible way and encouraged their interlocutors to carry on practicing and communicating in the spirit of the principles of cooperative learning. However, a common feature in the students' oral practice in Swedish was that they used their mother tongue Finnish as well. This was either a compensation strategy or an avoidance strategy (CEFR, 2001), but it can also be interpreted as the students' attempts at clear and economic expression (see Poulisse, 1997). At the same time, use of the Finnish language can be seen as the students' way of orientating themselves with the task and creating intersubjectivity, a view which is supported by socio-cultural research (e.g., Antón & DiCamilla 1999).

B. Interaction Strategies Used in Communicative Oral Practice in Swedish

Interaction is the core of dialogic oral communication and consequently, the core of communicative oral practice. Interaction strategies are seen in this study in line with CEFR (2001, pp. 84–85) to belong to communication strategies and to refer to students' receptive and productive strategies and strategies used in the management of the interaction process and construction of joint discourse. The main interaction strategies used by the Finnish-speaking students in oral practice in Swedish were (i) collective creation of discussion and (ii) asking for and giving linguistic help.

Collective creation of discussion. Collective creation of discussion refers to participatory talk. The students created discussion collectively mainly by echoing their interlocutor's speech or filling in if the interlocutor did not know how to formulate her/his thoughts. Collective creation of discussion was substantially richer in the upper secondary students' practice than in the lower secondary students' practice. When echoing their interlocutor's speech, the upper secondary students gave feedback by telling, for instance, their opinion of what they had heard, expressing that they had understood their interlocutor or encouraging her/him to continue talking. They typically echoed their interlocutor's speech with paralinguistic expressions according to Swedish pragmatics, which is much more abundant in Swedish than in Finnish. However, the use of the paralinguistic expressions was not always idiomatic, and the lexical variation was quite limited. The upper secondary students echoed the interlocutor's speech by being interactive listeners, which meant that they showed interest in their interlocutor's speech and reacted to it actively and richly, for instance, by speaking at the same time and interrupting each other, laughing and using various exclamations. Intercepting each other's speech was in most cases a display of excitement at the discussion theme, in some cases a display of disagreement.

(*us 6 IIABC R*)

A de är – men vi kan också öh tänka oss lite vad som de föräldrarna tänkar så... [Swe] / [*they are – but we can also hm think little what the parents think so...*]

M ja [Swe] / [*yes*]

A vi förstår bättre dem dom [Swe] / [*we understand better them them*]

M ja – (*a sigh*) jag tycker att [Swe] / [*yes – (a sigh) I think that*]

H jag tror... [Swe] / [*I think...*]

M ja [Swe] / [*yes*]

H att de måste också komma ihåg att vi har nya problem [Swe] / [*that they have to remember that we have new problems*]

M ja [Swe] / [*yes*]

A jo [Swe] / [*yes*]

M just [Swe] / [*just*]

H dom har inte sådana problem än vi har nu [Swe] / [*they have not such problems than we have now*]

A jo [Swe] / [*yes*]

M ja [Swe] / [*yes*]

H och vi har ...[Swe] / [*and we have...*]

M kanske [Swe] / [*maybe*]

H kanske inte sådana problem än dom hade [Swe] / [*maybe not such problems than they had*]

A och jag tycker att de skulle bekanta sig med de nya problem [Swe] / [and I think that they should get acquainted with the new problems]

M ja [Swe] / [yes]

A så de kan hjälpa och förstå... [Swe] / [so they can help and understand...]

M jo [Swe] / [yes]

A olika saker [Swe] / [different things]

M ja [Swe] / [yes]

The lower secondary students echoed their interlocutor's speech by showing enthusiasm or hesitation, typically through minimal paralinguistic expressions. It is important to note that they echoed their interlocutor's speech more than the scheme instructed only in the applied scheme-based practice and not at all in the text-based scheme-based practice. The applied practice encouraged students to engage with their role.

The upper and lower secondary students created discussions collectively and kept the discussions alive also by filling in their interlocutor's speech if she/he did not know how to formulate her/his thoughts.

(us 19 III A4+B4 FF)

A ...och vi väljer en lucia [Swe] / [...and we elect a Lucia]

S jo [Swe] / [yes]

A som är finlandssvensk flicka [Swe] / [who is Finnish-Swedish girl]

S har har [Swe] / [has has]

A har lång hår [Swe] / [has long hair]

S hår jo [Swe] / [hair yes]

(ls 27 Ib Vs)

M hej du - [Swe] / [hey you -]

E glömde [Swe] / [forgot]

M glömde din paraply [Swe] / [forgot your umbrella]

E jasså tack så mycket - hejdå [Swe] / [oh well thanks a lot - bye]

The students, especially the upper secondary students, seemed thus create collectively further discussion (e.g., Antón & DiCamilla, 1999), which bears features of scaffolding (Wood, Bruner & Ross, 1976) or collaborative dialogue (Swain, 2000). Cooperation and the principles of dynamic, dialogic speech (e.g., Säljö, 2000) were realised in their communication. It was found that interactive listening and creating speech collectively compelled the discussion to continue.

Asking for and giving linguistic help. Asking for and giving linguistic help occurred in 242 lines centring on the upper secondary students' practice (us 204, ls 38) and focussing on vocabulary (213/242). Many students' command of vocabulary understandably was quite limited in the practice phase, leading to misunderstandings and negotiations of meaning. The students asked for lexical help indirectly, by interrupting a sentence, code switching or hesitating, and directly using Swedish or Finnish. The interlocutors reacted more often to a direct request for help than to an indirect request. There were many episodes when the speaker then used the given word in her/his own speech, paralleling pushed output (Swain, 1985). However, it also happened quite often that the speaker just listened to the given word but did not use it in her/his own speech. The students also corrected themselves by reformulating their own expressions.

(us 15 II B2+4 FF)

A ja, jag hade hals-- [Swe] / [yes, I have throat--]

L ont i halsen [Swe] / [sore throat]

A ja ont i halsen... [Swe] / [yes sore throat]

(us 10 IIb ABC H)

P ...han bara sa vad han vill och slutade - vad [Swe] mikä se on keskustelu [Fi] / [...he only said what he wants and finished - what it is keskustelu]

N diskutera [Swe] / [discuss]

P nå (a laugh) vad just (a laugh) och... [Swe] / [well (a laugh) what just (a laugh) and...]

(ls 28 IIa Vs)

B ja öh (unclear) miten se meni [Fi] / [and hm (unclear) what should I say]

A betalar du [Swe] / [do you pay]

B betalar du kort med kort eller kontant [Swe] / [do you pay credit card with credit card or in cash]

(ls 24 IIIa Vts)

L det blir två-- [Swe] / [it costs two--]

M två hundra sjuttio kronor [Swe] / [two hundred seventy kronor]

L älä, mä oli justin sanomassa [Fi]...två hundra sjuttio kronor [Swe] / [don't, I was just about to say two hundred seventy crowns]

One way to give lexical help was negotiation of meaning (see Long, 1996). The tasks used in this study represent task features that are found to promote negotiation of meaning (see Ellis, 2003): cooperative group work, information exchange needed or required, detailed information, a cognitively demanding task, repetition of the task, and a familiar theme and interlocutor. The upper secondary students checked that their interlocutor had understood what was said.

They did this, however, only rarely in an authentic way in Swedish, but translated what they had said directly into Finnish. Sometimes, an interlocutor also made sure that she/he had understood or requested clarification; such cases of negotiation of meaning can also be seen as listener-oriented discourse strategies (see Ellis, 2003). The listener usually requested clarification in Swedish, but the speaker reacted nearly every time in Finnish. It could cautiously be assumed, in accordance with many researchers (e.g., Long 1996), that negotiation of meaning related to communication gaps promoted language learning as well.

(us 18 II A1+3 FF)

H nå ja visst är vi ytlig [Swe] det är pinnallinen [Fi] / [well yes all right we are shallow – it is pinnallinen]

(us 18 II A1+3 FF)

H bal - är det [Swe] tanssiaisiet [Fi] / [ball - is it tanssiaisiet]

P jo [Swe] / [yes]

(us 17 I A3+4 FF)

P och struvor och... [Swe] / [and May-day fritters and...]

S hm ... [Swe] / [hm...]

P vet du [Swe] / [do you know]

S jag vet inte vad struvor är [Swe] / [I don't know what May-day fritter is]

P... struvor är [Swe] tippaleipä [Fi] / [...May-day fritter is tippaleipä]

(us 14 I B1+2 FF)

L är vi högljudda [Swe] / [we are loud]

J vad är det [Swe] / [what is it]

L kovaäänisiä [Fi] / [kovaäänisiä]

(us 19 III A4+B4 FF)

A viktigt det är mycket viktigt för oss och vi går till julotta [Swe] / [important it is very important to us and we go to julotta]

S vad är julotta [Swe] / [what is julotta]

A det är vi går till kyrkan på den tjugofemte december... det är mycket tidigt på morgonen det är sex sju [Swe] / [it is we go to church the twenty fifth December... it is very early in the morning it is six seven]

Asking for and giving lexical help in this study has features that can be related to scaffolding (Wood, Bruner & Ross, 1976). The students seemed to be quite aware of when their interlocutor wanted help with vocabulary (e.g., Ohta, 2000). The scaffolding seemed most beneficial when the students gave help with lexical problems their interlocutor noticed herself/himself (see Ohta, 2000). As in earlier research (e.g., Donato, 1994; Wells, 1999), it was found in this study that scaffolding does not necessarily require any 'real' expert, as it is possible in interaction with peers as well. 'Expertise' is thus a flexible concept. Donato's (1994, p. 46) statement that foreign language speakers can, at the same time, be individually novices and communally experts, came more or less true in this study too. However, this study showed, as many other studies have (e.g., Swain & Lapkin, 1998), that peer scaffolding was not always adequate or systematic and that there were many situations where a 'real' expert was needed, especially concerning problems with accuracy and pronunciation. The students also used their first language, Finnish, while scaffolding, which is in line with many research findings (e.g., Antón & DiCamilla, 1999). It should, however, be noted that according to the sociocultural view, the first language can mediate foreign language learning. Asking for and giving lexical help led to increased awareness of vocabulary (*noticing hypothesis*, Schmidt, 1990) and more comprehensible speech (*pushed output*, Swain, 1985) and crucially, helped the communication to continue. From the Finnish-speaking students' willingness to ask for and give lexical help in oral practice in Swedish, it can be understood that they found the classroom safe (see Swain, 2000, p.100).

The students seemed more focused on meaning than on form in their communication. Asking for and giving help with grammar and pronunciation happened rarely: grammar 15/242, pronunciation 14/242. The students had no real need to pay attention to problems in grammar and pronunciation, because they experienced no communication breaks thanks to their common mother tongue.

In summary, the interaction strategies that the Finnish-speaking students used, i.e. collective creation of discussion and asking for and giving lexical help, show that an important amount of participatory interaction and cooperation was realised in their oral practice in Swedish through cooperative scheme-based and elaboration tasks. In many respects, the students co-constructed speech in Swedish oral practice in the language classroom just as they might do in real-life communication.

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The aim of this study was to get in-depth understanding of Finnish-speaking students' communicative oral practice in a foreign language, Swedish, through cooperative scheme-based and elaboration tasks in a FL classroom focusing on the students' dedication and participatory interaction. The goal of the communicative oral practice was to make speaking a foreign language natural in the classroom, transforming the classroom, at the same time, into an encouraging and constructive practice environment. The research findings indicate that dedication to the communicative oral practice manifested itself considerably in negotiation of task performance and negotiation of task topic and fun. Further,

clear evidence of participatory interaction as collective creation of discussion and asking for and giving lexical help was found. It is noteworthy that the students fully devoted themselves to speaking Swedish with unexpected frequency and had some genuine fun, too, when practising Swedish orally. In addition, there was very little discussion, if any, that did not relate directly to the task and they made the most of the whole practice time. In light of these findings, the CLT principles of meaningful tasks, students as active participants in interactive communication and self-generated communication were considerably realised through cooperative scheme-based and elaboration tasks in this study, which is not always the case in Finnish FL classrooms, as for example, Nikula's (2007) research shows.

There were two more findings important to note and reflect upon: the use of the mother tongue Finnish and the substantial quantitative and qualitative variation in the cooperative groups' communication. The students mostly used Finnish when orientating themselves with the task, as well as when creating intersubjectivity in linguistic problems and in scaffolding. Still, this is in accordance with socio-cultural research findings, which claim that using one's mother tongue is an inevitable part of the foreign language practice and learning process (e.g., Donato, 2000). Another baffling finding was the large variation in the cooperative pairs' communication. The lower and upper secondary students' participation in interactive communication apparently depended on the interlocutors and the task, a finding that, while not surprising, is pedagogically challenging and needs to be reflected upon further.

Research findings are always context-related and in this study the communicative oral practice was naturally influenced by many socio-culturally context-related factors linked to the classroom, students and tasks. For instance, the systematic discussion about the goal of communicative oral practice and the systematic supervision in study strategies probably contributed to the students' communicative and participatory levels in oral practice. Further, the oral practice was naturally influenced by the difference in the students' language proficiency. The upper secondary students' pragmatic competences were substantially better due to their much more courses in Swedish. As for the influence of the tasks, the upper secondary students' tasks represented cooperative elaboration tasks that enabled relatively free discussion, whereas in the lower secondary students' cooperative elaboration tasks, the discussion was guided by a scheme. In addition, in the text-based practice the discussion was guided by the text, whereas in applied practice more free discussion, for instance, linking the topic to one's own milieu and adding one's own opinion to the topic were the goal.

How trustworthy these research findings are can be discussed from many perspectives. Here I focus on credibility, which is one criterion of trustworthiness (see Lincoln & Guba, 1985, pp. 294–301) and is connected with all stages of the research process (see Creswell, 2003, p. 196; LeCompte & Preissle, 1993, p. 342). In this study, the main data were collected tape-recording the students' oral practice in Swedish in a natural classroom context. An audio-visually recorded oral practice would naturally give a broader and richer picture, but the videotaped data was rejected, because, for instance, extra-linguistic features fell outside the scope of this study. Instead, the tape-recorded data were transcribed literally, which proved to be adequate to show how the oral practice progressed. However, there are concerns with the credibility of the data collection in this study as well. Referring to Creswell's (1998, p. 197) observer effect, one could, for instance, question whether the tape-recorded oral practice is similar to practice in the classroom without tape-recording. The students in this study were, however, accustomed to being tape-recorded and videotaped in Swedish lessons. Another problem with credibility could be that the students tried to be better than they actually were or that they wanted to please the teacher by practising in a way that they thought would meet the teacher's expectations (e.g., LeCompte & Preissle, 1993, p. 344). However, neither the students nor the teacher as a researcher knew in advance which tape-recorded lessons would constitute the actual research data. Moreover, to be a teacher as a researcher and to know well the research object enabled a kind of triangulation in the data collection in addition to the tape recordings of the oral practice. This kind of triangulation offered a broad perspective of the reality under investigation and is seen as a vital way to increase credibility (e.g., Creswell, 1998, p. 202, p. 213).

According to qualitative content analysis methods, the credibility of the data analysis was confirmed by categorising the transcribed tape-recorded data a few times within the span of a couple of years; in spite of this time span, the categories did not change substantially. Furthermore, the quotations linked to the categories also help the reader to judge the credibility of the categorisation. Admittedly, the credibility of the categorisation could have been tested using several classifiers, but the analysis currently utilised is one theoretically justified and valid means of describing and analysing the data (see Eskola & Suoranta, 2000, p. 214). In this study, the teacher as a researcher had rich contextual knowledge and experience of oral practice and could interpret the findings on the basis of her long-term interaction with the students, which is bound to endorse the credibility of the research results (e.g., Creswell, 1998, pp. 196–201). In order to judge the credibility of research results through their ability to coincide with complex social realities (e.g., Bryman, 2001, p. 272), the long-term interaction with the students enabled an on-going analysis process, which increased the credibility of the correspondence of the research results to the participants' realities (see LeCompte & Preissle, 1993, p. 342). In addition, the credibility of the results is confirmed by findings that represent different facets of real oral practice in the classroom (see Creswell, 2003, p. 196): negative findings (e.g., lack of asking for and giving help with pronunciation), contradictory findings (e.g., use of mother tongue) and surprising findings (e.g., students having fun when carrying out various communicative tasks). The research findings show thus that *the teacher as a researcher* found something novel that the teacher *per se* had not seen in her classroom.

One of the ethical issues of a study is to secure the anonymity of the investigated subjects. In the present study the students are referred to by codes. In addition, use of the data is authorised by the students participating in this study.

In line with many qualitative research designs, this study is not transferable, since unique *in situ* situations cannot be reconstructed (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993, pp. 331–332). Nevertheless, the transparent reporting of all stages and factors linked to the research context, data collection, analysis and interpretation, following Geertz's (1973) idea of thick description, enables the reader to assess the credibility and the transferability of the present study (e.g., Lincoln & Guba 1985, 316; Bryman, 2001, p. 472). While these research results cannot be generalised, this study can be seen as one model of communicative oral practice in FL and the way it can be researched.

The main claim of this study is that lower and upper secondary students can—and should—be encouraged to speak in a foreign language in the language classroom. This study invites language teachers and learners alike to pay closer attention to the role of communicative oral tasks in the FL classroom as a means to encourage students to speak in the target language. It may raise many pedagogical questions too, such as the role of a teacher's instructions in and justification of practising study strategies and the language tasks used. The research findings and the pedagogic points raised in this article can be utilised by pre-service and in-service teacher educators and language textbook writers, as well as more generally by curriculum authors, when developing communicative language teaching.

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Self-esteem, Motivation, and Anxiety of Korean University Students

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Abstract—The purpose of this study was to examine the level of self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety of university English learners and their differences according to gender, year, English proficiency level, and KSAT level. This study further aimed to determine the correlation between self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety of the learners. The respondents of this study were 255 randomly selected college students enrolled in English classes from a local university. A survey questionnaire consisting of 43 items was administered to the students. The Mean was used to determine the level of students' self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety, followed by t-test, ANOVA, and Pearson's *r* analysis. The results showed that the students at the current school had a moderate level of self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety. Significant differences were found in the students' level of self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety when they were grouped according to gender and English proficiency level. The males had higher level of self-esteem and motivation and lower level of anxiety when compared with the females. No significant difference existed when the students were grouped according to year. There was a positive correlation between self-esteem and motivation, with high levels of self-esteem associated with high levels of motivation. On the other hand, there was a strong, negative correlation between self-esteem and anxiety with high levels of self-esteem associated with low levels of anxiety. Furthermore, there was a moderate, negative correlation between motivation and anxiety, with high levels of motivation associated with low levels of anxiety.

Index Terms—self-esteem, motivation, anxiety, university students

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning a second language is not that easy and entails a lot of considerations. Many studies would often focus on the cognitive aspect of language learning and tend to give less attention to the affective aspect. Krashen (1982) in his Affective Filter Hypothesis states that the affective variables effect the acquisition of second language but not learning itself. In other words, affective variables such as motivation, self-confidence and anxiety play a facilitative role in second language acquisition.

According to Arnold (1999) giving consideration to affective aspects leads to more effective language learning. Thus, the language learners' affective side can be dealt with by giving attention on how to overcome problems created by negative emotions such as anxiety or depression and by generating positive and facilitative emotions such as self-esteem and motivation.

There are three popular areas of the affective dimension of the learner that have a great influence in language learning which are often included in many researches: self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety. Hashemian (2012) states that defining self-esteem is looking at how people value themselves, how they are considering their value to the world, and how valuable they think they are to others. He further opines that positive self-esteem enables people to be more responsible of their lives while having low self-esteem gives people negative view of life making them fearful in whatever they intend to do.

Motivation according to Brown (1994) is "an inner drive, impulse, emotion or desire that moves people to a particular action." Dornyei and Otto (1998 in Nikoopour, J., Salimian, S., Salimian, S, and Farsani, M. (2012) further expound motivation as a compelling stimulation in a person that initiates and evaluates the processes of the cognitive and motor mechanisms whereby chosen desires are implemented and acted out.

Anxiety as defined in Merriam-Webster Learner's Dictionary is "a fear or nervousness about what might happen." Ando (1999, in Jang, 2004) explains that language anxiety is a subjective feeling resulting into the language learner's fear, apprehension, or nervousness which is associated with the anticipation of negative events that may happen while learning the language.

This study aims to examine Korean university students' general level of self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety as well as the significant differences according to gender, year, English proficiency level, and KSAT level and correlations between self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety. Specific purposes of the study are as follows:

1. What is the level of Korean university students' self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety?

2. How is the university students' self-esteem different in terms of gender, year, level of English proficiency, and KSAT level?
3. How is the university students' motivation toward learning English different in terms of gender, year, level of English proficiency, and KSAT level?
4. How is the university students' English communication anxiety different in terms of gender, year, level of English proficiency, and KSAT level?
5. What is the correlation between the students' self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety?

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

There are three main topics presented in this study: self-esteem, motivation in language learning, and foreign language anxiety.

A. *Self-esteem*

In her article, Veronica de Andres (in Arnold, 1999) cited Stanley Coopersmith's definition of self-esteem as "the evaluation to which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself; expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval, and indicates the extent to which an individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful and worthy." She further explained that self-esteem is an individual's judgement and understanding of his or her worthiness that is revealed in the attitudes and reactions that he or she holds towards himself or herself.

Owens (2001) presented Rosenberg's definition of self-esteem as the subjective component of an individual's life which manifests in his or her thoughts, feelings, and behavior towards given situations or course of actions. Martos (2006) is of opinion that in understanding the concept of self-esteem, it should be noted that what the person feels about himself or herself composes the larger part of his feelings.

Alexander (2001, cited in Hashemian, 2012), believes that self-esteem is a condition that contributes to a person's capacity to cope with the stresses of life and be productive. It is however important for an individual to appreciate himself unconditionally. Thus, accepting both his positive and negative capabilities enables him to be more responsible for himself and be accountable for whatever endeavor he would try to achieve.

Furthermore, Demo and Parker (1987 in Kalanzadeh, Mahnegar, and Hassannejad, 2013) opine that in language teaching both self-esteem and language learning are complementing and affecting each other. It means that a positive self-esteem can result to an effective language learning. In effect, Kalanzadeh, et al. (2013) suggest that foreign language teachers should take into consideration the academic self-esteem of the students as a powerful motivating factor that can optimize the process of learning the language especially second language. They further suggested that one important goal of language teaching should be to increase the students' self-esteem as it is an important contributing factor in the students' learning of a language.

Moreover, Raffini (1996, in Dornyei, 2005) believes that students who have high self-esteem have a greater chance to be successful in learning because they know exactly what they want to learn and how they can do it. Hashemian (2012) is of the same conclusion as the result of his study revealed a strong positive relationship between second language learners' self-esteem and their proficiency level. Specifically stated, when the proficiency level of second language learners are high, their degree of self-esteem is also high. Schmidt (1996, in Yokochi, 2003) also expresses similar opinion that high expectation of success leads learners to be more involved and participative in whatever undertakings they are into and would not easily give up no matter how difficult the task is in comparison with the learners with low self-esteem.

Lastly, Kazumata (1999) states that people with a positive self-esteem are not seriously affected whenever they are misunderstood or when they receive negative feedback from others while people with low self-esteem are afraid of committing mistakes and receiving negative feedback which hinder their acquisition of new knowledge or skill. More researches further revealed that the students' self-esteem influences their oral performance in the form of spoken English (Kalanzadeh, et al., 2013); there is a significant relationship between self-esteem and speaking skill with fluency exerting the most influence (Koosha, Ketabi, and Kassaian, 2011); and study on the relationship between self-esteem and achievement in second language acquisition revealed students' listening comprehension was significantly influenced by their self-esteem, with the conclusion that learners with higher level of self-esteem had higher level of listening comprehension while students with low self-esteem had lower listening comprehension (Hayati and Ostadian, 2008).

B. *Motivation in Language Learning*

Motivation, according to Ortega (2009) is most often perceived by many researchers to refer to the learner's drive in learning a second language and sustaining such effort to achieve the goal of learning. Such idea is a result of observations that some learners are highly motivated and some are less or are not motivated at all. Saville-Troike (2012) added that motivation has a big influence in the level of effort the learner would exert in the pursuit of learning a second language.

Gardner (1985) in his social-educational model of language learning explains that motivation is the combination of three actors: the learner's effort to learn; the learner's eagerness to accomplish the process of language learning; and the

learner's positive attitudes in relation to learning the target language. He further reiterates that learners who are motivated have positive regard to the language they are learning or wanted to learn, thus they firmly desire to achieve the goals of learning, and they exert more effort in the process of learning the language.

Gardner and Lambert (1972, in Arnold, 1999) in their concept of motivation in Second Language Acquisition, divided motivation into two orientations. Integrative orientation refers to the learner's desire of learning the language to be able to relate to or integrate himself deeper into the culture where that particular language is spoken. On the other hand, instrumental orientation refers to practical and functional purpose in learning a language, with the most common reason of getting a better job or having desired promotion. Several studies were conducted to prove or disprove the above arguments. In Tsai and Chang's study (2013), most of the learners were prone to having instrumental rather than integrative motivation in terms of learning English. Wang's (2010) study of college freshmen, native Mandarin speakers, revealed that instrumental orientation appears to be the motivation for students to study English. Dörnyei (1990) concludes in his study that instrumental goals have significant contribution in the motivation of students learning a foreign language.

Moreover, Brown (2000) makes the point that learners would usually use a combination of the two orientations when learning a language. This means that learners are not using exclusively one orientation over the other. They learn language for academic purposes and at the same time integrate themselves with the culture of a particular place where they are studying.

C. Foreign Language Anxiety

Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) conceptualized the theory of Foreign Language Anxiety which they defined "as a distinct complex construct of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of language learning process."

Mahmoodzadeh (2012) discusses the three components of foreign language anxiety identified by Horwitz, et al., (1986) and MacIntyre and Gardner (1989). First deals with communication apprehension which generally refers to a type of anxiety experienced in interpersonal communicative settings where the person is too shy to speak in front of other people due to lack of self-confidence. Second is fear of negative evaluation where students are more anxious of how they will be corrected by their teacher as it will create more tension on their part. Third is test anxiety which refers to a type of performance anxiety rooted from fear of failure because some students demand too much from themselves and getting low scores in test is a big frustration.

Lu and Liu (2011) conducted a study on foreign language anxiety, cognitive and metacognitive strategy use and the students' performance in English and the result revealed that about one third of the respondents experience anxiety in their English class, they also have the fear of being given a negative evaluation, and most of all they were apprehensive whenever there is a speaking test and in taking the tests in their language class. Jang's (2003) study on levels of anxiety relative to proficiency reveals that anxiety scores were significantly different between different proficiency levels. It provides evidence of a relationship between Korean EFL learners' proficiency levels and their foreign language anxiety scales: anxiety decreases as proficiency level increases.

Moreover, Han's (2015) study revealed male students have lower level of anxiety compared with female students, while the students' year level have no bearing with their level of anxiety. He also found that the scholastic aptitude (KSAT) level and English proficiency level of the students have something to do with their anxiety level: the lower the level of KSAT and English proficiency, the higher the level of anxiety. The current study tries to corroborate the results of previous studies on students' self-respect, motivation toward English learning, and English communication anxieties in terms of gender, school year, and English proficiency.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Respondents

As shown in Table 1, the respondents of this study were the 255 randomly selected college students from a local university in South Korea who were enrolled in English classes for the Fall Semester of academic year 2014. They were classified according to gender, year level, English proficiency, where level 1 is the highest and level 3 is the lowest, and KSAT (Korean Scholastic Aptitude Test) where level 1 is the highest and level 8 is the lowest. There were 148 (58.04%) male and 107 (41.96%) female; 68 (26.67%) were freshmen, 116 (45.49%) were sophomores, 29 (11.37%) were juniors, and 42 (16.47%) were seniors; 3 (1.18%) belong to level 1 in English proficiency, 78 (30.59%) belong to level 2, and 161 (63.14%) belong to level 3. There were 13 (5.09%) participants who did not indicate their English proficiency level. For KSAT, nobody belong to level 1, 11 (4.31%) belong to level 2, 19 (7.45%) belong to level 3, 38 (14.90%) belong to level 4, 51 (20%) belong to level 5, 30 (11.77%) belong to level 6, 6 (2.35%) belong to level 7, and 13 (5.10%) belong to level 8. There were 87 (34.12%) participants who did not indicate their KSAT level.

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESPONDENTS

None		87	34.12%
Category		N	%
A. Entire Group		255	100%
B. Gender	Male	148	58.94%
	Female	107	41.96%
C. Year	Freshmen	68	26.67%
	Sophomores	116	45.49%
	Juniors	29	11.37%
	Seniors	42	16.47%
D. English Proficiency Level	Advanced	3	1.18%
	Intermediate	78	30.59%
	Basic	161	63.14%
	None	13	5.09%
E. KSAT Level	Level 1	0	0%
	Level 2	11	4.31%
	Level 3	19	7.45%
	Level 4	38	14.90%
	Level 5	51	20.00%
	Level 6	30	11.77%
	Level 7	6	2.35%
	Level 8	13	5.10%
	None	87	34.12%

B. Instrument

A researcher-made questionnaire was used in the study. The questionnaire is composed of 43 items covering the areas of self-esteem (13 items), motivation (17 items), and anxiety (13 items). The items in the area of self-esteem were based on Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, the items in the area of motivation were based on Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery, the items in the area of anxiety were based on the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope. Items in the three areas were slightly modified. Students were asked to rate each item with SA for strongly agree, A for agree, D for disagree, and SD for strongly disagree. For the interpretation of results in the areas of self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety the following scale and description were used.

Scale	Description
3.00 – 4.00	low self-esteem/motivation/anxiety
2.00 – 2.99	moderate self-esteem/motivation/anxiety
1.00 – 1.99	high self-esteem/motivation/anxiety

C. Data Collection and Analysis

The researchers made the questionnaire and submitted it for validation of the experts in the field of TESL. Upon approval, the questionnaire were administered, with the help of English professors, to the students enrolled in English classes. Upon retrieval of the questionnaires, the answers were encoded, tabulated, and interpreted.

In this study, the Mean was used to determine the respondents' overall level of self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety, and they were compared according to gender, year, English proficiency level, and KSAT level. The t-test and ANOVA were used to determine differences and Pearson's r was used to determine the correlation between self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Overall Level of Self-esteem, Motivation, and Anxiety

TABLE 2
STUDENTS' LEVEL OF SELF-ESTEEM, MOTIVATION, AND ANXIETY

Areas	Mean
Self-Esteem	2.10
Motivation	2.12
Anxiety	2.52

The students have a "moderate" level of self-esteem ($M=2.10$); motivation ($M=2.12$); and anxiety ($M=2.52$). Specifically, the result shows that in all three areas of affective factors in language learning, the students had a high moderate level of self-esteem and motivation and a middle moderate level of anxiety. It should be noted that in the area of anxiety, the scale interpretation is the opposite which means that the lower the level of anxiety the better. While in the areas of self-esteem and motivation, the higher the level the better.

The results further reveal that the top three items with high level in the area of self-esteem are items 10, 9, and 8 respectively. This means that the students believe that learning English language is important; they feel good when they are praised for a good performance; and they believe they can learn more if they will push themselves. In the area of motivation, items 7, 8, 9, and 10 have high level with the same mean scores, which means that the students are highly motivated to develop their English listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Items 12, 2, and 3 are the top three items with high level in the area of anxiety. This means that the students are very anxious if their grade in English is low; they feel nervous when the professor ask them to speak in class; and they are worried that they will make mistakes in their English class. This is in agreement with the results of the study of Liu and Chen (2013) which illustrates two major components of FLA among the students – general worry over language class performance and little confidence in speaking ability. Similarly, in the study of Huang and Hwang, (2013) they found out that college students are anxious about being humiliated in front of teachers and peers, thus they are afraid of making mistakes while speaking.

TABLE 3
LEVEL OF SELF-ESTEEM, MOTIVATION, AND ANXIETY
ACCORDING TO GENDER

Category	Self-Esteem	Motivation	Anxiety
Total (N=255)	2.10	2.12	2.52
Male (N=148)	2.06	2.13	2.62
Female (N=107)	2.17	2.10	2.3

The results show that when the students were grouped according to Gender, both male and female students have a moderate level of self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety. However, considering the mean scores, male students have higher self-esteem compared with the female students, where males have higher mean score in doing their best in everything that they do. In the study of Hayati and Ostadian(2008), males and females have similar level of self-esteem, however female’s ability to perform English listening comprehension task is higher than the male students. In the area of motivation, female students are just a little more motivated than the male students though both are motivated to develop their English speaking, reading, writing, and grammar skills. Moreover, male students are more motivated to study English so they could be easily hired for the job compared with the female students. Lastly, in the area of anxiety, male students have the lower level compared with the female, where the males are less nervous, embarrassed, and anxious in their English class.

TABLE 4
T-TEST BETWEEN GENDER

Areas	t-value	Df	Sig.
Self-Esteem	-2.23	2.39	0.03*
Motivation	.45	2.48	0.65
Anxiety	3.30	2.39	0.00*

The t-test results show that when the students were grouped according to Gender, there are significant differences in the level of self-esteem and anxiety in favor of the male students. This means that the male students have higher level of self-esteem and lower level of anxiety compared with the female students. However, in the study of Hayati and Ostadian (2008), it was found that male and female students have similar level of self-esteem. As for anxiety, similar results was found in the following studies: Han (2015); Huang and Hwang (2013); Mahmoodzadeh (2012), Zgutowicz, R. (2009); Cheng (2008) and Pappamihel (2002), where female students had a higher level of anxiety compared to male students. In contrast with the mentioned results, studies done by Capan and Simsek (2012), Kitano (2001), and Zhang (2001) revealed that male students have stronger feelings of language anxiety than the female students. On the other hand, no significant difference was found in the students’ level of motivation when grouped according to gender. This result agrees with the study of Wang (2010) that reveals no differences in language learning motivation among students with different gender. This implies that the students’ gender affect their self-esteem and anxiety but not their motivation.

B. Self-esteem, Motivation, and Anxiety According to Year

TABLE 5
LEVEL OF SELF-ESTEEM, MOTIVATION, AND ANXIETY
ACCORDING TO YEAR

Category	Self-Esteem	Motivation	Anxiety_
All (N=255)	2.10	2.12	2.52
Freshmen (N=68)	2.12	2.15	2.53
Sophomores (N=116)	2.11	2.13	2.49
Juniors (N=29)	2.21	2.10	2.45
Seniors (N=42)	2.00	2.03	2.61

Considering the Mean scores from highest to lowest, the order was as follows: self- esteem – seniors, sophomores, freshmen, juniors; motivation – seniors, juniors, sophomores, freshmen; and anxiety – juniors, sophomores, freshmen, seniors. It was shown that the seniors had the highest self-esteem and motivation and lowest anxiety among the four

levels. Apparently, this might be because they are graduating students and they have developed a certain level of self-esteem and have a lower level of anxiety because of their experiences and maturity. In the case of freshmen, sophomores, and juniors, their ranks vary in all three areas and the mean scores show that the juniors got the lowest for self-esteem and highest for anxiety, freshmen got the lowest for motivation, and sophomores were always in the middle.

TABLE 6
ANOVA ACCORDING TO YEAR

Sources of Variation	F	Sig.	Critical F
Self-Esteem	1.89	0.31	2.64
Motivation	0.77	0.51	3.00
Self-Esteem	0.65	0.59	2.64

ANOVA results show that when the students were grouped according to Year, there are no significant statistical differences found in the level of self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety. This means that whether the students are freshmen, sophomores, juniors, or seniors, their level of self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety do not differ significantly. This further implies that the students' year does not affect their self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety. This result is in agreement with the study of Capan and Simsek (2012) which suggested that the participants' year in school did not have a worthwhile impact on their FLA levels. They emphasize that different grade levels mean different challenges. Similarly, Cheng (2008) revealed that no significant difference in anxiety level was found among freshmen, sophomores, and juniors. Kitano (2001) found no remarkable difference in the FLA levels between freshmen and sophomores.

C. Self-esteem, Motivation, and Anxiety According to English Proficiency Level

TABLE 7
LEVEL OF SELF-ESTEEM, MOTIVATION, AND ANXIETY
ACCORDING TO ENGLISH LEVEL PROFICIENCY

Category	Self-Esteem	Motivation	Anxiety
All (N=255)			
Advanced (N=78)	1.56	1.35	3.15
Intermediate (N=Basic)	1.91	1.88	2.81
Basic (N=161)	2.21	2.24	2.36

The results show that when the students were grouped according to English proficiency level, the students in the advanced level have high level of self-esteem and motivation and low level of anxiety; the students in the intermediate level have high level of self-esteem and motivation and moderate level of anxiety; and the students in the basic level have moderate level in all three areas. It obviously follows that the higher the level of English proficiency, the higher the level of self-esteem and motivation and the lower the level of anxiety. This result exactly agrees to the result of the study done by Hashemian (2012) and Soureshjani and Naseri (2011) which reveal that the higher the level of L2 learners' self-esteem, the higher their proficiency level. Apparently, as the proficiency level of a person increases, that person will become more confident in using the second language. Similarly, the study of Jang (2003) reveals that the anxiety levels were significantly different relative to the learners' proficiency levels: as the learners' proficiency level increased, their anxiety level decreased.

TABLE 8
ANOVA ACCORDING TO ENGLISH PROFICIENCY

Sources of Variation	F	Sig.	Critical F
Self-Esteem	22.96	0.00	3.03
Motivation	21.18	0.00	3.03
Anxiety	19.62	0.00	3.03

ANOVA results show that when the students were grouped according to English proficiency level, significant differences existed in the level of self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety. It means that the higher the level of English proficiency of the students, the higher the level of their self-esteem, motivation, and the lower the anxiety. This implies that the students' English proficiency level affects the three areas mentioned above.

D. Students' Level of Self-esteem, Motivation, and Anxiety According to KSAT Level

TABLE 9
LEVEL OF SELF-ESTEEM, MOTIVATION, AND ANXIETY
ACCORDING TO KSAT LEVEL

Category	Self-Esteem	Motivation	Anxiety_
All (N=255)			
Level 2 (N=11)	1.79	1.94	3.27
Level 3 (N=19)	2.08	1.92	2.52
Level 4 (N=38)	2.02	2.00	2.60
Level 5 (N=51)	2.01	2.03	2.57
Level 6 (N=30)	2.14	2.12	2.51
Level 7 (N=6)	2.51	2.65	2.28
Level 8 (N=13)	2.31	2.53	2.04

The results show that when the students were grouped according to KSAT level, the students in level 2 have high level of self-esteem and motivation and low level of anxiety. The students in levels 3 to 8 have all moderate level of self-esteem and anxiety while only students in level 3 have high motivation and the students in levels 4 to 8 have moderate level of motivation.

TABLE 10
ANOVA ACCORDING TO KSAT LEVEL

Sources of Variation	F	Sig.	Critical F
Self-Esteem	3.75	0.00	2.16
Motivation	5.20	0.00	2.16
Anxiety	5.48	0.00	2.16

ANOVA results show that when the students were grouped according to KSAT level, significant differences existed in the level of self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety. This means that the students from levels 2 to 8 differ significantly in their level of self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety. Noticeably, only the students in level 2 have high level of self-esteem and motivation and low level of anxiety. This implies that the students' KSAT level affects the three areas mentioned above.

E. Correlations between Self-esteem, Motivation, and Anxiety

TABLE 11
CORRELATIONS OF SELF-ESTEEM, MOTIVATION, AND ANXIETY

		Self-Esteem	Motivation	Anxiety_
Self-Esteem	Pearson Correlation	1	.688**	-.514**
	Sig (2 tailed)		.000	.000
	N	255	255	255
Motivation	Pearson Correlation	.686**	1	-.351**
	Sig (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	255	255	255
Anxiety	Pearson Correlation	-.514**	-.351**	1
	Sig (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	255	255	255

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

The relationships between self-esteem and motivation, self-esteem and anxiety, and motivation and anxiety were investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The results show a strong, positive correlation between self-esteem and motivation [$r=.686, n=255, p=.000$], with high levels of self-esteem associated with high levels of motivation. On the other hand, there was a strong, negative correlation between self-esteem and anxiety [$r=-.514, n=255, p=.000$], with high levels of self-esteem associated with low levels of anxiety. Furthermore, there was a moderate, negative correlation between motivation and anxiety [$r=-.351, n=255, p=.000$], with high levels of motivation associated with low levels of anxiety.

V. CONCLUSION

A. Summary of Findings

This study tried to examine university students' level of self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety and the degree of their differences according to gender, year, English proficiency level, and KSAT level. The results are summarized as below:

First, the general level of students' self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety was moderate.

This indicates that the students are just in the middle level and there is a tendency for this level to be higher or lower.

Second, the students' level of self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety according to gender, was moderate. There were significant differences in the students' level of self-esteem and anxiety when they were grouped according to gender. Males had higher level of self-esteem and lower level of anxiety compared with the females. However, no significant difference was found in the area of motivation.

Gender, most of the time, is one important factor that is always considered in many fields. It was not always true to all situations. In some cases, males performed better than females and vice-versa. Some cultural issues might be a contributing factor to this result. In a society where more is expected of a male than a female, where a son is more priority than a daughter, the male has to be more on edge than the female.

Third, there were no significant differences in the students' self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety when they were grouped according to year. This indicates that whether the students are freshmen or seniors it does not matter. The longer years of study or stay in the university was not a guarantee that a student would have a high self-esteem and motivation and low anxiety, though in some cases, some students who belonged to higher years are somehow more serious in their studies.

Fourth, there were significant differences in the students' level of self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety when they were grouped according to English proficiency level. The students who belong to the advanced level had the highest mean scores in the areas of self-esteem and motivation and the lowest mean scores in the area of anxiety. There were significant differences in the students' level of self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety when they were grouped according to KSAT level as well.

This result corresponded with the results of other previous studies. Mettassari (2013) concluded that the higher the students' self-esteem, achievement, motivation, and self-efficacy the lower their anxiety. Mohammed (2012) had the same findings in her research: the more desire the students felt to learn the language, the more effort they tended to make in their learning and the less anxious they were in the classroom. Further, Tanveer (2007, in Mettassari, 2013) also found that people with more self-confidence and higher self-esteem were less anxious. Finally, Bagheri and Faghih (2012) opined that when students' self-esteem increases their TOEFL reading comprehension increases and vice-versa.

Fifth, there was a strong, positive correlation between self-esteem and motivation: the higher the self-esteem, the higher the motivation. However, there was a strong, negative correlation between self-esteem and anxiety: the higher the self-esteem, the lower the anxiety. Moreover, a moderate, negative correlation was found between motivation and anxiety: high level of motivation is associated with low level of anxiety.

This result is in corroboration with what Krashen (1992) explains in his Affective Filter Hypothesis that when students have high motivation and self-confidence and low anxiety, the affective filter is low and thus comprehensible input is facilitated and the students have a better chance of acquiring a second language.

B. Suggestions

It can be concluded that the students' scholastic level affects their self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety. Apparently, the higher the level of English proficiency the higher the level of self-esteem and motivation and the lower the level of anxiety.

Based on the results, the following suggestions are made for promoting university students' English communication abilities.

First, it was found that university students' scholastic level somehow affect their self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety. Thus it will be important for professors to take notice of those factors during class activities and provide students with relevant feedback so that they could overcome their weakness and perform better in the target language.

Sometimes, students just need a push especially from their professors so that they can do more than they think they can. Therefore, it would be good for professors to give them positive feedback concerning their level of self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety during consultation hours so that they can be challenged and encouraged during free talk sessions.

Second, the results of the study have some implication for designing and developing a more learner sensitive English syllabus. By providing the faculty who are teaching English the information from the result of the present study, they may be encouraged to develop a more friendly or tension-free learning activities for their students. They may also be advised to be more patient to the students since the level of students' motivation or anxiety may influence their attitude toward their professors in the class.

Third, since three affective factors are noticeably having an interplay in language learning, it would be important to develop tasks and activities which are effective in increasing the students' self-esteem and motivation and lowering their anxiety for a more effective language learning. Likewise, a more conducive and affirming learning environment is important where students feel they are accepted and understood by peers and professors.

C. Limitation of the Study

The current study has the following limitations for generalization.

First, the level of students' self-esteem, motivation, and anxiety found in the current study cannot be generalized to other universities in urban and metropolitan areas. For this, further study needs to be conducted in those areas for comparison and generalization.

Second, the sample respondents in the current study are not exactly representative of the whole students attending the same university. In order to obtain more reliable data, a more systematic survey needs to be administered to more randomized sample groups in terms of gender, year, department, and proficiency level of the target population.

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The Role of Vocabulary Breadth and Depth in Reading Comprehension: A Quantitative Study of Finnish EFL Learners

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Abstract—This article reports the results of a study on the relationship between second language vocabulary breadth, vocabulary depth, and reading comprehension. A special aim was to discover the role of vocabulary depth in the prediction and explanation of L2 learners' reading comprehension. Two proficiency levels, intermediate and advanced, were compared. Vocabulary breadth was measured with the Vocabulary Size Test (Nation & Beglar, 2007), vocabulary depth with the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (Wesche & Paribakht, 1996), and reading comprehension with a test compiled of sections from two former matriculation examination tasks. The three constructs showed strong positive correlations in both groups of subjects. However, based on the results, vocabulary breadth and depth seem to be stronger predictors of reading comprehension skills in lower levels of proficiency than on the advanced level.

Index Terms—L2 English, vocabulary breadth, vocabulary depth, reading comprehension, language learning

I. INTRODUCTION

The importance of vocabulary knowledge for reading comprehension has been established by second language acquisition (SLA) research (e.g. Nation & Coady, 1988; Laufer, 1992, 1996; Wallace, 2007). Especially the role of vocabulary breadth, i.e., the size of the learner's vocabulary, has been found to be important in second language proficiency in general (Henriksen, 2006; Schmitt, 2010) and in reading competence in particular (Laufer, 1992, 1996; Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kavlovski, 2010). The other dimension of vocabulary knowledge, i.e. depth, or quality, has not been as thoroughly researched, although its overall role in second language vocabulary competence has been acknowledged (e.g., Meara, 1996; Read, 2000). The objective of the study reported in this article was to examine the relationship between the breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge of Finnish learners of English, representing intermediate and advanced proficiency levels. Additionally, acknowledging the well-established connection between vocabulary size and reading comprehension ability, another aim of the study was to see whether assessing vocabulary depth could add a viable dimension in predicting and explaining reading comprehension proficiency. In the following, the study will first be situated in the relevant framework of earlier research.

II. VOCABULARY BREADTH AND DEPTH

Vocabulary breadth, or size, is usually understood to denote the number of words a language learner knows. Depth of vocabulary knowledge, on the other hand, commonly refers to how well these words are known. However, the terms are far from straightforward. There is no general consensus of what is meant by *knowing a word* or how *depth of vocabulary knowledge* can be defined. Following Nation's (2001) tripartite division of word knowledge into form, meaning, and use, Li and Kirby (2015, p. 612) suggest that breadth of vocabulary could be seen as "knowing the oral and written forms of the words, the surface meanings, and basic uses of the words." Other researchers emphasize the importance of knowing the meaning of the word. Qian (1999, 2002), for example, regards vocabulary size as the number of words for which the learner has at least some superficial knowledge of meaning.

Defining depth of vocabulary knowledge seems to be an even more complex task. Indeed, there are at least two rather different approaches to conceptualising depth of vocabulary knowledge: the developmental approach and the dimensions (or components) approach (Read, 2000; Schmitt, 2010). According to the developmental approach, depth of vocabulary knowledge grows incrementally, from not knowing a word at all, through recognition and having a vague idea of its meaning, to mastering the word, whereas according to the dimensions approach, knowledge of a word is seen as consisting of different subcomponents, or different types of word knowledge, such as orthographic, phonological, morphological, semantic, syntactic, collocational, and pragmatic features (Read, 2004; Schmitt, 2010). Understandably, it is impossible to design tests which would measure all of these features. Some attempts have been made, nevertheless, to include several aspects of vocabulary knowledge in test formats, as reported by Read (2000). The approach adopted in

the present study is the developmental one, i.e. depth of vocabulary knowledge is understood as a sequence of developing stages of word knowledge. Consequently, the test employed to measure the study subjects' vocabulary depth was the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS), developed by Wesche and Paribakht (1996), as explained in the section on *Methods and Procedures*.

Vocabulary breadth and vocabulary depth have both received considerable attention from researchers, but there is some controversy about these two constructs. In addition to the multifaceted nature of the depth of vocabulary knowledge and the consequent difficulty in measuring it, the mutual relationship of breadth and depth remains a contentious issue. They are certainly related to each other, as high correlations have been found between them (e.g. Qian, 1999, 2002; Nurweni & Read, 1999, especially for high proficiency students). According to Li and Kirby (2015), breadth and depth could be seen as two dimensions of the same phenomenon which are interconnected and influence each other. The same idea has been expressed by other scholars as well: a beginning learner recognizes words and learns their basic meanings. With growing experience, more and more words are known, and their characteristics, use, and associations with other words become more familiar. As Li and Kirby (2015, p. 613) put it, "depth contributes to breadth and vice versa."

III. VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE AND READING COMPREHENSION

A. Text Coverage and Other Issues

Despite the central role of vocabulary in all four L2 skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking), there are some differences between the written and spoken modes. It has been suggested that more knowledge of words is required for writing and reading than for speaking and listening (e.g. Nation, 2001; Nation, 2006; Schmitt, 2008). Furthermore, it has been proposed that poor L2 reading performance might result from poor L1 reading skills, but available reading research strongly suggests that L2 reading is more of a language problem than an actual reading problem (Alderson *et al.*, 2015). Especially vocabulary knowledge is vital in reading comprehension, and this has been supported by many studies (e.g. Nation & Coady, 1988; Laufer, 1992). Vocabulary knowledge is actually understood to be the most obviously perceivable component of the reading skill (Nation & Coady, 1988). In addition, previous research undeniably shows that the link between reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge is stronger than the one between reading comprehension and other subcomponents of reading, such as grammar knowledge or background knowledge (Mehrpour & Rahimi, 2010; Alderson *et al.*, 2015). Laufer (1996) states that lexical problems undeniably hinder reading comprehension and that the threshold for successful reading is primarily related to vocabulary knowledge. In the case of EFL in particular, vocabulary size strongly limits the number of texts a learner can read with ease (Nation & Meara, 2002).

Many studies have examined the vocabulary size needed to understand a variety of texts. Laufer (1992) studied L2 lexical knowledge and the readers' general academic ability and concluded that on all levels of knowledge, L2 vocabulary size is more efficient in predicting L2 reading performance than the informant's general academic ability. She suggests that knowing about 3000 word families is enough to ensure a starting point for L2 reading comprehension. Correspondingly, Nation and Waring (1997) propose that the lexical threshold for reading comprehension is somewhere between 3000 and 5000 word families. Many researchers, however, propose that somewhat larger vocabularies are needed for L2 reading to be successful (e.g. Nation, 2006; Schmitt, 2008). Estimates of *text coverage* needed for successful L2 reading vary considerably: according to many, it is somewhere between 95 and 99% (Mehrpour & Rahimi, 2010). Text coverage needed for reading comprehension refers to how many word families or lexical units are needed for understanding a text; in other words, it is the percentage of running words that a learner needs to know in order to comprehend a given text (Nation, 2006). A 95% text coverage would mean that approximately one word out of twenty is unknown, and with a 98% text coverage one word out of fifty would be unknown. In recent studies, the most commonly suggested text coverage figure is 98% (e.g. Schmitt, Jiang & Grabe, 2011). Similarly, Nation (2006) suggests that a 98% text coverage is needed for satisfactory, unaided reading comprehension. In practice, this means that a learner is required to know between 8000 and 9000 word families. To compare, a well-educated native speaker of English is estimated to have knowledge of about 20000 word families. The number of words needed for reading depends, naturally, also on the type of text (see e.g. Nation, 2006).

As the present study is concerned with the vocabulary knowledge of Finnish learners of English, the results of some prior studies investigating the vocabulary size of this learner group are in order. In an early study (1993), Jaatinen and Mankinen discovered that MA level university students of English knew about 19 500 lexemes. More recently, Pirilä (2012) found that the vocabularies of her informants, also MA level English majors, comprised about 23 200 lexemes. It is worth noting that both of these studies counted lexemes instead of word families, and their method of measuring the receptive vocabulary size of their informants was a Yes/No test, built on dictionary entries. Ala-Akkala (2010) focused on upper secondary school students, i.e. intermediate level English learners, and found their receptive vocabulary breadth to be 3700 word families on average. Her method was also a Yes/No test. The method used in the present study to measure vocabulary breadth had a multiple-choice format. This will also be explained in more detail in the section on *Methods and Procedures*.

B. Breadth, Depth, and Reading

Studies concerning the relationship between vocabulary size, or breadth, and reading comprehension are numerous,

and the connection between the two is well established, as was seen above. The number of studies concerning both vocabulary breadth and depth as well as reading comprehension is more limited, however. High positive correlations between vocabulary breadth, depth, and reading comprehension were found by Rashidi and Khosravi (2010), whose study comprised Iranian EFL learners. A moderate correlation was found between breadth and depth of vocabulary by Li and Kirby (2015), but the relationship of these two constructs to reading comprehension showed intriguing results, as vocabulary breadth correlated more strongly with a multiple-choice task, whereas depth of vocabulary correlated more strongly with a more demanding summary task.

Qian has been one of the pioneers in acknowledging the significance of depth of vocabulary knowledge as a vital element of reading comprehension skills along with vocabulary size. In his 1999 study, high positive correlations were established between the scores obtained in the four tests used to measure vocabulary breadth, vocabulary depth (two different tests), and reading comprehension. Moreover, both vocabulary breadth and depth provided significant contributions to the prediction of reading proficiency. What is noteworthy here is that vocabulary depth indeed added 11 percentage points of explained variance in reading test scores beyond the prediction provided by vocabulary breadth alone. The study undeniably supports the significance of vocabulary depth in reading comprehension (Qian, 1999). Qian’s 2002 study lends further support to the importance of vocabulary depth as a predictor of reading comprehension, as vocabulary depth scores alone explained about 59% of the variance of the results, whereas the scores on vocabulary breadth alone explained about 54% of the same variance (Qian, 2002).

IV. THE STUDY

A. The Aim of the Study

The main purpose of the present study was to examine how vocabulary breadth, vocabulary depth, and reading comprehension relate to each other. Another aim was to discover the role of vocabulary depth in the prediction and explanation of L2 learners’ reading comprehension. The third aim of the study was to compare two groups of learners of English at different proficiency levels, intermediate and advanced, to see whether there were any differences regarding the first two research questions between the groups.

B. Subjects

The subjects of the study consisted of two groups, 39 upper secondary school students from a medium-sized town in Southern Finland (the UPSEC group) and 19 university students, majoring in English at a large university in South-West Finland (the UNI group). The majority of the subjects were female (67% in the UPSEC group and 89% in the UNI group). 88% of the participants had Finnish as their L1 (82% of the UPSEC group and 100% of the UNI group). As even those subjects who had a different L1 were all attending a school with Finnish as the primary language of instruction, and as they all reported using Finnish constantly in their everyday lives, we decided not to exclude them from the study. Some basic information about the groups of subjects is presented in Table I.

TABLE I.
SUBJECTS OF THE STUDY

	UPSEC (n = 39)	UNI (n = 19)
Gender	F: 26 M: 13	F: 17 M: 2
Age (mean)	17.3	27.0
L1	Finnish: 32 Other: 7	Finnish: 19 Other: 0
Started English at age	9: 30 earlier: 1 later: 8	9: 14 earlier: 2 later: 3
Proficiency level	B1–B2	C1–C2

The background information form that the subjects were asked to fill in also included a question about possible longer stays in an English-speaking country. None of the UPSEC students reported such stays; nine UNI students did report stays of varying lengths. However, as all the subjects in the UNI group were English majors who were already at a very advanced level in their studies, the length or number of stays in an English-speaking environment was not considered a major factor in this study.

C. Methods and Procedures

The subjects’ vocabulary breadth was measured using the Vocabulary Size Test (VST), designed by Nation and Beglar (2007), and available at http://www.lex tutor.ca/tests/levels/recognition/1_14k/. The VST is based on frequency levels sampled according to the occurrence of word families in the British National Corpus (BNC). It has a monolingual multiple-choice format where the learner has to circle the alternative that is closest in meaning to the item being defined. Each test item is presented in a “short, non-defining context” (Nation & Beglar, 2007: 12). Furthermore, whenever feasible, the words used in the alternatives are of higher frequency than the test item in question. An example is provided below:

- STONE: He sat on a **stone**.
- a. hard thing
 - b. kind of chair
 - c. soft thing on the floor

d. part of a tree

Scoring the test is very straightforward. For each test item, there is only one correct answer, and each test item is worth one point. The maximum score for the test is, thus, 140 points. This number has to be multiplied by 100 to get an estimate of the informant's total vocabulary size (Nation & Beglar, 2007). For the purposes of this study, mainly because of time constraints, however, the test was shortened. The number of test items was reduced to 100: the last forty questions testing the 11K–14 levels were deleted. According to the authors of the test, this is perfectly appropriate, as long as the informants do a few levels beyond their expected proficiency level (Nation & Beglar, 2007). This way, it was possible to do this part of the test session within the time limit of twenty minutes.

As mentioned earlier, the view adopted in the present study on depth of vocabulary knowledge is based on the developmental approach, i.e. depth of vocabulary knowledge is understood to grow gradually, from no knowledge to mastery. A test designed by Wesche and Paribakht (1996), the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS), was, therefore, used to measure the subjects' vocabulary depth. The VKS combines both self-report and performance items, ratings varying from utter unfamiliarity ("I don't remember having seen this word before"), through word recognition ("I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means") and having a vague idea of the meaning ("I have seen this word before, and I *think* it means ___"), to the learner being able to construct a sentence where the word is correctly used (Wesche & Paribakht, 1996, p. 29). The test was scored according to instructions given by the authors (Wesche & Paribakht, 1996; Paribakht & Wesche 1997) and Joe (1998).

As for the words to be included in the VKS test, we chose fourteen words, one from each frequency band of the BNC-COCA frequency list, using the online program VocabProfile (<http://www.lexutor.ca/vp/comp/>): *strong, equipment, environment, interpretation, confident, precious, diary, exhilarating, doughnut, to amputate, infantile, rapacious, wallflower, parsonage*. The words came from texts which were randomly selected from an upper secondary school textbook. As the words represented such a wide range of frequency levels, they were expected to reveal differences in the informants' depth of vocabulary knowledge.

The third test in the present study was a reading comprehension test, which was based on sections of the English test of the Finnish matriculation examination. This examination is designed and created every year by the Finnish Matriculation Examination Board. The examination is taken simultaneously every autumn and spring by Finnish upper secondary school students usually in their third and final year of their studies. In the English test, the reading comprehension section most commonly consists of a number of texts that are accompanied by multiple choice questions. The tests from previous years along with the correct answers and comments from the Matriculation Examination Board can be found online (<http://yle.fi/aihe/artikkeli/2015/12/15/yo-kokeet-englanti>), but in order to use the tests for research purposes, consent has to be acquired from the Board. We applied for a research permission in order to be able to use the reading comprehension tests for the purposes of the present study, and the permission was granted.

We chose two reading comprehension sections, one from autumn 2012 and one from spring 2013, read carefully all texts, questions and responses, and came up with a reading comprehension test that was comprised of three texts accompanied by corresponding multiple choice questions. The texts represented different fields, the first text being an extract from a novel, the second an editor's note from *National Geographic*, and the third an article from a magazine. For each text, there were three to five multiple choice questions, each with three alternatives in English. The UNI students were not likely to be familiar with the tests from such recent years. As for the UPSEC students, it was confirmed by their teachers that these tests had not been used as practice material in class.

The data were analysed using *IBM SPSS Statistics 23.0.0.2*. In order to examine the relationships between different test results and between the performances of the two study groups, the *correlation coefficient* (r) was used. As the results in one of the tests were so uniform that the scores actually behaved more like a categorical variable than a continuous one, and, in addition, the scores were not normally distributed, a non-parametric test, *Spearman's rho*, was applied. As a means of describing the variance in reading comprehension scores explained by vocabulary breadth and depth, we used *multiple linear regression*. This method of analysis makes it possible to examine the relationship between one dependent variable and one or more independent variables. Multiple linear regression also reveals the amount of variance in the dependent variable explained by one or more independent variables, and this is expressed in R square (R^2) values that vary from 0 to 1 (Muijs, 2004).

V. RESULTS

The breadth of vocabulary knowledge (or vocabulary size) of the subjects was measured with the Vocabulary Size Test (VST), as explained above. The maximum score in the test was 100 points. In order to arrive at an estimation of a learner's vocabulary size, the score then had to be multiplied by 100. Table II presents the central findings of the informants' estimated vocabulary sizes, for each informant group separately and also as a total, calculated in word families. All vocabulary measures here were rounded to integers.

TABLE II.
SCORES ON THE VOCABULARY SIZE TEST (VOCABULARY BREADTH)

	Mean	St. Dev.	Min.	Max.	Median
UPSEC (n = 39)	5715	1761	1500	8500	5600
UNI (n = 19)	8816	637	7300	9800	8900
Total (n = 58)	6731	2086	1500	9800	7300

As can be seen in Table II, the UNI group performed better in the VST than the UPSEC group. The mean vocabulary size of the UNI informants was 8816 words, whereas that of the UPSEC group was 5715. A Mann-Whitney U-test was conducted in order to verify the statistical significance of the difference in the results of the two study groups ($U = 23.0, p < 0.01$).

The informants' depth of vocabulary knowledge was assessed with the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS). The maximum score for this test was 70 points. The results of the two groups are shown in Table III. The measures were again rounded to integers, except for standard deviation, which is presented to one decimal place.

TABLE III.
SCORES ON THE VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE SCALE (VOCABULARY DEPTH)

	Mean	St. Dev.	Min.	Max.	Median
UPSEC (n = 39)	36	11.3	16	58	36
UNI (n = 19)	60	3.5	52	66	60
Total (n = 58)	44	14.7	16	66	45

In the VKS test, the mean score for the UPSEC group was 36 points out of 70. The least successful participant scored 16 points, whereas the most successful UPSEC student scored 58 points. Similarly to the scores in the VST, the most successful participants in the UPSEC group were close to the mean score of the more advanced UNI group. Again, the standard deviation of the UPSEC group's scores was large: 11.3. In the UNI group, on the other hand, the differences between the participants were less dramatic. The mean score was 60 points and the standard deviation only 3.5. In this group, the least successful informant scored 52 points, compared to the most successful informant's 66 points. A Mann-Whitney U-test indicated that the difference in the means between the two groups was statistically significant ($U = 11.5, p < 0.01$).

The reading comprehension test used in this study comprised of three different texts accompanied by multiple-choice questions. The maximum score in this section was 12 points. The most central findings of this test can be seen in Table IV. Again, the measures were rounded to integers for clarity (except for standard deviation that was rounded to one decimal place).

TABLE IV.
SCORES ON THE READING COMPREHENSION TEST

	Mean	St. Dev.	Min.	Max.	Median
UPSEC (n = 39)	6	2.8	0	11	7
UNI (n = 19)	11	1.1	9	12	11
Total (n = 58)	8	3.2	0	12	8

In the UPSEC group, the differences between the learners were again noteworthy. The least successful informant did not manage to provide any correct answers to the multiple-choice questions, whereas the most successful informant scored 11 out of 12 points. The standard deviation was 2.8. The mean score for this section, in the UPSEC group, was 6 points. Similarly to the scores in the other two tests reported above, the differences between the participants' results in the UNI group were less notable. In this group, the lowest score was 9 points and the highest 12 points. The standard deviation was 1.1. The mean score of the informants in the UNI group was 11 points. As with the other two test results presented above, a Mann-Whitney U-test was conducted, and the difference in the means of the UPSEC and UNI groups was statistically significant ($U = 40.0, p < 0.01$).

To examine the correlations between the test results, the Spearman's rho was used. Table V shows the UPSEC group's correlations between the results of the three tests.

TABLE V.
CORRELATIONS IN THE UPSEC GROUP

	VST (Vocabulary breadth)	VKS (Vocabulary depth)	RC (Reading comprehension)
VST		0.89	0.65
VKS	0.89		0.59
RC	0.65	0.59	

As Table V indicates, the correlations in the UPSEC group were rather high and positive across all test results. Vocabulary size and the scores on the VKS correlated very strongly and positively ($r = 0.89, n = 39, p < 0.001$). Vocabulary size also correlated strongly with the reading comprehension test results ($r = 0.65, n = 39, p < 0.001$). The correlation between the scores on the VKS and on the reading comprehension test was also strong ($r = 0.59, n = 39, p < 0.001$).

In the UNI group, on the other hand, the correlations were not as high as in the UPSEC group (see Table VI).

Similarly to the UPSEC group, vocabulary size and the scores on the VKS did correlate strongly ($r = 0.72$, $n = 19$, $p = 0.001$) in the UNI group as well, but the other two correlations were clearly weaker. There was a moderate positive correlation between vocabulary size and reading comprehension scores ($r = 0.31$, $n = 19$, $p = 0.205$). A modest positive correlation was also found between the scores on the VKS and the reading comprehension test ($r = 0.29$, $n = 19$, $p = 0.224$). As can be seen from the p-values, the correlations between vocabulary size and reading comprehension, as well as between vocabulary depth and reading comprehension scores were not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$).

TABLE VI.
CORRELATIONS IN THE UNI GROUP

	VST (Vocabulary breadth)	VKS (Vocabulary depth)	RC (Reading comprehension)
VST		0.72	0.31
VKS	0.72		0.29
RC	0.31	0.29	

In Table VII below, the correlations for both groups together are presented. The correlations were strong and positive across all variables. A very strong, positive correlation was found between vocabulary breadth (VST) and vocabulary depth (VKS) ($r = 0.95$, $n = 58$, $p < 0.001$). Vocabulary size was also very strongly and positively related to the scores in the reading comprehension test ($r = 0.83$, $n = 58$, $p < 0.001$). Another very strong, positive correlation was found between the scores on the VKS and the reading comprehension test ($r = 0.95$, $n = 58$, $p < 0.001$).

TABLE VII.
CORRELATIONS IN BOTH GROUPS TOGETHER

	VST (Vocabulary breadth)	VKS (Vocabulary depth)	RC (Reading comprehension)
VST		0.95	0.83
VKS	0.95		0.95
RC	0.83	0.95	

Based on the above findings, the differences between the results of the two study groups are evident. These differences will be further scrutinized in the *Discussion*.

One of the aims of the present study was to examine the role of vocabulary depth in reading comprehension. More precisely, we wanted to see whether depth of vocabulary knowledge would bring something more into the prediction and explanation of reading comprehension skills, in addition to the information afforded by vocabulary breadth alone. Multiple linear regression was chosen in order to answer this research question. In spite of some problems connected with this method, the use of multiple linear regression has been encouraged by existing research (e.g. Qian, 1999, 2002; Qian & Schedl, 2004; Rashidi & Khosravi, 2010), even with independent variables that correlate with each other, as is the case in the present study. Contrary to these studies, however, we decided to report adjusted R^2 values instead of mere R^2 values. R^2 refers to the amount of variance in a dependent variable (in this case, reading comprehension) that is explained by independent variables (vocabulary breadth and depth). An adjusted R^2 is a correction to R^2 that “takes into account that we are looking at a sample rather than at the population” (Muijs, 2004, p. 165). Table VIII shows the results of the regression analysis of the UPSEC group.

TABLE VIII.
MULTIPLE REGRESSION RESULTS OF THE UPSEC GROUP WITH VOCABULARY SIZE AND THE SCORES ON THE VKS AS INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Step	Variable	Adjusted R^2	R^2 change	p-value
1	Vocabulary size	0.38		<0.001
2	Scores on the VKS	0.39	0.01	<0.001

As summarized in Table VIII, for the UPSEC group, vocabulary size alone explained about 38% of the variance in reading comprehension scores (adjusted $R^2 = 0.38$, $F(1, 37) = 24.68$, $p < 0.001$). When looking at the explanation afforded by vocabulary size and the scores on the VKS together, the percentage was 39% (adjusted $R^2 = 0.39$, $F(2, 36) = 12.88$, $p < 0.001$). Adjusted R^2 change was 0.01, which suggests that vocabulary depth added 1 percentage point of explained variance in reading comprehension scores. When looking at the explained variance provided by vocabulary depth alone, the percentage was about 38% (adjusted $R^2 = 0.38$, $F(1, 37) = 23.77$, $p < 0.001$).

The multiple regression analysis results in the UNI group were rather different from the UPSEC group. Vocabulary size explained only about 19% of the variance in reading comprehension test scores (adjusted $R^2 = 0.19$, $F(1, 17) = 5.32$, $p < 0.05$). Furthermore, when scores on the VKS were added to the equation, it looks as if the two independent variables together are not very good at predicting or explaining reading comprehension test scores: the percentage was only 15% (adjusted $R^2 = 0.15$, $F(2, 16) = 2.62$, $p > 0.05$). The predictive power of vocabulary depth alone was less than one percent (adjusted $R^2 = 0.03$, $F(1, 17) = 1.06$, $p < 0.05$). As can be seen in the p-values reported, only the variance explained by vocabulary size alone is statistically significant. The results seem to suggest, firstly, that neither vocabulary size nor vocabulary depth are very good at predicting or explaining reading comprehension proficiency of the UNI group, and secondly, that scores on the VKS do not actually add anything into the prediction of reading comprehension in this group. A summary of the findings is presented in Table IX.

TABLE IX.
MULTIPLE REGRESSION RESULTS OF THE UNI GROUP WITH VOCABULARY SIZE AND THE SCORES ON THE VKS AS INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Step	Variable	Adjusted R ²	R ² change	p-value
1	Vocabulary size	0.19		<0.05
2	Scores on the VKS	0.15	-0.04	>0.05

Lastly, we looked at the two groups together to see what the effects of vocabulary size and vocabulary depth were in reading comprehension in general. Vocabulary size alone explained about 64% of the variance in reading comprehension test results (adjusted R² = 0.64, F (1, 56) = 102.17, p<0.001). When both vocabulary size and depth of vocabulary knowledge scores were added to the equation, they together explained about 66% of the variance in reading comprehension (adjusted R² = 0.66, F(2, 55) = 55.07, p<0.001). A modest addition, about 2 percentage points, was afforded by scores on the VKS. When looking at the percentage of explained variance in reading comprehension afforded by vocabulary depth alone, the figure was 64% (adjusted R² = 0.64, F (1, 56) = 103.95, p<0.001). Table X below sums up the findings.

TABLE X.
MULTIPLE REGRESSION RESULTS OF BOTH GROUPS TOGETHER WITH VOCABULARY SIZE AND THE SCORES ON THE VKS AS INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Step	Variable	Adjusted R ²	R ² change	p-value
1	Vocabulary size	0.64		<0.001
2	Scores on the VKS	0.66	0.02	<0.001

As with the correlation coefficients reported earlier, the differences found between the two study groups are again obvious. The findings, and possible explanations for them, will be further discussed in the following chapter.

VI. DISCUSSION

The primary objective of the study at hand was to investigate how L2 vocabulary breadth, vocabulary depth, and reading comprehension relate to one another, specifically focusing on the role of depth of vocabulary knowledge in predicting and explaining reading comprehension skills. A further goal was to discover whether the results would be different in two proficiency groups, intermediate and advanced.

The receptive vocabulary size of the group of upper secondary school students (UPSEC) in the present study was 5715 word families on average. As mentioned earlier, Ala-Akkala (2010) also studied Finnish upper secondary school students and found that their average English vocabulary size was 3700 word families. The method used in her study was a Yes/No test, so it is not directly comparable to the present study, as the difference in testing methods may well have influenced the results. However, the results of both studies seem to suggest that the differences between individual upper secondary school students are large.

As for the group of university students (UNI), on average, a major student of English knew 8816 word families. However, it is noteworthy to remember that the version of the VST used in the present study only tested the knowledge of the 10 000 most frequent word families of English. In order to tap the whole scope of the learners' vocabulary breadth, another test involving further frequency levels as well ought to be used. It is likely that the results obtained would have been somewhat higher had the test included words from the lowest frequency levels as well.

A major difference between earlier Finnish studies on learners' vocabulary sizes and the present study lies in the test format. As pointed out before, the Yes/No and the multiple choice test formats are quite different. The Yes/No test format does not require the informant to actually show any knowledge of word meaning; the method is more like self-assessing one's knowledge. In the multiple-choice format, which was applied in the present study, however, the informant is required to demonstrate his or her knowledge. On the other hand, the multiple-choice format mostly requires the informant to know one particular meaning of the test item in question, whereas in the Yes/No format, the informant can report any meaning out of all the meanings of a particular word. Thus, it is likely that the use of multiple-choice formats results in somewhat smaller estimates of learners' vocabulary size than the use of tests based on the Yes/No format. In addition, as mentioned earlier, with the VST applied in this study, the maximum vocabulary size that the test could report was 10000 word families. A longer test or a test compiled differently (for example, five test items instead of ten to represent one frequency level) might be useful in order to better estimate the vocabulary size of advanced learners of English. Even though the authors of the VST, Nation and Beglar (2007), accept shortening the test, they suggest, nonetheless, that the best is to strive for a test where the last frequency levels to be tested are a few levels beyond the learners' expected vocabulary size. This may explain why the results of the UNI group differ so drastically from other studies conducted with Finnish university students of English (Jaatinen & Mankkinen, 1993; Pirilä, 2012).

Positive correlations were found between L2 vocabulary size, depth and reading comprehension. The correlations were especially high in the UPSEC group and in the two groups together. In the UNI group, on the other hand, the correlations were somewhat lower. Many researchers have pointed out that the relationship between the size and depth of vocabulary knowledge is a close one (e.g. Qian, 1999). The findings of the present study support this view. The correlation between vocabulary size and the scores on the VKS was high and positive in both groups: 0.89 in the UPSEC group, 0.72 in the UNI group, and 0.95 in the two groups together. Similar results have been reported in earlier studies as well (Rashidi & Khosravi, 2010; Li, 2015).

In this study, the correlation between vocabulary size and reading comprehension was positive in both groups. The results are similar to those obtained in earlier studies (e.g. Qian, 1999, 2002; Rashidi & Khosravi, 2010; Li, 2015). Vocabulary depth and reading comprehension were also positively correlated in the present study. This is also in line with results reported in previous research. Rashidi and Khosravi (2010) reported a very strong and positive correlation between vocabulary depth and reading comprehension, whereas Li (2015) reported a slightly lower, yet positive correlation between the two variables. In both of Qian's studies (1999, 2002), two different measures were used to assess the learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge. Nonetheless, the correlations still resemble the ones already mentioned here, as do the results obtained in a study by Qian and Schedl (2004), which also focused on the relationship between vocabulary depth and reading comprehension.

As for the second research question, the results of the present study suggest that vocabulary depth can indeed add another significant variable in the prediction and explanation of scores in a reading comprehension test. In the UPSEC group, vocabulary breadth alone explained 38% of the variance in reading comprehension. Together with vocabulary depth, the two variables explained 39% of the variance. When examining the UPSEC and UNI groups together, the corresponding figures were 64% and 66%, respectively. These results suggest that vocabulary depth added 1 percentage point and 2 percentage points of explained variance in reading comprehension scores when considering the UPSEC group and the UPSEC and UNI groups together. Similarly to the figures of variance explained by vocabulary size alone, vocabulary depth alone could explain 38% and 64% of variance in reading comprehension scores in the UPSEC group and in the two groups in total, respectively. It seems that vocabulary depth does not add much to the explanation and prediction of L2 reading, in addition to that afforded by vocabulary size alone. Nevertheless, the results suggest that both vocabulary size and depth could be used separately as equivalent predictors of reading proficiency. However, when looking at the results of the UNI group, the results were somewhat different. In the UNI group, vocabulary size alone explained 19% of the variance in reading comprehension. Together with vocabulary depth, the two variables explained only 15% of the variance. Within the scope of the present study, the numbers suggest that vocabulary depth does not necessarily provide any additional information which would not be provided by vocabulary size alone, in the prediction of reading comprehension skills of the highly advanced UNI group. Moreover, when looking at the predictive and explanatory power of vocabulary depth alone, it could only explain less than one percent of the variance in reading comprehension test scores.

In their study, Rashidi and Khosravi (2010) only looked at the separate contributions afforded by vocabulary breadth and depth in reading comprehension. According to them, vocabulary size accounted for 55% and vocabulary depth for 69% of the variance in reading comprehension test scores. The results are rather similar to those obtained in the present study where vocabulary size alone explained 64%, and, similarly, vocabulary depth alone explained 64% of variance in reading comprehension test results, when looking at the two groups of informants in total. In Qian and Schedl's (2004) study, only vocabulary depth and reading comprehension were involved. The scores of their vocabulary depth test explained 55% of the variance in reading comprehension test scores.

In Qian's 1999 study, vocabulary size alone explained 60% of the variance in reading comprehension scores. Together with vocabulary depth, the two variables could explain 71% of the variance. This suggests that vocabulary depth added significant 11 percentage points of explained variance in reading comprehension test results.

When examining the results of earlier studies and the present study, it seems that measuring vocabulary depth can indeed serve as a tool for predicting and explaining reading comprehension test scores. Both vocabulary size and depth alone were able to explain a considerable and similar amount of variance in reading comprehension test scores. However, the percentage of added explained variance provided by vocabulary depth (in addition to vocabulary size alone) was not very high, and, in the present study, it was indeed lower than in previous studies (Qian, 1999, 2002). It might be that the test format played a role here because the VKS used in the present study is fundamentally different from the tests used in the majority of earlier research to measure vocabulary depth (as mentioned earlier, the VKS reflects the developmental approach to vocabulary depth, whereas most other tests are based on the dimensional view). Nevertheless, the results of the present study suggest that measuring vocabulary depth as a means of predicting or explaining reading comprehension test scores is quite as efficient as measuring vocabulary size.

As reported and discussed already, the UNI group performed better than the UPSEC group in all three tests. This is not a surprising finding, considering that the two groups were of different competence levels, the UPSEC group consisting of intermediate-level language learners and the UNI group of advanced learners. Moreover, the differences within the two groups varied considerably. The more advanced UNI group was clearly quite homogeneous, whereas the differences within the less advanced UPSEC group were large. It has to be acknowledged, of course, that the UNI group was somewhat smaller than the UPSEC group, which may also have affected the results.

When it comes to the correlations found between the three variables (vocabulary size, vocabulary depth, and reading comprehension), they were stronger in the UPSEC group than in the more advanced UNI group. This seems to suggest that the informants in the UNI group performed well in the reading comprehension test despite the lower correlations between vocabulary size and reading comprehension, as well as between vocabulary depth and reading comprehension. Considering their very high competence of English and their level of studies, it is likely that they were able to use more effective reading strategies, for example. In addition, the tests conducted may simply have been at least partly too easy for the UNI group. The significant finding here is that the results suggest that vocabulary knowledge, understood both

as vocabulary size and vocabulary depth, plays a fundamental role in reading comprehension proficiency of learners who are not very advanced, but the role of vocabulary knowledge seems to decrease with increasing L2 proficiency.

VII. CONCLUSION

Vocabulary knowledge has a central role in L2 learning in general and in reading comprehension specifically. The results of this study strongly suggest that vocabulary breadth, depth and reading comprehension are profoundly connected with each other, as has, indeed, been suggested by many previous research findings. This is especially interesting from the viewpoint of Finnish EFL learners. Finnish is not a cognate of English, nor of any of the languages that were any of the informants' L1 mentioned in the previous studies of the field (e.g. Qian, 1999, 2002; Qian & Schedl, 2004; Rashidi & Khosravi, 2010; Li, 2015). The results of the present study, as well as the earlier ones, support the view that L2 reading is fundamentally a language problem, which cannot be explained only by the learner's L1 or L1-related skills, and L2 vocabulary knowledge strongly affects reading comprehension.

The results of the present study suggest that both vocabulary breadth and depth can be used as predictors of reading comprehension proficiency, as they seem to provide a similar factor in the explanation of reading comprehension test scores. However, caution has to be applied when considering advanced learners. It seems that at the more advanced proficiency levels, the learners will succeed in reading comprehension despite their vocabulary knowledge. It is likely that advanced learners have a wide range of other skills, such as the use of other linguistic knowledge or reading strategies, which they can resort to when encountering problems in reading. At the beginning and developing stages of competence, on the other hand, both vocabulary size and depth are good predictive and explanative factors of reading comprehension.

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The Impact of Listening Strategies on Improving Learners' Listening Skill in Iran

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Abstract—Viable listening comprehension skills are essential as the world gets to be more and more worldwide. Multi media and the web get to be discussions for English communication. EFL learners struggle to grasp oral English writings in their listening comprehension categories. In this study, a group of 103 Iranian EFL learners participated in this study and answered a general proficiency test of Nelson and 81 students responded to the listening section of TOEFL. Students were classified into effective and ineffective listeners by application of O'Malley et al's subjective criteria (1989) and the scores of students in TOEFL. To elicit the listening strategies of each group, listening strategy questionnaire was developed. A Case II t-test analysis of the questionnaires ($P < .05$) showed a meaningful difference between effective and ineffective listeners. The subjects were divided on the basis of their pre-listening scores into experimental and control groups. The experimental group received the instruction of listening strategies and control group received the placebo treatment. The treatment included introduction, modeling and practicing the listening strategies. A posttest of listening section of TOEFL was administered to both groups. The results imply that listening strategies can be taught

Index Terms—effective and ineffective listening strategy, EFL learners, language proficiency, listening skill, listening strategies, meta-cognitive awareness

I. INTRODUCTION

Researchers from completely different area of the globe have tried to stipulate the characteristics of strategic learners and the kind of ways those learners use in specific learning tasks (Birjandi, Mirhassani, & Abbasian, 2006). For instance, Richards (2008) suggests that the growth of learners' communicative ability and language proficiency is related to the strategy they use. Al-Shaboul, Asassfeh, and Al-Shaboul (2010) draw attention that EFL learners might favor some strategies over others. This raises a priority concerning the identification of remarkably used strategies and less remarkably used ones and their influence on increasing learning. Rost (2001, p. 94) mentions that "a key difference between more successful and less successful acquirers relates in large part to their ability to use listening as a means of acquisition".

There has been a widespread investigation within the strategies that learners use for learning foreign or second languages and in variables associated with effective strategy use together with language proficiency and meta-cognitive awareness. These investigations vary from studies on the employment of all strategies to thorough exploration of certain strategies related to specific skills or language areas (Eckerth, Schramm & Tschirner, 2009, Vandergrift, 2006). The body of findings suggests a potential relationship between strategy use and second language acquisition success. This interest has additionally given rise to variety of studies in language learner strategy instruction that has some proof on the probability that learners use strategies effectively (Coskun, 2010; Macaro, 2006; Ratnaningsih, 2015).

Listening strategies determine activities or techniques that directly contribute to the comprehension of listening input and its recall (Chamot, 2004). In line with general learning strategies classified by O'malley and Chamot (1990), listening strategies are classified into 3 types: psychological features (mental activities for manipulating the language to accomplish a task), meta-cognitive ones (mental activities for steering language learning), and socio-affective ones (activities involving interaction or emotional management in acquisition (Vandergrift, 2007, 2011).

Psychological strategies in listening comprehension are classified by (Chamot, 2004) into top-down and bottom-up processes. top-down process strategies measure listening for the major purpose, predicting, drawing inferences, and summarizing whereas bottom-up process strategies embody listening for specific details, recognizing cognates, and recognizing word-order patterns. An additional intensive taxonomy of psychological strategies is usually recommended by Bacon (1992) that adds report, translation, elaboration, and transfer strategies to the above-named top-down and bottom-up process varieties. However, Vandergrift (2006, 2007, and 2011) presents a comprehensive list of psychological strategies, together with inference, elaboration, report, translation, transfer, repetition, responding, grouping, note-taking, deduction/induction, and substitution. About Meta-cognitive strategies, Bacon (1992) classifies meta-cognitive methods into 3 varieties that are used before, during, and via listening. In before listening, the learners

make themselves ready for listening through manipulating the setting, focusing attention, applying advance organizer, selective attention, and deciding to assume in English. Throughout listening, they fight to direct their attention, monitor their listening, and specify their interest. In via listening, they judge their comprehension and check out to spot what helps to be attentive in future. On the other hand, Goh (2008) typically classifies these strategies into planning, monitoring, and evaluating one's listening. However, Field (2010) considers meta-cognitive strategies as a region of meta-cognitive awareness that additionally includes person's information. In this classification, meta-cognitive strategies are composed of 4 factors: planning/evaluation, directed attention, bottom-up finding, and avoiding mental translation. Socio-Affective strategies, Bacon (1992) regards appealing to facilitate and request confirmation because of social strategies and consoling oneself and also because of the affect strategy in her taxonomy. However, Vandergrift (2011) adds cooperation to the social strategy list and lowering anxiety and also taking emotional temperature (awareness of one's emotions when listening so as to avert negative emotions and to form the maximum positive emotions) to the affect strategies.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Influenced by the findings from humanistic and psychology, nearly all classroom lecturers and teaching methodologists and language learners are eagerly examining the tasks set for the pupils will be improved or modified. Here, humanistic psychologists stress the importance of self – concept and affective factors within the learning, whereas cognitive psychology emphasizes a lot on the learner's mental processes, claiming that the pupils are engaged within the processes of learning like selective attention to tasks, testing, reasoning, comparing, reconstructing the concepts, exploitation the previous information and activating connected schema.

Besides, the trends of teaching have more and more shifted to the learner-centered approaches, shedding lights into autonomous learners. These approaches focus, to a bigger extent, on why some learners are a lot flourishing than others, ideally, learners in such trends have learning strategies, the data regarding learning, and therefore the attitudes that change them to use the abilities and data effectively, with confidence and independently of a teacher (Brown, 1987; Brownell, 2015; Chastain, 1988; Lee, 2015). Wenden, 1991; Richards, 1995).

Of the many procedures focusing on the tenet of making the learner a better learner is the question of language learning strategies and its related practices which lead to an improved change in the learning and the learner (Van, 2016). Scholars describing this approach recommend that learner autonomy be included as an objective to language programs (Wenden, 1991). The new trend encourages teachers to help learners learn how to learn better. In fact they go beyond the linguistic domain (Chang, & Liu, 2013; Elis & Sinclair 1990; Hallam, Cross, & Thaut, 2016; Rubin, 1994; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990).

Although researchers have recently paid close attention to the language learning strategies, such skills have actually been used though unsystematically for thousands of years (Oxford, 1990). Approximately, since the early 80s, learning strategies have extensively been talked about throughout language methodology and especially, teachers are starting to discuss learning strategies (Oxford, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

These scholars have identified, classified and also evaluated language learning strategies. The most interesting point to be mentioned seems to be the increase in the numbers of language learners beginning to recognize the power of their own strategies.

The term "Good language learner" is the indispensable part of language learning strategies. Ellis & Sinclair (1990) have summarized characteristics of good learner into seven categories. They are: self-aware, inquisitive and tolerant self-critical, realistic, willing to experiment, actively involved and organized. Anyhow it is felt that all language learners use language strategies of some type in a way or another, but the frequency and variety of use varies between different learners, and it is generally agreed that the use of language learning strategies is positively associated with language acquisition, although it appears that good language learners combine their use of particular types of strategies in effective ways (Purdie & Oliver, 1999).

But since a psychological theory of learning is very important in delineating what is happening in the mind of a good learner while dealing with a particular task, we start with cognitive psychology because of its emphasis on the autonomous learner and its cognitively based theory in second language acquisition. It is felt that second and foreign language acquisition cannot be vividly understood and touched upon without understanding the nature of interaction between language and cognition.

The concept of strategy, has typically become influential in education and its role is worthy paying attention in the language learning achievement. This term is mainly associated with the "Good language learner". In other words, each learner develops strategies and techniques which best suit his or her individual needs and personality (Goh, 1997; Wilson, Saygin, Sereno, & Lacoboni, 2004). Due simply to individuality of strategies and their high amount of mentality, researchers, somehow, fail to give an agreed-upon and a definitive list of language learning strategies. But findings so far, allow certain generalizations regardless of learner differences. Back to the theoretical aspect of the issue one may refer to the learning psychology to trace the signs of language learning strategies. In cognitive psychology, studies of learning strategies with learners have focused on the consequences of strategy coaching on totally different

varieties of tasks and learners. Findings from these studies typically indicate that strategy coaching is effective in the growth of the performance of pupils on a large bunch of reading comprehension texts and problem-solving tasks (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). one of the foremost vital outcomes of those psychological studies is that the formulation of learning strategies in information-processing model.

III. RESEARCH METHOD

Design of the study

It was decided that the best method to adopt for this investigation was to use Ex post Facto design. Due simply to the fact that there was no causal relationship between the variables under investigation rather it was attempted to find the degree of difference between them. As Hatch & Farhady (1994) say: When there is no possibility of random selection of students, instead of abandoning the research, we simply have to limit the domain of our claims. We have to avoid making cause-and-effect statement (P.26).

Here, language learning strategy was the independent variable and listening comprehension was dependent. Sex, Motivation, linguistic background were our control variables. To get the homogeneity of the students, Nelson test was used with the reliability index of .90 and also students' scores in the achievement tests in different terms of schooling in Iran Language Institutions were taken into account. Then, the listening section of Longman TOFEL test was administered with the reliability index of .68. Application of subjective criteria proposed by O'Malley et al. (1989) and the listening test's scores resulted in the selection of 32 effective and 35 ineffective listeners.

To elicit the potential strategies, a listening strategy questionnaire was developed and it was mainly based on the literature of learning strategies in general and listening strategies in particular and also on the available strategy questionnaires such as SILL. The items were carefully translated into Persian. The question items were changed and revised on the feedback from some fully fledged Persian language instructors of senior and junior high school to control the level of grammar, vocabulary and comprehension.

Participants

103 students took part in this study. They were in the eighth semester of Simin Educational Association, accredited by the ministry of Education. The mean age of the students of the study was about 15, ranging from 13 to 17, and all were male, and enjoyed almost the same level of language proficiency. Based on the syllabus of the English Institute and also according to the statements of its managers, this group of subjects was roughly considered as pre-intermediate.

Although the students in this study were in the same class and had passed different achievement tests to get to this level and could be taken as linguistically homogeneous, in order to have a more homogeneous sample, the Nelson proficiency test was administered. This resulted in the selection of 81 students for the study. In order to have a homogeneous sample, not only did I take into consideration the students' scores in achievement tests in different terms, but also Nelson Test 150 was administered. Afterwards, a listening strategy questionnaire was designed to grasp the possible listening strategies hidden in the pupils. The model for developing such a questionnaire was the framework of O'Malley & Chamot (1990) proven by Rubin (1994) and also Strategy Inventory for Language Learners (SILL) written and validated by Oxford (1990) and as well as on a learning strategy questionnaire designed and validated by Mazlum (2015).

Although it was felt that there is no reason to go through factor analysis to get the construct validity of the questionnaire, since the questionnaire was based on the works of some scholars, a factor analysis was also used in order to have a better interpretation of the underlying construct of the questionnaire. Furthermore, a verbal protocol analysis was utilized as Alderson (1991) says, to get the validity of the questionnaire.

The listening strategy questionnaire was developed based on the works of Brown (1987), Chastain (1988), Mazlum (2000), O'Malley & Charnor (1990), Oxford (1990), Richards (1995), and Wenden (1991). Based on the inventory of listening strategies driven out of their works that could meet the requirement of the study, the needed questionnaire was developed. Syntactically and lexically speaking, all the items of listening strategy questionnaire were directly taken out of the works of the specialized scholars of this field. Proved to be valid (Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1991), verbal protocol analysis or think-aloud procedure was used to examine the validity of the questionnaire as Alderson (1991) mentions.

The subjective analysis of the subjects' think-aloud transcripts indicated that they understood the items of the questionnaire and the answers chosen by the Richards (1995), were nearly what they really wanted to say. And also, they were asked to write their understanding of different scales. For example, they were asked to write, "What do you mean by never, seldom, etc. Alongside it, a background questionnaire introduced by Oxford (1990) was administered, in order to get the subjects' motivation, cultural and linguistic background. To test our null hypothesis, those students whose scores in listening test were one standard deviation above and below the mean index were selected. Having selected 63 students, they were randomly assigned into experimental and control groups. For our hypothesis, a pre- test and post-test control group design was used: G1 (random) T1 x T2 G2 (random) T1 T2

Procedures

Having administered the Nelson Test number 150c ($X=30.6$) and $SD=6.6$), 81 students whose scores were between one standard deviation above and below the mean, were selected. To distinguish effective listeners from ineffective ones, which was the main aim of our hypothesis, the subjective criteria employed by O'Malley, Kupper and Chamot (1989) consisting of 1) Attentiveness in class 2) Ability to follow directions without asking for clarification 3) Ability

and willingness to comprehend the general meaning of a difficult listening passage 4) Ability to respond appropriately in a conversation 5). Ability and willingness to guess at the meaning of unfamiliar words and phrases, and the listening section of Longman TOFEL which was also the pre-test of listening were utilized. The students whose scores were two standard deviations above the mean were called "effective" and those whose scores were two standard deviations below the mean, were labeled "ineffective". This criterion was on the basis of the critical comments of some scholars. Thus, application of subjective criteria as well as objective measurement resulted in the selection of 32 effective and 35 ineffective listeners. Then, the students responded to a 40 item_ Likert scale listening strategy questionnaire. The listening strategy questionnaire was developed based on the works of O'Malley &Charnor (1990), Wenden (1991), Oxford (1990) and Mazlum (2000). Based on the inventory of listening strategies driven out of their works that could meet the requirement of the study, the needed questionnaire was developed. Syntactically and lexically speaking, all the items of listening strategy questionnaire were directly taken out of the works of the specialized scholars of this field. Proved to be valid (Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1991), verbal protocol analysis or think-aloud procedure was used to examine the validity of the questionnaire as Alderson (1991) mentions.

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Therefore, after two weeks and for the second time, students were asked to verbalize their thoughts while they were doing the questionnaire. The session was conducted chorally and instead of tape-recording, the subjects were asked to write down whatever comes to their minds, while they were completing the questionnaire. Whenever it was felt that the students stopped writing, they were asked some probe questions to give them some hints to stimulate their thinking-aloud. The questions were typically as: "what is your idea about the item?", "what do you mean by that?", "what is it meant to you?", "do you have any example?", "why do you choose this answer?" Before the actual session of think-aloud, the students were briefly trained on thinking aloud through introducing the concept and modeling by the teacher.

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

To get the homogeneity of the students, Nelson test was used with the reliability index of .90 and also students' scores in the achievement tests in different terms of schooling in Iran Language Institutions were taken into account. Then, the listening section of Longman TOFEL test was administered with the reliability index of .68. Application of subjective criteria proposed by O'Malley et al. (1989) and the listening test's scores resulted in the selection of 32 effective and 35 ineffective listeners. To elicit the potential strategies, a listening strategy questionnaire was developed and it was mainly based on the literature of learning strategies in general and listening strategies in particular and also on the available strategy questionnaires. The items were carefully translated into Persian. The questionnaire was modified and revised on the base of feedback from some experienced Persian language teachers of senior and junior high school to check the level of grammar, vocabulary and comprehensibility.

Findings show that when a questionnaire is driven out of the literature, its construct validity can be guaranteed and there would be no need to utilize some other statistical techniques to measure the validity of the questionnaire (O'Malley et al, 1989; Mazlum, 2000). But "Think-aloud" procedure was used to check whether students have truly understood the items and the intention of the researcher and also whether they have answered what they wanted to answer and whether the scales in the answer sheet were meaningful to them and could serve their intention in answering the items of questionnaire.

T-test was utilized to see the difference between experimental group who received explicit and implicit strategy instruction and control group who underwent the normal instruction in the classes. As table 1 illustrates, t-observed is above t-critical, so the null hypothesis was rejected at .05 level of significance. Thus, it is possible to teach the listening strategies to the students.

TABLE 1.
RESULTS OF THE T-TEST FOR - EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

	X	SD	d. f	t-observed	t-critical
Experimental	20.8	3.9	61	3.8	2.000
Control	17.5	3.3			

p<.05

The frequency analysis shows another point of interest in that, 90 percent of effective listeners utilized socio-affective strategies whereas 45 percent of ineffective listeners used socio-affective strategies. 75 percent of effective listeners made use of meta-cognitive listening strategies. But in this category, just 37 percent of ineffective listeners used them. And lastly, 65 percent of effective listeners reported using cognitive strategies. Whereas 49 percent of ineffective listeners used cognitive type of listening strategy. The results indicate that effective listeners outperformed the ineffective listeners in all the variables especially the difference in meta-cognitive strategies and socio-affective strategies is more than that of cognitive strategies.

Among the cognitive strategies, text-gist and clarification are respectively the most and least used strategies employed by the effective listeners, whereas ineffective listeners reported using guessing strategy more and clarification less than others. Organization and purpose strategy as a kind of meta-cognitive strategy was used more than others, and evaluation was the type of meta-cognitive strategy least employed by effective listeners, whereas, planning and monitoring strategies are the most and least used strategies employed by the ineffective listeners in the meta-cognitive section respectively (table 2).

TABLE 2.
THE PERCENT OF STUDENTS WHO USED EACH STRATEGY

Strategy	Effective Listeners	Ineffective listeners
Repetition	71.8%	34.2%
Clarification	18.7%	17%
Note-Taking	56%	45%
Deductive Reasoning	84%	28.5%
Recombination	68%	31%
Contextualization	68%	40%
Guessing	75%	65%
Inference	59%	48.5%
Memorization	65%	34%
Text-gist	87.5%	54%
Monitoring	75%	20%
Organization and Purpose	84%	45%
Background Knowledge	71.8%	34%
Planning	78%	48.5%
Evaluation	68.7%	40%
Socio-Affective	90%	45%

Table 3 illustrates the correlation coefficient between total sum of variables constituting the cognitive, cognitive and socio-affective. It also confirms that the test takers' total scores are more correlated with their scores in the meta-cognitive and cognitive strategies than socio-affective strategies. Moreover, the test takers' scores in the meta-cognitive are moderately correlated with their scores in cognitive section ($r = 0.57$), indicating that these two strategies contribute to each other; however, this contribution is not strong enough to claim that they share same construct. The correlation between cognitive and socio-affective is very low ($r = 0.29$) which implies a weak correspondence between these two sets of strategies. In this respect, meta-cognitive section is highly correlated with socio-affective ($r = 0.75$) implying that these strategies have some common components.

The correlation coefficient analysis of individual strategies indicates that there exists almost no significant correlation among the individual strategies. This can suggest that the strategies measure different constructs. Anyhow, a few considerable correlations were found among some particular strategies. For example, evaluation and guessing were moderately correlated ($r = 0.46$), monitoring with deductive reasoning ($r = 0.41$), note-taking with deductive reasoning ($r = 0.50$), planning with background ($r = 0.43$) and finally socio-affective with evaluation ($r = 0.42$) were moderately correlated.

The findings were supported by factor analysis. Except deductive reasoning which was loaded on factor one and note-taking loaded on factor two, each pair of strategies was loaded on the same factor. The strength of correlation between variables indicates that they relatively share the same underlying constructs.

TABLE 3.
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

	Cognitive	Meta-cognitive	Socio-affective	Total
Cognitive N=81	1.000	.5729	.2964	.8414
Meta-cognitive N=81	.5729	1.000	.7571	.9113
Socio-affective N=81	.2964	.7571	1.000	.7088
Total N=81	.8414	.9113	.7088	1.000

One-way ANOVA was used to compare several group means simultaneously. In other words, through one-way ANOVA, the means of all the 81 students on the cognitive and meta-cognitive and socio-affective strategies were compared. And comparing the F-critical (3.04) with F-observed (1307.47), it was shown that our F-observed is large enough to conclude that there is a trend toward meaningful difference (Table 4). To see where the difference between the strategies lies, Scheffe test was utilized. Table 5 shows that the highest amount of difference is observed between Socio-affective and Cognitive Strategies and lowest amount between Meta-cognitive and Cognitive Strategies.

TABLE 4.
ONE-WAY ANOVA

	Sum of Square	d.f	Mean Square	F	F-Critical
Between Groups	120993.9	2	60496.93	1307.47	3.04
Within Groups	11104.19	240	46.27	1307.47	3.04

TABLE 5.
SCHEFFE TEST

Factor I	Factor J	Mean Difference	Sig.
1.00	2.00	35.13	.000
	3.00	53.82	.000
2.00	1.00	35.13	.000
	3.00	18.69	.000
3.00	1.00	53.82	.000
	2.00	18.69	.000

P<.05

Factor 1: Socio-affective Strategies

Factor 2: Meta-Cognitive Strategies

Factor 3: Cognitive Strategies

V. DISCUSSION

Present study was designed to determine the impact of listening strategies on improving learners' listening skill in Iran and focusing on identification, description and classification of listening comprehension strategies. Our findings of this study show that language learning strategies in general and listening strategies in particular can explain some of the differences among pupils considering their performance in the listening comprehension skill. The results of our analysis supported the findings of Coskun (2010), and Selamat & Sidhu (2012), and Sheshgelani, Sadeghli and Aidinlon (2013). Coskun (2010) in his study found that the advantage of meta-cognitive strategy use might alter the learners into proficient listeners. Selamat & Sidhu (2012) cited that learners often used meta-cognitive strategies within the listening tests, and also the meta-cognitive strategies assisted them to induce the listening comprehension to accumulate the data. Sheshgelani, Sadeghli and Aidinlon (2013) claimed that the pupils who received listening comprehension strategy coaching performed much better than people who failed to receive the strategy coaching. By comparison the results of those 3 studies, it is understood that that meta-cognitive strategies not only facilitate the listeners to set up and value their own listening learning, but also aid their listening comprehension. Those studies showed that the need of learning reinforced the learners' mind to accumulate the data and also the motivation of achieving success fostered the learners' skills to do something to achieve proficiency level of learning.

Even though we believe that our research has provided some new insights into Iranian EFL learners in employing listening, it also has some limitations. First, the purpose of the research was to examine listening strategy use of Iranian EFL learners. Further research needs to be conducted to determine if the findings of this research can be applied to EFL listeners in other similar contexts. Second, we conducted our research at only one site in Iran. Further research should be conducted at other sites in Iran to determine the extent to which the findings of our research can be applied to other Iranian EFL learners. Third, our purpose in conducting this research was not only to answer our research question, but also to begin a process whereby listening comprehension teaching of EFL learners in Iran can be improved. Additional teacher-centered research still needs to be done. More research also should be conducted in identifying new pedagogical approaches that can help learners employ in their ability to understand texts in English.

Other similar studies also report the same statements. We can talk of O'Malley et. al (1989) who indicated that the effective listeners make use of a particular set of listening strategies which differentiate them from ineffective ones or Hosenfeld et al. (1981) who found significant difference between good readers and not-good readers, or Wenden (1998) who reported that meta-cognitive awareness can result in the better performance in the listening skill.

Oxford & Crookall (1989) cites that Language Learning Strategies research is very problematic. It has provided us with many informative information into how students have problems with learning (bad instance) or become successful in learning them (good instance). Moreover, a very important point is that less is clear about how to help learners become more successful pupils.

One other major point or problem O'Malley & Charnot (1990) call our attention to is that strategy use varies with the type of language activity. Thus, language learning strategies including listening ones are more task-dependent not learner-dependent. In fact, it is quite possible a listener who is labeled ineffective can be named effective in other type of task.

The question we must ask is how one can help students learn to listen to a foreign language and maximize what they take away from a listening task. Vogely (1995) backs up the concept that certain listening methods for certain texts can be taught to pupils of all levels of language learning.

VI. CONCLUSION

What can be inferred from the findings of this investigation is that language learning strategies generally and listening strategies particularly can explain some of the differences among students with respect to their function in the listening comprehension skill. The difference between effective and ineffective listeners is not just the number of hours they allocate for practicing listening skill nor can it be due solely to age, sex, motivation, cultural and linguistic background or even level of IQ. It is felt that a part of difference lies not in the above-mentioned factors but in the type of listening strategy they employ in an appropriate situation in order to tackle a particular task consciously.

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Investigating the Iranian EFL Teachers and Learners' Beliefs about Teacher Efficacy

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Abstract—The present study was an attempt to investigate Iranian EFL teachers and learners' beliefs about teacher efficacy. For the purpose of the study, 200 male and female learners, between 20 and 34 years old ($M_{age} = 27$) and 50 male and female teachers, with the age range of 48 from Roudehen Islamic Azad University and Ershade Damavand University, and Tehran Central Branch participated in the study. The participants' beliefs about teacher efficacy were measured using Bandura's teacher efficacy (1997). The results showed that students' belief about teacher efficacy was significantly better ($t = 2.980$, $p = 0.001 < 0.01$). Inspection of the both teachers and students' answers to each question was done by descriptive statistics and also interview was made to find the underlying differences. The results of this study have implications for students, teachers, and all those involved in the area of teaching and learning.

Index Terms—teachers' beliefs, learners' beliefs, teacher efficacy

I. INTRODUCTION

In general, individuals think and act on the base of their beliefs and beliefs of the world. These beliefs and ideas have been shaped through years under the effect of numerous factors and are greatly impressive in people's actions and decisions in life (Pishghadam & Navari, 2010). One variable, which has received a lot of attention recently in language learning process, is the beliefs about language learning.

The significance of learners' belief about second language acquisition (SLA) has been recently emphasized in the literature (Brown, 2009) due to its possible influence on improving independent language learners in future (Wenden, 1999). Second language teachers and students may have more or less similar or different considerations of effective teaching and the meeting point of the two belief systems has helpful consequences for students' language learning and the efficiency of teaching instruction (Brown, 2009). The teacher's roles in the L2 learning process are of considerable importance. No matter what approaches are taken to better understand L2 acquisition and learning, the cognitive tradition or the critical perspective (Johnson, 2004, as cited in Saengboon, 2012), it is widely acknowledged that L2 teachers play key roles in helping the learner to learn. Moreover, while the notion of learner beliefs has been extensively researched (e.g., Benson & Lor, 1999; Huang, 2005), teacher beliefs are few and far between, especially those concerning the Iranian EFL teachers.

One of these important variables in teaching and educational context is teachers Efficacy. Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (1998), state that by teacher efficacy, it means the teachers' beliefs about their abilities to bring about student change and affect their learning even in those difficult or unmotivated students. Teachers with having efficacy believe that they can make a difference in learners' lives, and they teach in ways that prove these changes in their lives (Gibbs, 2002). On the other hand, according to Bandura (1997), teachers with a low level of efficacy have been found to be distrustful both about their own capabilities, and about the abilities of their students and colleagues. In education system, there are some requirements to be certificated as a teacher (Shulman, 1987). Findings from past researches show that beliefs not only affect considerably the teachers' instructional practices and classroom behaviors, but also are associated with their students' performance (Johnson, 2004).

In addition, as the literature suggests learners' belief has been mostly neglected in many researches or educational setting (Barkhuizen, 1998). Moreover, knowing the beliefs of teachers enables one to make predictions about teaching practices and to assess the outcomes of those practices in classrooms (Kumaravadivelu, 1994). Furthermore, researchers insist that teacher efficacy is another important dimension of teachers. According to Guskey (1988), highly effective teachers are more open to new thoughts and are willing to test with new approaches, and they can be determined in dealing with problems and being more resistant in the face of setbacks (Ashton & Webb, 1986).

However, a survey of the literature reveals that little research have been done about both teachers and learners' beliefs on teachers' efficacy. By investigating teacher and learners' beliefs about teacher efficacy, teaching can be improved and developed because Bandura (1997) considered teacher efficacy as a powerful and unique tool for the development of teaching in teachers and achieving in students. Moreover, by studying these concepts, one can also

develop an understanding of the role of efficacy in the teaching process. However, the present study tries to fill a gap through identifying the overall beliefs of students and teachers' beliefs about efficacy.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. *Teacher's Beliefs*

According to Richardson (1996), beliefs may be thought of as psychologically held understanding, principles, or suggestion about the world that are felt to be true. Richardson explains that beliefs and attitudes are subsets of a group of constructs that name; define the configuration and content that derives a person's actions. In the realm of education teachers' beliefs will ultimately affect what they teach and how they teach.

B. *Students' Beliefs*

In cognitive psychology, learner beliefs about the nature of knowledge and learning have been examined with the idea that they are part of the primary instruments of metacognition (Flavell, 1987), form the building blocks of epistemology (Goldman, 1986), and are a driving force in an academic performance. Psychologists have started to recognize the universal effect of personal and social epistemologies on academic learning, thinking, reasoning, and problem solving (Schommer, 1993), persistence (Dweck & Leggett, 1988).

C. *Teachers' Sense of Efficacy*

Applied to the context of education, teacher efficacy is the judgment of his or her abilities in bringing about preferred results of student engagement and learning, even among unmotivated students (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Although teacher efficacy is easily confused with actual teaching efficiency, teacher efficacy beliefs may underestimate, overestimate or precisely reflect actual teaching exactly. To sum up the previous debate about the meaning and assessment of teacher efficacy, teacher efficacy is a theoretically subtle concept that is hard to assess with certainty (Hebert, Lee, & Williamson, 1998, as cited in Wheatley, 2005).

D. *Previous Studies of Teachers' Efficacy*

In the study, which was done by Raudenbush, Rowan, and Cheong (1992), there was a positive feelings of self-efficacy, but not enough, for effective teaching. That is, these positive feelings produce a generative ability that will allow teachers to develop new teaching approaches, increase their effort, and spread out their determination in the face of difficult teaching situations. Consequently, these authors prove that "from this perspective feelings of positive self-efficacy cannot promise effective teaching, since teachers with high levels of self-efficacy may lack the essential knowledge or skills which are real. The study by Davies (2004) was conducted on a sample selected from 35 governments secondary and high schools in, as well as an additional seven teachers from four different schools in South Wales who took part in semi-structured interviews. The participants were 85 teachers from the sample, divided between science and history teachers. Teachers answered the items that assessed their background knowledge as well as items from the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). In order to measure instructional emphasis on higher order thinking processes, Davies was guided by a Raudenbush (1992) scale, which ordered instructional ideas from low to high that encouraged teachers to rank their importance of each objective. The finding of teacher efficacy detects the cyclical nature of this idea and accepts that any teacher efficacy is in a state of growth at any time, as new capabilities are met. No studies have been investigated the Iranian EFL Teachers and Learners' beliefs about Teacher Efficacy. Considering these points, the following research questions were addressed:

RQ1: What are the Iranian EFL teachers' beliefs about teacher efficacy?

RQ2: Is there any significant difference between EFL teachers' and learners' beliefs about teacher efficacy?

III. METHOD

A. *Participants*

Based on practicality and feasibility, the participants of the study included 50 female and male teachers and 230 female and male students from Roudehen Islamic Azad University, Ershade Damavand University, and Tehran at central branch. It is worth noting that 125 students were females and 75 were males. In additions, from the 50 teachers 34 were females and 16 were males. The students were studying in English Translation and English Language Teaching and the mean age of the students was 27 years, ranging from 20-34 years and their average experience in studying English was six years. They all belonged to the same level of education, and they follow the same curriculum. In addition, the mean age of the teachers as participants was 48 years and the teachers' average experience in teaching English was 12-years. For the qualitative aspect of the study, the researchers randomly selected 20 students and 10 teachers who completed the questionnaires, to conduct semi-structured interviews. The sampling procedure for interviews for both students and teachers is random sampling in which each of these 200 students had an equal and independent chance of being selected. The data was gathered during one semester.

B. *Instruments*

Teacher efficacy questionnaire for learners was initially developed with items addressing students' perceptions of the teacher efficacy. The items for their perception about teacher efficacy came from a pilot version. These items were based on the research literature, and some of them were adapted from previous questionnaires designed to measure Bandura's teacher efficacy (1997). This 29-item questionnaire was conducted according to a 5-point scale: "nothing, a little, some influence, quite a bit, a great deal". It is worth noting that after running item analysis, five malfunctioning items were discarded and 24-item questionnaire was administered in main study. It is worth mentioning that the reliability of the questionnaire after discarding malfunctioning items was 0.89.

Teacher efficacy questionnaire for teachers was initially developed with items addressing teachers' perceptions of their own efficacy. The questionnaire was based on the research literature, and some of them were adapted from previous questionnaires designed to measure Bandura's teacher efficacy (1997). This 29-item questionnaire was on a 5-point scale: "nothing, a little, some influence, quite a bit, a great deal". It is worth noting that after running item analysis, five malfunctioning items were discarded based on teachers' ideas and 24-item questionnaire was administered in main study. It is worth mentioning that the reliability of the questionnaire after discarding malfunctioning items was 0.912.

A semi-structured interview with 3 questions about teacher efficacy was prepared regarding teachers and learners' perceptions based on the questionnaires. It is worth noting that the interview comprised 6 questions with 5-point Likert scales from "Strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree"

C. Procedure

To assess the validity of teacher efficacy questionnaires, the researcher conducted a pilot study with 30 female and male students and also 30 female and male teachers with the same characteristics of the main participants. Analyzing the learners' and teachers' responses and having their comments, the researcher modified the questionnaires and omitted the malfunctioning items. The analysis of the pilot study data was done by using Cronbach's Alpha to see whether the questionnaires are reliable enough to be implemented in the study or not. The modified questionnaires were distributed to 230 female and male learners and 50 female and male teachers from Roudehen Islamic Azad University and Ershad Damavand University and Tehran Central Branch. During class time, the questionnaires were administered preceded by a brief explanation of the purpose and nature of the study. In this regard, a brief informative oral overview of the nature and purpose of the study before implementing the questionnaires were given to both the students and teachers. After the completion of the instrument, the completed questionnaires were collected and scored by the researcher, but there are just 200 questionnaires out of 230 were answered completely. The questionnaire took about 10 minutes to be completed. After gathering information through the questionnaire, the research had an interview with 20 students and 10 teachers. Three questions based on the questionnaire were asked and the answers were rated based on five-likert scale. This descriptive study was of a mixed-method by using both qualitative and quantitative approach. For the null hypothesis, teachers and learners' beliefs are proposed as the dependent variables while the teacher efficacy is considered as the independent variables. Gender and age are considered as intervening variables. In order to collect data through the Likert-scale items in the questionnaires, the quantitative data analysis component was applied to the collected data. The data emerging from answering the Likert-scale are numerical. Hence, they were analyzed quantitatively. In order to summarize the participants' responses, descriptive statistics such as frequencies, means, and standard deviations were calculated. The measure of central tendency, including mean, the measures of variability, including range and variance (or the standard deviation), and the measure of frequency, including percentage of answers to each scale in each item, were done, too. In order to determine the underlying factors that may account for the main bases of variation among the individuals' answers to the teacher efficacy, Factor analysis was used. Cronbach Alpha formula was also used to estimate the reliability and consistency of the instruments. In order to compare beliefs of the students and teachers' perception about teachers' efficacy, the researcher used an independent samples *t*-test in order to compare the significant difference between the two groups' means and to test the null hypothesis. Through Qualitative data analysis, the process of breaking down and restructuring the information was done so as to decode the data. In fact, qualitative data analysis was applied in the analysis of the responses to the open-ended questions collected from interviews.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

At the outset of the study, a pilot was conducted. The researcher employed two adopted questionnaires, using Likert-type scale. At this stage, the researcher was specifically interested in assuring that a valid and reliable indication of subjects' attitude could be extracted through the questionnaires. For this purpose, the researcher piloted the student questionnaire among 30 students who bore almost the same characteristics of the main participants and also piloted the teacher questionnaire among 30 teachers bearing the similar characteristics of the main participants. The Cronbach's alpha for the teacher efficacy questionnaire based on students' point of view was 0.884 while the Cronbach's alpha for the teacher efficacy questionnaire based on teachers' point of view 0.905. Moreover, each questionnaire went through item analysis to see if there is any malfunctioning item. The analysis showed that items 5, 10, 15, 16, and 17 were of both efficacy questionnaires were malfunctioning. So these items were discarded. The Cronbach's alpha for the teacher efficacy questionnaire after discarding malfunctioning items based on students' point of view was 0.890 while the Cronbach's alpha for the teacher efficacy questionnaire after discarding malfunctioning items based on teachers' point

of view 0.912. Moreover, the validity of both questionnaires was checked through factor analysis. Followings are the descriptive statistics of answers to Teacher Efficacy questionnaire both by students and teachers.

TABLE I.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF ANSWERS TO TEACHER EFFICACY QUESTIONNAIRE BY BOTH STUDENTS AND TEACHERS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Std. Error
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	
Students	200	50.00	120.00	80.3300	13.51571	.136	.172
Teachers	50	50.00	108.00	73.1600	14.55091	.647	.337
Valid N (listwise)	50						

As it is evident from the table above, there is a different between the mean of two groups, student having the mean of 80.33 and teachers having the mean of 73.16.

Furthermore, the percentage of answers to each item by both students and teachers were reported as below. Forty percent of students think that their teacher may help other teacher with their teaching skills while 50 percent of teachers think that they may provide their colleagues with a little or no help regarding their teaching skills. The results also showed that while almost half of students think that teachers can make a quite good or great help to administrators to make a more effective school, only 20 percent of teachers think they can do so. Furthermore, while only 24 percent of students think that teachers may have a little influence on reducing the drop-outs, almost a half of teachers think of themselves as a little influence in doing so. Finally, while only 20 percent of teachers think they can do a good job to help to reduce absenteeism, more than half of the students have such an idea. The inspection of the overall percentages indicated that students think of teacher efficacy to make a good school climate more than what teachers do.

Finally to test the null hypothesis, an independent samples t-test was done. As it is evident in Table 1 above, regarding teachers' efficacy questionnaire, both distributions manifested normality with their skewness ratios ($0.137 / 0.241 = 0.568$; $0.647 / 0.337 = 1.919$) falling between the acceptable ± 1.96 range); so running an independent samples t-test was legitimized to compare the two groups' means. As it is evident from the table below, with the F value of 1.086 at the significance level of 0.299 being larger than 0.05, the inconsistencies between the two groups were not meaningfully different. Therefore, the results of the t-test with the assumption of homogeneity of the variances were reported here.

TABLE II.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE TEACHERS' EFFICACY FROM STUDENTS AND TEACHERS' POINT OF VIEW

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Teacher Efficacy	Equal variances assumed	1.290	.257	3.304	248	.001	7.17000	2.17034	2.89535	11.44465
	Equal variances not assumed			3.160	71.597	.002	7.17000	2.26891	2.64658	11.69342

The results ($t = 3.304$, $p = 0.001 < 0.01$) indicate that there was a significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups. Hence, the first null hypothesis was rejected and it was shown that there was a significant difference between the Teachers' efficacy from students' and teachers' point of view. As a part of survey, both teachers and students were asked to sit in an interview. Three questions based on the questionnaires were asked from them and the answers were rated according to five-likert scale which was Strongly agree (5), Agree (4), Neutral (3), Disagree (2), Strongly disagree (1).

Moreover, as evident form the result of interview regarding the first question(Do you think teachers' perceptions of efficacy influence the students' achievement?), most of the respondents, either teachers or students, were agree or strongly agree that efficacy could help learners' achievement; meaning that both teachers and students were aware of the effect of efficacy on the achievement. Regarding the second question (Does the school leader do anything to support teachers in their work?), both teachers and students stated that the school leader do much less than support to the teachers. This seems to be a very disappointing point to educational system. Regarding the third question, (Is the teacher efficacy the key point in making students learn better?), students believe that the key point in making students learn better is the teacher efficacy while the teachers are not considering it as a key point, yet they emphasize its importance.

V. CONCLUSION

A. Findings

As a result, it can be concluded that the students think of teachers' efficacy to make a good school climate more than what teachers think. In fact, 40 percent of students think that their teacher may help other teacher with their teaching skills while 50 percent of teachers think that they may provide their colleagues with a little or no help concerning their teaching skills. . The results also indicated that while almost half of students think that teachers can make a quite good

or great help to administrators to make a more effective school, only 20 percent of teachers think they can do so. Moreover, while only 24 percent of students think that teachers may have a little influence on reducing the drop-outs, almost a half of teachers think of themselves as a little influence in doing so. Finally, while only 20 percent of teachers think they can do a good job to help to reduce absenteeism, more than half of the students have such an idea. The findings of this study were also in line with that of Raudenbush and colleagues (1992). They reported that there was a positive feelings of self-efficacy, but not enough for effective teaching. That is, these positive feelings produce a generative ability that will let teachers improve new teaching approaches, increase their power, and extend their perseverance in the face of difficult teaching circumstances. Specifically, these studies have demonstrated that there is a strong link between the verified knowledge of teachers and their reported feelings of teaching efficacy. Thus, it can be concluded that feelings of positive self-efficacy cannot guarantee effective teaching, as teachers with high levels of self-efficacy may lack the essential knowledge or skills, which are real.

B. Applications and Implications

Teachers can use the result of this study in order to maximize the quality of their teaching. Regarding teachers' efficacy, teachers can prepare some information to initiate the new way. Being aware of learners' beliefs regarding teachers' efficacy allows teachers to think critically about these issues. By knowing their ideas, teachers can provide situations in which they can use their ideas in the classroom and applied them in their teaching. By providing insights gained from the results of this study teachers can develop an awareness regarding what factors students find important about teacher efficacy effective and can consequently provide learners with better learning opportunities by studying these perceptions. The sense of knowing about efficacy influences teachers' instructional behavior, classroom organization, and feedback patterns to students who are particularly experiencing difficulty in language learning. The implication of the findings of this study for teacher educators and teacher trainers is to familiarize them with the issue of teacher efficacy. Therefore, results of the current study have implications for language learners, encouraging them to be more aware not only about their teachers' beliefs, but also about their own beliefs in language learning regarding teacher efficacy. Moreover, results of the current study have implications for language learners, encouraging them to be more aware not only about their teachers' beliefs, but also about their own beliefs in language learning regarding teacher efficacy.

C. Suggestions for Further Research

Besides teachers' beliefs about their efficacy, their personal characteristics (e.g. teacher experience, education level, teacher academic ability, teaching assignment) and personality factors are crucial to be investigated too. In addition, this research was done on BA students majoring in English. Further studies can be conducted in different educational settings including language institutes, MA students as well as students majoring in different disciplines. Moreover, the learners as participants were aged within the range of 20-34. In addition, the mean range of teachers as participants was 40. Teachers' age is another investigated variable with relation to self-efficacy. Also, longitudinal studies can be conducted in this respect.

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English-major Pre-service Teachers' Language Learning Strategy Use in terms of Enjoyment of English Learning

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Abstract—Language learning strategies (LLSs) play important roles in learners' language learning. The study investigated the use of LLSs employed by English-major pre-service teachers in Midwest China by enjoyment of English learning. The modified SILL was used to collect the data. ANOVA and Post Hoc Scheffe Test were performed for data analysis. The results demonstrated that a significant variation in their pre-service teachers reported frequency of overall strategy use, all the four categories, and 41 out of 48 individual LLSs. Pre-service teachers with higher enjoyment of English learning use more strategies than counterparts with lower enjoyment of English learning. Implications of the findings for English teaching and learning were discussed.

Index Terms—language learning strategies, enjoyment of English learning, English-major pre-service teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

Language learning strategies (LLSs) are stated as 'the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 1).' They are one of the main factors determining how and how well learners learn an L2 (Oxford, 2001). They can help learners facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of information and increase self-confidence (Chang, Liu & Lee, 2007). Oxford (1990) produces her classification LLS system with six categories: memory, cognitive, metacognitive, compensation, social, and affective strategies. She (2011) puts forward a new Strategic Self-Regulation Model of language learning as well, in which LLSs are divided into metastrategies, cognitive strategies, affective strategies, and sociocultural-interactive (SI) strategies.

The study of LLSs has contributed to SLA theory for learners have made some contributions to L2 learning and the study has provided a research-informed basis for helping learners learn more efficiently by identifying strategies that work and training them to make use of these (Ellis, 2008). Early search on LLSs took the form of good language learner study (e.g. Rubin, 1975; Naiman et al. 1978; Reiss, 1983; Lennon, 1989). Then more studies have been focused on factors influencing choices of LLSs, which are generally divided into learner factors (eg. Nation & McLaughlin, 1986; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001; Littlemore, 2001; Carson & Longhini, 2002) and social and situational factors (e.g. Chamot & O'Malley, 1987; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Warton, 2000; Peacock & Ho, 2003). Then researchers have shown more interest in the relationship among LLSs, other variables of individual differences, and learning outcomes (e.g. Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Lee & Oxford, 2008; Wong & Nunan, 2011).

Several studies have been concerned with the effects of enjoyment of English learning on LLS use. According to Jacky (2011), a link between enjoyment and learning is a longstanding hypothesis. Mochizuki's (1999) study shows that enjoyment of English learning influences the choice of strategies. Griffin (2005) insists that learning should be fun, utilizing a 'pedagogy of enjoyment'. Students' lack of enjoyment of learning has been implied to be a cause of failure to learn. Wong and Nunan's (2011) study shows that the aspect of enjoyment of learning English reveals a significant difference between more and less effective students.

Research on LLSs in China began in China in the middle of 1980s and has made great achievements. There are some typical studies. Wang (1995) made comparisons of the LLS use between a successful and an unsuccessful learner, and found that learners' LLS use has great effect on their achievements. Zhang (2004) explored the effects of tolerance of ambiguity on strategy choice. The results showed that learners with high level of tolerance of ambiguity selected strategies appropriately and used them effectively, and vice versa. Chang and Liu (2013) investigated learners' strategy use by motivation, and found that motivation has high correlations with metacognitive and cognitive strategies.

In the Chinese context, several studies have also found that enjoyment of English learning has some effects on LLS choice. Rao (2008) examined the strategy use of a group of non-English majors in a university in terms of enjoyment of

English learning. The results revealed that enjoyment of English learning exhibited a significant effect on frequency of overall strategy use across the entire SILL. Students who enjoyed English learning reported using strategies significantly more frequently than those who did not enjoy English learning. However, there are still very few studies on the effects of enjoyment of English learning on learners' strategy use. Therefore, there is significance to examine LLS use by English-major pre-service teachers in Midwest China in terms of this variable.

However, seldom empirical studies have been conducted to explore LLS use by English-major pre-service teachers in Midwest China by enjoyment of English learning. Therefore, the present study was intended to explore the use of LLSs employed by English-major pre-service teachers in Midwest China by enjoyment of English learning. The following are research questions for the study: (1) What is the frequency of strategy use employed by English-major pre-service teachers in the Midwest of China in terms of enjoyment of English learning? (2) Do the choices of LLS use vary significantly in terms of enjoyment of English learning at the overall, category and individual levels? If they do, what are the main patterns of variation?

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants in the present study are junior English-major pre-service teachers in the Midwest of China. They are English majors in Normal Universities in China, whose career orientation is primary or middle school English teachers after being trained for 4 years. They have already got the results of the national English proficiency test. The participants were chosen by cluster sampling, purposive sampling and convenience sampling methods. At first, three provinces: Hunan, Guizhou and Shanxi were chosen by cluster sampling; then two normal universities in each province were selected by purposive sampling; and finally, by convenience sampling, the participants were chosen from each of the six normal universities. At last, 836 participants from six normal universities took part in the investigation. The detailed information of the different levels of participants' enjoyment of English learning is in Table 1 as follows.

TABLE I
NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS BY ENJOYMENT OF ENGLISH LEARNING

Variable	Number of Participants	
Enjoyment of English Learning	High (367)	Total (836)
	Moderate (291)	Total (836)
	Low (178)	Total (836)

B. Instruments

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) used in the present study was combined and modified according to the SILL Version 7.0 (Oxford, 1990), adapted SILL Version 7.0 (Yin, 2008), and adapted SILL Version 5.1 (Rao, 2008). A 5-point rating scale modifying Oxford's (1990) was used to value the frequency of participants' LLS use, valued as 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5, representing 'Never / almost never', 'Usually not', 'Sometimes', 'Usually' and 'Always / almost always' separately. After a pilot study, 48 strategy items were settled and categorized according to Oxford's (2011) four categories: 13 metastrategies (MET), 18 cognitive strategies (COG), 7 affective strategies (AFF), and 10 socio-cultural interactive strategies (SCI). The estimated reliability (α) of the questionnaire was .92, which was acceptable compared with the reliability coefficient .70 (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000).

To assess enjoyment of English learning, the participants were asked the following question: 'Do you enjoy learning English?' with the response options below: a) Not at all, b) Not very much, c) Somewhat, d) A lot, and e) Extremely, which is modified based on the biographical and attitudinal information in the instrument by Wong and Nunan (2011).

C. Data Collection

The process of collecting the data was conducted during the class time. The researcher explained the aim and the nature of the survey to the participants. The English teachers in those classes were trained ahead of time to assist administering the questionnaires. Students were informed that there is no right or wrong answers on the questionnaires and the respondents will not be affected personally. The whole process in each class was about 30 minutes in total. Finally, 836 valid questionnaires were collected.

D. Data Analysis

The data was analyzed by the SPSS program. The statistical method of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to determine the variations of LLS use by the pre-service teachers' at the overall, category and individual levels, and the variations of strategy use among different levels of enjoyment of English learning was examined by the Post-hoc Scheffe test.

III. RESULTS

The results of variations in the frequency of strategy use by pre-service teachers' according to the different levels of enjoyment of English learning are presented as follows.

A. Variations in Frequency of Pre-service Teachers' Strategy Use at the Overall Level

TABLE II
SUMMARY OF VARIATION IN PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' OVERALL LLS USE

Variable		N	Mean	S.D.	Sig. Level	Variation Pattern
Enjoyment of English Learning	Low	178	2.80	.46	P < .001	High > Moderate > Low
	Moderate	291	2.94	.40		
	High	367	3.19	.47		

As can be seen in Table II above, the results show that the significant variations in the overall LLS use among pre-service teachers with 'high', 'moderate' and 'low' enjoyment of English learning, with the mean frequency scores of 3.19, 2.94 and 2.80 respectively. It indicates that the pre-service teachers who enjoyed learning English at the higher level reported employing significantly greater overall strategy use than those who enjoyed learning English at the lower level.

B. Variations in Frequency of Pre-service Teachers' LLS Use under the Four Categories

Table II below demonstrates the significant variations in the mean frequency scores of pre-service teachers' LLS use by the four categories in relation to enjoyment of English learning.

TABLE III
VARIATION IN LLS USE IN CATEGORIES BY ENJOYMENT OF ENGLISH LEARNING

Strategy Categories	High (n=367)		Moderate (n=291)		Low (n=178)		Sig. Level	Variation Pattern
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
MET	3.27	.59	2.96	.48	2.79	.52	P<.001	H>M>L
COG	3.13	.47	2.93	.37	2.80	.49	P<.001	H>M>L
AFF	3.43	.62	3.20	.58	3.08	.62	P<.001	H>M; H>L
SCI	3.01	.60	2.77	.53	2.60	.55	P<.001	H>M>L

Notes: * P<.05, ** P<.01, *** P<.001; 'H' means 'high', 'M' means 'moderate', and 'L' means 'low'

Based on the ANOVA and post hoc Scheffe test results, Table III above presents that significant differences were found in the use of LLSs in all the four categories according to enjoyment of English learning. Pre-service teachers who enjoy learning English at the higher level reported employing strategies significantly more frequently than those who enjoyed learning English at the lower level in the MET, COG and SCI categories, while pre-service teachers who enjoyed learning English at the high level reported employing strategies significantly more frequently than those who enjoyed learning English at the moderate or low level in the AFF category.

C. Variations in Frequency of Pre-service Teachers' Strategy Use at the Individual Level

The results of Tables IV below demonstrate the significant variations in frequency of strategy use by pre-service teachers at the individual strategy level by enjoyment of English learning.

TABLE IV
 VARIATION IN INDIVIDUAL LLS USE BY ENJOYMENT OF ENGLISH LEARNING

Individual LLSs High >Moderate, High >Low (26 LLSs)	High (n=367)		Moderate (n=291)		Low (n=178)		Sig. Level	Variation Pattern
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
MET 23 Planning one's schedule so one will have enough time to learn English	2.96	1.12	2.56	.94	2.33	.98	P < .001	1.H > M 2.H > L
SCI 34 Asking one's English teacher or fluent speakers of English to correct when one is talking	2.94	1.11	2.68	1.06	2.49	1.09	P < .001	1.H > M 2.H > L
MET 45 Improving one's English from different websites	2.93	1.10	2.51	1.04	2.35	.98	P < .001	1.H > M 2.H > L
COG 2 Using new English words in a sentence so that one can remember them	2.87	.91	2.57	.82	2.38	.82	P < .001	1.H > M 2.H > L
COG 6 Reviewing English lessons often	2.87	.94	2.65	.80	2.50	.92	P < .001	1.H > M 2.H > L
SCI 35 Practicing speaking English with other students	2.80	.98	2.56	.91	2.42	.93	P < .001	1.H > M 2.H > L
SCI 46 Participating in extra-curricular activities	2.58	1.04	2.21	.99	2.08	.914	P < .001	1.H > M 2.H > L
COG 11 Writing diaries or short articles in English	2.54	.92	2.26	.93	2.14	.94	P < .001	1.H > M 2.H > L
Individual LLSs High >Low (9 LLSs)	High (n=367)		Moderate (n=291)		Low (n=178)		Sig. Level	Variation Pattern
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
COG 3 Connecting the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help one remember the word	3.04	1.09	2.85	.94	2.72	1.04	P < .001	H > L
COG 18 Reading English without looking up every new word	3.34	1.08	3.26	.96	3.08	1.11	P < .05	H > L
COG 19 Trying to predict what the other person will say next in English	2.66	1.14	2.47	1.00	2.39	1.03	P < .05	H > L
AFF 27 Trying to relax whenever feeling afraid of using English	3.27	.94	3.22	.98	3.04	1.03	P < .05	H > L
AFF 29 Giving oneself a reward or treat when one does well in English	3.20	1.16	3.02	1.10	2.88	1.09	P < .01	H > L
SCI 33 Asking the interlocutor to slow down or say it again if one doesn't understand	3.58	.99	3.40	.93	3.27	.97	P < .01	H > L
SCI 39 Getting in touch with one's friends in English, for example, writing e-mails or letters	2.26	1.09	2.19	1.05	1.96	1.04	P < .001	H > L
COG 40 Remembering new expressions by two-way translation	3.03	1.05	2.89	1.02	2.65	1.13	P < .001	H > L
MET 47 Doing a lot of exam-oriented exercises before exams	3.51	1.09	3.33	1.05	3.22	1.02	P < .01	H > L
Individual LLSs High >Moderate >Low (5 LLSs)	High (n=367)		Moderate (n=291)		Low (n=178)		Sig. Level	Variation Pattern
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
COG 1 Thinking of relationships between what one already knows and new things one learns in English	3.26	.79	2.99	.71	2.76	.83	P < .001	H > M > L
SCI 8 Trying to talk like native speakers	3.10	1.11	2.84	1.01	2.58	1.04	P < .001	H > M > L
MET 26 Thinking about one's progress in learning English	3.35	.97	3.11	.85	2.86	.84	P < .001	H > M > L
AFF 28 Encouraging oneself to speak English even when one is afraid of making mistakes	3.50	.98	3.25	.93	2.92	.94	P < .001	H > M > L
SCI 37 Trying to learn about the culture of English-speaking countries	2.89	1.01	3.27	.91	2.89	1.01	P < .001	H > M > L
Individual LLSs High >Low, Moderate >Low (1 LLS)	High (n=367)		Moderate (n=291)		Low (n=178)		Sig. Level	Variation Pattern
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
COG 7 Remembering new English words or phrases by remembering the context in which they appear	3.20	.95	3.11	.89	2.86	.95	P < .001	1. H > L 2. M > L

Notes: * P<.05, ** P<.01, *** P<.001; 'H' means 'high', 'M' means 'moderate', and 'L' means 'low'

We can see from Table IV above, the ANOVA results reveal that significant variations were found in use of 41 individual LLSs, among which are 15 cognitive strategies (COG), 11 metacognitive strategies (MET), 8 affective strategies (AFF), and 7 sociocultural-interactive strategies (SCI).

The post hoc Fisher's LSD test shows that 4 variation patterns were found: 1) H > M, H > L; 2) H > L; 3) H > M > L; 4) H > L, M > L. In 1) 'H > M, H > L' variation pattern, 26 strategies were reported being used significantly more frequently by pre-service teachers who enjoyed English learning at the high level than those who enjoyed English

learning at the moderate level and low level, for example: 'Using a circumlocution if one can't think of a precise English word' (COG 20). In 2) 'H > L' variation pattern, 9 strategies were reported being used significantly more frequently by pre-service teachers who enjoyed English learning at the high level than those who enjoyed English learning at the low level, for example: 'Connecting the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help one remember the word (COG 3)'. In 3) 'H > M > L' variation pattern, 5 strategies were reported being used significantly more frequently by pre-service teachers who enjoyed English learning at higher level than those at lower level, for example: 'Thinking of relationships between what one already knows and new things one learns in English (COG 1)'. In 4) 'H > L, M > L' variation pattern, only 1 strategy was reported being used significantly more frequently by pre-service teachers who enjoyed English learning at both high level and moderate level than those at the low level. The strategy is: 'Remembering new English words or phrases by remembering the context in which they appear (COG 7)'.

IV. DISCUSSION

Enjoyment of English learning is one of the factors that affect learners' choices of language learning strategies (Mochizuki, 1999). Mochizuki (1999) examined Japanese university students' strategy use by enjoyment of English learning and finds that students who enjoy learning English use more strategies in the overall strategy use, and in the cognitive, metacognitive, and social strategies by category. Rao (2008) examined the strategy use of a group of non-English majors in a Chinese university in terms of enjoyment of English learning, and finds that that enjoyment of English learning exhibits a significant effect on frequency of overall strategy use across the entire SILL; students who enjoy English learning report using strategies significantly more frequently than those who do not enjoy English learning. Wong and Nunan (2011) explored whether more effective and less effective learners differ in their enjoyment of learning English. The results show that the aspect of enjoyment of learning English reveals a significant difference between more and less effective students. Seventy-eight per cent of more effective but only twenty-seven per cent of less effective students report enjoying English a great deal, and twenty-four per cent of less effective students report that they do not like learning English at all.

The findings of the present study demonstrate that pre-service teachers with higher enjoyment of English learning reported employing strategies more frequently than did the counterparts with lower enjoyment of English learning in the overall strategy use and strategy use in the MET, COG and SCI categories, and for the AFF category, those who enjoy learning English at the high level reported employing strategies significantly more frequently than those at the moderate or low level. The results are consistent with the results of the studies by Mochizuki (1999), Rao (2008), and Wong and Nunan (2011).

The findings also reveal that 41 out of 48 individual LLSs varied significantly according to pre-service teachers' enjoyment of English learning, with 4 different patterns of variations: 1) high > moderate, high > low. Twenty-six strategies fall into this variation pattern; 2) high > low. Nine strategies fall into this variation pattern; 3) high > moderate > low, with 5 strategies; and 4) high > low, moderate > low, with only 1 strategy. Since there are very few studies on the effects of enjoyment of English learning on learners' language learning strategy use, it is difficult to make more comparisons with previous studies.

The first possible reason which may explain the high frequency of strategy use by pre-service teachers with high enjoyment of English learning is the role of enjoyment of English learning. According to Griffin (2005, p. 141), "enjoyment colors the learner's world and fills experience with positive energy and hope", insisting that learning should be fun, utilizing a 'pedagogy of enjoyment'. Jacky (2011) points out that students' lack of enjoyment of learning has been taken as a cause of multiple failures in education, and much discussion has assumed that learning depends on a willingness to go in for and to insist on, which will not come if the learning task is not assessed as potentially enjoyable, leading to motivation to begin, and experienced as enjoyable, leading to perseverance.

The second possible reason is because of language latency. It means that learners with higher language proficiency will have higher enjoyment of English learning, which will have effects on their strategy choice, as Wong and Nunan (2011)'s results showed that the aspect of enjoyment of learning English reveals a significant difference between more and less effective students, with seventy-eight per cent of more effective but only twenty-seven per cent of less effective students report enjoying English a great deal, and twenty-four per cent of less effective students report that they do not like learning English at all.

In summary, the two hypothesized reasons: 1) the role of enjoyment of English learning, and 2) pre-service teachers with higher language proficiency will have higher enjoyment of English learning, which will have effects on their strategy choice. However, it can not be taken so definitely what really caused these significant variations. Therefore, it is still necessary to do more investigations.

V. CONCLUSION

The investigation explored the LLS use employed by the English-major pre-service teachers in the Midwest of China according to enjoyment of English learning. The findings have shown that a significant variation in their reported frequency of overall strategy use, all the four categories, and 41 out of 48 individual LLSs. Generally speaking,

pre-service teachers with higher enjoyment of English learning use more strategies than counterparts with lower enjoyment of English learning. Therefore, it is recommended that teachers of English should arouse pre-service teachers' enjoyment of English learning, for example, keep trying different teaching methods and making modifications to find some teaching methods or styles that students think they are interesting, help them get touch to rich English learning materials on internet, help create good English speaking environments, encourage them to use various learning strategies to learn English, encourage them to do more communication with their friends, etc., with the purpose of helping them become more interested in learning English.

APPENDIX. STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING (SILL)

This questionnaire is to investigate the language learning strategy use by English-major pre-service teachers. I would like to ask you to do me a favor by making the choice of the frequency of your strategy use. There are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers. Your answers will be used for academic research only and will be treated with the utmost confidentiality. Thank you for your kindly participation and cooperation!

Instructions: This questionnaire consists two parts:

Part 1 Personal information

Part 2 Language Learning Strategy Questionnaire

Part 1 Personal information

Please provide your personal information by putting a tick () in the box of the choices given or write the response where necessary.

Your university: _____

Your age: _____

Your gender: Male Female

Do you enjoy learning English?

Not at all Not very much Somewhat A lot Extremely

How long have you learned English outside of class everyday in general?

Less than 1 hour 1 to 2 hours More than 2 hours

Your score of TEM-4 is?:

Under 50 50-59 60-69 70-79 Over 80

Part 2 Language Learning Strategy Questionnaire

Instructions: *The Language Learning Strategy Questionnaire is designed to gather information about the use of strategies in English. In the statements below, you will find various language learning strategy items. Please read each statement carefully and consider how frequently you employ the given strategies. '1' stands for 'Never or almost never used'; '2' for 'Generally not used'; '3' for 'Sometimes used'; '4' for 'Generally used'; and '5' for 'Always or almost always used'. There are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers. Please mark your response with a '√' in the corresponding spaces according to what you really think. Thank you for your cooperation!*

Language Learning Strategies	Frequency of Strategy Use				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I use new English words in a sentence so that I can remember them.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I use vocabulary books or electronic dictionaries to remember new English words.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I say or write new English words several times to remember them.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I review English lessons often.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering the contexts in which they appear.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I try to talk like native speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I watch English-speaking movies or TV programs.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I read newspapers, magazines, and books in English.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I write diaries or short articles in English.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I listen to English radio programs, news or English songs on Internet, by MP3/4, or by mobile phone.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I get the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand, such as roots, prefixes, and suffixes.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I try not to translate word-for-word.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I guess the meaning of the unfamiliar English words.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I use gestures to convey my meaning during a conversation in English.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I make up new words if I do not know the precise ones in English.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I read English without looking up every new word.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I try to predict what the other person will say next in English.	1	2	3	4	5
20. If I cannot think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I improve my English from my own mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I try to find out how to learn English well.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I plan my schedule so that I will have enough time to learn English.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I look for opportunities/chances to read as much as possible in English.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I think about my progress in learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I tell myself that there is always more to learn when learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I notice whether I am nervous or not when I am reading or using English.	1	2	3	4	5
32. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
33. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	1	2	3	4	5
34. I ask my English teacher or fluent speakers of English to correct me when I talk.	1	2	3	4	5
35. I practice speaking English with other students.	1	2	3	4	5
36. I ask for help from my English teacher or my friends.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I try to learn about the culture of English-speaking countries.	1	2	3	4	5
38. I practice English reading on the Internet.	1	2	3	4	5
39. I get touch with my friends in English, for example, writing e-mails or letters.	1	2	3	4	5
40. I remember new expressions by two-way translation.	1	2	3	4	5
41. I try to understand the complex English sentences by analyzing their grammatical structures.	1	2	3	4	5
42. I systematically review vocabulary, texts and notes before exams.	1	2	3	4	5
43. I participate in classroom activities in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
44. I attend extra classes at a language school.	1	2	3	4	5
45. I improve my English from different websites.	1	2	3	4	5
46. I participate in extra-curricular activities.	1	2	3	4	5
47. I do a lot of exam-oriented exercises before exams.	1	2	3	4	5
48. I always encourage myself not to be discouraged by poor exam results.	1	2	3	4	5

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A Review of Shahriar's Persian Divan Words

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Abstract—The main objective of this study is to review the vocabulary reservoir of Shahriar's Divan linguistically. He has spent a lot of time on creating literary style. His works still maintain its artistic effects. His literary speech still interests every reader to be curious about the history of the evolution of literary form of Persian language. As this is the first study that has been done in the field of the vocabulary reservoir of Shahriar's Persian Divan, Persian Philology categories have been fully presented, the verbal and semantic characteristics of Persian vocabulary reservoir are reflected. Throughout the divan, synonyms have a distinctive feature. Other categories of words such as antonyms, kinds of figures of speech, allusions, simile, metaphor, bilingualism are of important subjects. Selection of the appropriate rhymes is evident in Divan. Shahriar's Divan has also been reviewed linguistically by studying its meaningful examples of poetry. In this study, the volumes published in 2006 have been used. Selecting proper rhymes is evident in Divan. Using antonyms creates various positions and occasions in stylistics.

Index Terms—Shahriar, Persian Divan, vocabulary, literary arrangement

I. INTRODUCTION

In medieval times and later in Persia, Azerbaijan, Central Asia, Caucasus, India, Afghanistan and Saudi Arabia, some poets that have composed Divans in Persian. These Divans have often been studied by literary researchers; but less linguistic and stylistics researches have been done on them. By the review of language and style of the Divan, in fact, new viewpoints are created in his poetry. Hence, linguistic and stylistic study of his Persian Divan is of up to date subjects in understanding his works. The editor of divan is Hamid Mohammadzadeh. It has got a special place among Persian divans. Elegance in themes, articulation, and power of eloquence is noteworthy. Among his works, his Persian Divan has consistently interested the readers. Aghdai (2014) says that the tradition of Persian poetry is significantly seen. Nevertheless Divan is not empty of new themes and new ideas. Shahriar's poetry is full of rich meanings, concepts, metaphors, mysteries, similes and hyperboles.

Batani (1995) says that Shahriar, by his lofty artistry and delicate use of Persian language, could arrange a divan that brings him reputation and acceptance. In it, simple expressions and clear ideas exist. Deep and complex themes are expressed as clearly and exquisitely. Among some of the subjects, he approaches to slangs and uses the current poem rhymes. Jafari (2013) says that The language of Divan is full of traditional vocabulary reservoir; and also contains contemporary and modern words and terms. In his poems, peak of classical art can be seen. Also, In Sarmad's opinion (2016), simplicity and fluency of Shahriar's modern poem as a popular poet, makes him privileged from classical poets." Divan was first published in 1930 and last in 2006, containing lyrics, pieces, odes, quatrains, couplet poems (Mathnavi) in two volumes of 1402 pages.

Laver (1991), declares that a poet's speech indicates his/her characteristics of poetic talent in the poems. Shahriar has gone vicissitudinous path of literary creativity. His work still maintains its artistic effect. His literary language is interesting for the review of the evolutionary history of Persian literary language figure. Shahriar's Persian elegance shows his mastery in language full of lexical features. Similarities and synonyms in his language double its beauty.

II. METHODOLOGY

This research was conducted in library routine and note taking method. In this method, Turkish loan words in Divan's lexical combinations, new and modern metonymies are distinguished. This method is a suitable approach to linguistics and stylistics points of Persian poetry and Shahriar's poetry research. Among Farsi divans, the research assumptions of Shahriar's Persian Divan have got a special place in terms of time. The rules of grammar are observed. Saadatinia (2012) believes that by using slangs with poetic skill and poet's style, the simplicity of language is obvious in the work. Literary arrangements are abundant in divan.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Considering the above systems and manners of the research, lexical categories and concepts are analyzed in different categories and discussed according to their characters in verses as:

1. Synonyms

By these words Shahriar takes a lot of advantages of richness to achieve elegance and accuracy in meanings. Also, by combining various vocal elegances, synonyms indicate different meanings of one concept (sense). He has benefited

from synonyms and etymology that reflect the fine emotional expressions in Divan. They are so many in numbers that it deserves to review in terms of stylistics. Especially, the application of them in pairs is seen in abundance. This lexical issue in the art of poetry is considered important among the manners of stylistics. These works sometimes indicate "The difficulty of poetry" the same as "The difficulty of selecting synonyms".

1-1. Noun

Synonyms with the conjunction "and"

In Persian, synonyms are also called identical and replacements. In divan, they play an important role in poetic vocabulary reservoir discussion. In Shahriar's Divan (2006), synonyms are often used with conjunctions. Including "and", that emphasizes to earn significance in meaning.

The use of pairs of synonyms with the word "and" in Shahriar's poetical works are abundant. In the following, Anvari(1996), refers to the application in a variety of words such as: *Wish and hope* (p. 442), *harm and damage* (p. 604), *shiver and shake* (p. 592), *speech and talking* (p. 229), *design and graph* (p. 927), *justice and fairness* (p. 107), *revelation and inspiration* (p. 790) *understanding and perception* (p. 791) *reason and cause* (p. 501), *obeying and submission* (p. 806).

These synonyms are sometimes used in plural form such as: *melodies and songs* (p. 887), *gleanings and crumbs*. (p.93):

Slices, *big and fat*, were for the king,

For you left of the licks of the *gleanings and crumbs*. (p. 93).

Repetition of pair synonyms:

We lived a life of *sigh and cry*, but

Finally it passed, although with *sigh and cry* (p. 139)

1-2. Verb

Falk (1978) says that the application of synonymous verbs, increases dynamic in sentence and makes the realization of action more definite. In Shahriar's Divan (2006), (words as: - *napped and slept* (p. 143). *harped and played* (p. 122), *saw and watched* (p. 524), *look and see* (p. 1068), *put and lay* (p. 547) *learn and acquire* (p.621), *do and execute* (p. 621).

1-3. Subjective adjectives

Synonymous subjective adjectives give more dynamism to the lyrics. Such as: - *fermentation and roaring* (p. 817) *pleasant and favorite* (p. 111). *sliding and slipping* (p. 256).

1-4. Adverb

Shahriar has less used adverbial synonyms. In Persian language, adverbs are often made by adding a prefix to the beginning of a noun or an adjective.

2. Antonyms

Yule (1996), defines *antonymy* as two forms with opposite meanings. Using antonyms creates various positions and occasions in stylistics. Shahriar's intention of using them is not just for contrast; rather, he takes the advantages of richness and creates unlimited expressions. Antonym verbs in Shahriar's poetic works, exist in following types:

2-1. Verbs

Antonym verbs by the variety in the forms as follows:

2-1-a. Simple antonym verbs used in pairs: *to live ≠ to die* (p.280), *to close ≠to open* (p. 634) *to take ≠to give* (p. 148)

2-1-b. Compound Antonym verbs that the most famous of them are as follows: *to take out ≠ to insert*, (p.167) *to say hello ≠ to say goodbye* (p.591), *to make laugh ≠ to make weep* (p.220).

2-1-c. Linking antonym verbs that the most famous of which are as follows: *rise ≠ set* (p.167).

2-1-d. Antonym verbs with various structures of simple - compound, simple - linking and compound – linking that among them antonym verbs of simple – linking in Shahriar's poetic works has been used more; such as *to sit ≠ to stand*, *to go ≠ to return*.

2-1-e. Verbs with various tense issue expressions: Sometimes antonym verbs point out to several tenses such as:

2-1-f. past tense: I am who experienced injustice and disloyalty but was faithful,

You are who experienced love and faith but were disloyal (p.386).

In the first verse the word disloyalty is combined with the verb *experience* and in second verse the same word with the verb *to be*.

2-1-g. Past continuous tense: In Persian, past continuous tense verb is built by adding the prefix "mi" to the verb:

Eyes and hearts *were coming and going back*,

Each *was dealing with* me with hundreds of coquetries. (p 1216).

2-1-h. Present Perfect Tense: Antonym verbs in Shahriar's poetic works have often been used in present perfect tense. In Persian language present perfect shows continuation of the work and practice at the moment of speech (p. 200). The following antonym verbs in this poetic work have been used the most: *to fasten ≠ to open*, *to die ≠ to live*.

He *has made* his name *alive* in myths,

His charming laughter *has killed* us. (p. 579).

2-1-i. Simple Present Tense: (In Persian, present tense is formed by adding "mi" to the beginning of the base form and its personal pronouns connected to its end). Such as: *go ≠ come*; *go ≠ come*.

You *go* and *come* through the heart's window

But no one hears your footsteps (p.67)

2-1-j. Sometimes antonym verbs are used in various tense forms. For example, in following verses two antonym verbs are used in past perfect ≠ past continuous tense:

Spring came and brought joy,

Flowers and violets it *had taken away, brought back*. (p.174)

2-1-k. Antonym verbs are used in different verbal forms. In this poetic work antonym verbs have been used more in imperative. such as: *go* ≠ *come* (p.383); *stand* ≠ *sit* (p.680).

2-1-l. The other aspect of using antonym verbs is to repeat the aspects of subjunctive moods. subjunctive present ≠ tangible present. Such as:

But I *am losing* heart with your leaving,

Up to the time when you *come back*. (p.634)

2-1-m. Sometimes, antonym verbs are used in gerund. Such as: *withering* ≠ *blossoming*.

Do not become proud of your youth garden in *blossoming*,

Following it, the tragic event of *withering* will happen. (p 342).

2-1-n. Antonym verbs are often used with the word "*and*". Such as: *came* and *went*.

You *came* and *went* but to whom I tell this story,

Oh sympathizer, grief and sympathizer still remains. (p. 403).

2-1-o. There are also compound antonym verbs in Divan: Such as: *to halt the work* ≠ *to facilitate the work*. (p.347).

2-1-p. Sometimes antonym verbs that are used in one verse, accompany two antonym words of other types of words. Such as:

My patience farm went green and gave victory products,

What I *planted in the youth*, I *harvested in old age*. (p. 546).

2-3. Adverb

Application of antonym adverbs in Shahriar's Divan is of special importance. In Persian, there are adverbs of following types:

2-3-a. Adverb of time such as: *night - early in the morning* (p 1071). *today - that day* (p. 229), *untimely – on time*.” (p, 343).

2-3-b. Adverbs of place such as: *in school - in location* (p. 409). *there - here* (p.72), *this side - that side* (p.815), everywhere - nowhere (p. 445):

2-3-c. Adverbs of quality: Such as: *easily - hard* (p.1209), *fast - slowly* (p.270), *this manner – that manner* (p, 567).

2-3-d. Accompaniment adverbs Such as: *with you - without you* (p. 672), *with friends - without friends* (p. 373), *with us- without us* (p. 1221), *with your being - without your being* (p. 619):

2-3-e. Instrument adverbs. Such as: *with musical instrument – without musical instrument*.

Drum is an instruments for war, not for singing a song,

It is to sing for a burning love either with or without instrument (p.217).

2-4. Noun

2-4-a. In Divan, there are a lot of Antonym words related to noun category about man, either singular, or plural. Such as: *sultan – dervish; man – woman; familiar – stranger; rich – poor; friends – enemies; acquaintances –strangers*; etc.

Head and face of *the old* break, but at this time,

You see *the young* with broken face and head too. (p.375).

2-4-b. Antonym words are sometimes used in plural forms, such as: *the wise – the fool; the smart – the chump; the dead – the alive; the rich – the poor*.

He roared at *the dead* so loud,

That *the alive*'s hair stood on end.

By using exquisite and artistic expressions of antonyms, Shahriar could state his thoughts and feelings deeply.

3. Homonyms:

In Divan, the application of homonyms compared with synonyms and antonyms is less. Bateni (1975), defines these words as identical in writing but different in meaning. The following homonyms have been used more in Divan; for instance the Persian word "*tar*", (a musical instrument; and dark); (P. 72) "*chang*", (grasp, bend, harp); (p. 127) "*ravan*", (psyche, fluent); (P.72) "*dad*", (gave, justice); "*gharar*", (agreement, patience), etc

Homonyms have various roles in verses. Sometimes, they appear in one verse and sometimes each of them are located in two. Such as:

Oh heart, your agreement with us was not like this,

I remember that there is no patience in lover's heart.” (p.127).

4. Figures of Speech

Shahriar's Persian Divan, volume 2 (2006), has got a structure of lexical richness. Rhetorical means and elements of Shahriar's words reveal his poetic style. In addition to metaphor, imagery, simile, paradox he takes advantages from the art of poetry such as question and answer, vocative and address.

4-1.Variety of poetic arts

Shahriar has used all the delicacy of poetic arts. Sometimes, we encounter a poetic ode in variety of arts. Such as the following poem:

Flower is deplorable if you come to the rose garden,
 Joseph's rate decreases when you come up to the market.
 The moon hides in the cloud when you come to the edge of the roof,
 Flower becomes more worthless than thorn, when you come to the rose-garden.
 O' thou! The idol of the army, my king and the moon of the corps,
 I'll throw up the sponge whatever you come to battle,
 I turned my daylight into dark night because of your love,
 To hope that you come as a candle at my dark night,
 You revive the dead if the cross of your hair,
 Causes my Jesus to come to mosque

Yazdanpanah, (2014). Gives a comment that in the first verse, there is a poetic exaggeration. He has special expression in these exaggerations. For example, partner's beauty is so fascinating that the moon is embarrassed of her and hides behind clouds. Also flower in the garden cries. He considers partner's beauty better than Josef, too. By saying Josef's name, he also makes allusion and points out that:

Mir, (2004), also declares that Joseph, Jacob's son, the prophet of Israel, has been named in the Quran. Jacob had 12 children. Joseph was the most beloved of them. His brothers deceived him of Jealousy and threw him into a well and told their father that wolf had eaten him.

Prophet Josef's name is repeated over and over in Divan poetry. He was extremely beautiful. Sometimes, they've called him the beloved "Joseph II". Worshipping of the sun and the moon in front of him, throwing him into the well, selling him for gold, his adventures with Zoleikha, his imprisonment, dream interpretation, separation from father, slavery in Egypt and other topics have been composed as poems in poetic works. Shamisa, (1990). in a famous work that published in this filed named him "The moon of Kan'aan", a symbol of beauty. Shahryar contrasts "light and dark" in divan (2006) volume 2 in this way:

I turned my daylight into dark night because of your love,
 To hope that you come as a candle at my dark night, (p.433)
 In the last verse, a delicate allusion is used:
 You revive the dead if the cross of your hair,
 Causes my Jesus to come to mosque. (p.433)

Here, the allusion is his Excellency Jesus. In divani poems, subjects such as, Mary's virginity, Jesus' miracles and touch, his blowing and breath, reviving the dead, ascending into heaven, presence at the fourth layer of heaven, celibacy, etc. are used about Jesus. As of the world wealth, he had only a needle in his body, he could not go further than the fourth sky. He got the nickname of Christ, and was named the Holy Spirit. In poems, he has been called by the words blow and breath. Beloved's lips in life-giving and sometimes Zephyr in its spiritual breeze are likened to Jesus. Shahriar has also paid much attention to his reviving.

In the last verse of poem, there is also a virtual expression. Here, poet has called hair twist of beloved, "*cross of hair*". This is a good example of his skill in creating poetic arts. Other cases in Shahriar's divan are noteworthy. For example, the existing images have exclusive features. These images are sometimes very clear and simple. For example in the poem "Oh My Mother", he describes his mother's mood, housekeeping and hospitality in a melodious song with a respectful description of his native town 'Tabriz':

Our Tabriz deserves respect
 In Baqh Bisheh, there's a house of a God man
 Every yard and corridor is a court
 Here, they come to litigate an oppressed
 Here, the lawyer is breadwinner of client,
 His wages and income are spent on the welfare of people.
 The door is open and table is set
 In his table, the hungry persons are fed
 A female is director of this device,
 She is my mother. (p.865)

In this poem the poet speaks of organs such as the mouth, hair, eyelashes, in a poetic and competent manner:
 Shame comes out of your narrow mouth
 When people call me, sugar pot and charming.
 There is a light hidden in the heart of the dark hair
 That it gets its brightness from the sun
 My Nightingale opened his mouth to sing when I saw,
 For my good presence the bud has opened mouth.

The other important issue in this field is taking advantage of words' sounds that Shahriar uses different types of assonance in repeating in the phonetic and vowel that is seen abundantly in verses and lines. Assonance beauty can clearly be seen in the following two verses:

The garden of violets and jasmine did make up its area,
Hearts want the area of the garden and its entertainment
New spring and love don't let us in ease
Where the butler is to prevent it from being in ease

In first verse the word area is repeated and creates pun with the word entertainment and creates assonance. In the second verse "ease" word with assonance with the first verse is both placed at the beginning and at the end of the verse.

4-2. Allusion

Assi, (1996). defines allusion as a reference to an event in the past. In divan, Shahriar has used different and interesting allusions that can be outlined as follows:

4-2-a. Religious allusions: These kinds of allusions are abundant in his poetic work. These allusions indicate religious knowledge of the poet. Shahriar who memorized the Quran, was a person with Islamic philosophical thoughts, made poems of Quran verses such as Companions of the Elephant (p. 223), Pharaoh (p. 319), Khaddar (p. 81) - horn of Seraph (p. 206) – Gholam (p. 796).

Most of these allusions are found in all Persian texts. But the last one (Gholam) is somehow rare:

There was a slave free of prophet,
But of the servants born in the house. (p. 796)

The origin of this allusion is that when Prophet Mohammad (PBUH) was suffering from the Muslims' troubles, he constantly advised them to be patient, supported them and gave good news of heaven to those who sacrificed themselves for sake of Islam.

4-2-b. Allusions to historical characters such as allusion to *Zahhak* and *Kaveh* is also interesting: *Kaveh of Nowrooz* overcame *Zahhak*,

Kaveh of 'new yearsday' overcame Zahhak 'the notorious'
On his shoulder, there was the flag of victory. (p. 400)

In the above verse, there is allusion to *Zahhak* and *Kaveh*. It Points to the story of *Zahhak* and *Kaveh* (that turned his leather apron into banner and led Iranians against the tyrant king *Zahhak*).

4-2-c. Allusions to historical and social events: Among the events, incidents, historical and social phenomena, those relating to the poet's age seem more interesting. Such as "*Bakuchi*" in the verse:

Bakuchi, the passenger with his message and letter,

The cows with occasional birth, giving colostrum and cream. (p. 997). We see Shahriar increases the effect of his poetry by using the allusion and along with it the reader reviews the historical events.

4-3. Simile

The meaning of simile is 'making the same'. To strengthen his images, the poet refers to simile. Simile has four elements as in the verse:

The people, like passengers, slept in the world's inn one night,
They slept, dreamed and left the world's inn. (p. 143)

1. Simile: *the people of the world* 2 simile to: *passengers* 3. Simile mood: *sleep, slept, left*. 4. The simile particle: *Like*. Moreover, in his imaginations, he constantly benefits from his peculiar similes and styles.

4-4. Metaphor

Mir, M.(2004) believes that in Shahriar's Persian Divan, there are many conceptual and poetic metaphors, that are not only in the contents of poems but also in their titles. Such as "the well of fever" a combination that is specific to the poet himself. Also combination of "the bird of soul" or "tuneful bird", "red wings bird" that is metaphor of concepts of fly, hunt, building nest, breaking the wing, entrapment, etc. In divan works, the word "*nightingale*" is used as metaphor more than others:

A night that the moon was with me, I said: We'd thrown the morning key into the well where the moon is imprisoned. (p. 72)

In the following verse, in addition to the combination "*the fire of separation*", the virtual combination of "*the pot of patience*" is used properly:

When my cry arises flame, my tears overrun,
My pot of patience, like separation fire, boils me. (p. 83)

The above examples indicate Shahriar's rich imagination of metaphor that has reinforced the elegance of his expressions.

5. Bilingual poems

Bilingual poem is a poem in which one verse is in Arabic; the other in Persian, or Turkish; or vice versa. Shahriar's bilingual poems are mainly in forms of Arabic-Persian or Persian-Arabic that confirm his dominance on Arabic poems.

Arabic verses are most composed in religious subjects. Such as:

Oh God, protect us of the jealous eyes of time,
If it influences our eyes with its wickedness. (p. 363)

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Shahriar with his sublime artistry and the use of subtle language of Persian has been able to compose a divan that got reputation and acceptance of being a masterpiece. In his Persian Divan, there are simple expressions and clear ideas. Deep and complex themes in them are expressed as clearly and exquisitely. In some of the themes, he approaches popular language and uses current poetic rhymes. This is in accordance with the Kamshad's (2011) declaration about the existence of modern prose literature in Persian. The language of divan containing traditional vocabulary reservoir, is full of words of contemporary and modern era by that he can express the meaning and content in a very poetic style. In his poems, the climax of his classical art is seen. The simplicity and fluency of modern poetry collection of his popular poems distinguish him from other poets of classical verses.

Shahriar's Divan has been considered in terms of linguistic views too. Like in his native Turkish language, he has also created delicate examples of poetry in Persian. With the review of language and style of Shahriar's Divan, in fact, new viewpoints of poetic power can be conceived. Hence, the linguistic and stylistic research of Persian Divan is of up-to-date issues in studying his poetic works.

A deep study on this genius poet's literal creation is necessary for the researchers. In Persian Divan of Shahriar the philology issues have been used completely. Also, the verbal and semantic features of Persian words reservoir have been completely reflected. Grammatical rules are observed. Simple and vulgar expressions have been used poetically that show his own style in Divan. The influence of poet's native language is obvious by using Turkish words in literal combinations. Figures of speech are abundant that join the culture of two different languages. Moreover, the traditional literary arrangements have also benefited from the new and modern metaphors. It is a masterpiece of a bilingual poet that can be scientifically used in colleges and university courses, orientalism's philology schools, preparing high school texts, and specialized postgraduate courses of Persian language and literature. Besides, they are also occasions to hold meetings on his works.

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Psychoanalytical Analysis of Gerald's Three Coverts to Perpetrate Violence in D.H. Lawrence's *Women in Love*

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Abstract—D. H. Lawrence is well known for creating psychologically deep characters. Since contemporaneous with Sigmund Freud, he has been familiar with his groundbreaking theories about unconscious mind. Moreover, he utilizes them for creating his characters in his novels. For instance in his *Women in Love*, Freud's impact on him is striking. Freud holds that human beings are primitive by nature and their primitive attitudes can emerge anytime. In this regard, this paper aims to draw on Freud's idea of unconsciousness to analyze Gerald, one of main characters in the novel in question. To do so, it will primarily focus on his violence. According to Freud, human beings aspire for the violence in their unconsciousness; nonetheless, they cannot answer their psychological need easily because of social norms. However, from the view point of Freud, there are some coverts through which people can meet/justify their urge for violence. Thus, the present study endeavors to bring into light these coverts by focusing on the life of Gerald in D.H. Lawrence's *Women in Love*.

Index Terms—covert, unconscious, Freud, war, Gerald, violence, *Women in Love*

I. INTRODUCTION

D. H. Lawrence was born in 1885 in Nottinghamshire. His father was a miner but his mother was a literate school teacher. As a child, Lawrence suffered from tuberculosis. He was closer to his mother in his family. She did her best to keep him away from mines; instead she directed his life toward school and books. His relationship with his mother is represented directly in his autobiographical novel, *Sons and Lovers*. At the age of 15, he left school and started working in a factory. Later on he became acquainted with Jessie Chamber who appeared as Miriam in *Sons and Lovers*. His first publication was his poetry published in 1909. Much to his disappointment, his works were banned in England until 1960s. Not only was he persecuted for his words but also he was under the pressure and suspicion during WWI due to marrying Frieda, a German. As a result, he left England and traveled to Italy, Germany, USA, Mexico, New Zealand and Australia. His major literary works include *Sons and Lovers*, *The Rainbow*, *Women in Love*, *John Thomas and Lady Jane*, *Lady Chatterley's Lover*, *The White Peacock*, *The Trespasser*, *The Lost Girl*, *Aaron's Rod*, *Kangaroo*, *The Plumed Serpent* and the *Virgin and the Gipsy*.

Summary of *Women in Love*

Women in Love is a sequel to *The Rainbow*. It is the story of two sisters who came to know two other characters, Gerard Crichton and Rupert Birkin. Gudrun is just back from London where she was studying at an art school. Ursula, the older sister develops affair with Birkin, the only male character who has unconventional ideas about life, human being, love and death. While loving Ursula, Birkin also believes in a different greater love which might be gratified through his relationship with another male human being. Throughout the novel he comes up with his unconventional ideas. While Ursula and Birkin have primitive attitudes through the novel, Gerald, the son of the local mineowner, is an industrial magnate. He believes in leading people and managing the business which he inherited from his father. Later on, he desires to strangle Gudrun when he witnesses that Gudrun flirts with Herr Loerke, a decadent German sculptor. At the end of the novel, he dies of cold weather alone on a snow covered mountain.

Review of Literature

In his book, *Freudianism and Literary Mind*, Fredrick Hoffman (1967) compares Freud's perspectives with that of Lawrence in terms of sexuality, and highlights their similarity in this regard. To do so, he chooses Lawrence's autobiographical novel, *Sons and Lovers* and applies Freud's psychoanalytical theories to it.

Daniel Wack in his book entitled, *The Great War and its Effects in D. H. Lawrence's Lady Chatterley's Lover* examines the effects of war in *Sons and Lovers* and *Lady Chatterley's Lover*, but not in his other novels like *Women in Love* and *The Rainbow*. In his study, initially he presents a short background of European society right after the Great War, and its impacts on writers such as T.S. Eliot, Virginia Woolf and Aldus Huxley. Then he focuses on Lawrence's *Lady Chatterley's Lover*, which as published after the war.

In *D. H. Lawrence's Language of the Apocalypse*, Mario Domenichelli (2004) explores Lawrence's writings, to detect those sections in which he reveals his apocalyptic vision. The scholar in addition expatiates about Lawrence's tendency towards 'utopia' and 'pastoral dream and primitivism'. Moreover, he sheds light on the novelist's "struggle to [travel to] utopia or to some arcadia ... and return to nature" (p.282). Furthermore, he points to Lawrence's and Freud's different perspective concerning the unconscious part of the mind. According to him, for Freud 'unconsciousness' was the locus of suppressed unconscious materials while for Lawrence it was the spontaneous spring from which life oozes. Then he clarifies why Lawrence disagrees with Freud, "the Freudian unconscious is the cellar in which the mind keeps its bastard spawn. The true unconscious is the well-head, the fountain of real motivity" (p.297).

Last but not least, in *The Influence of Congregationalism on the First Four Novels of D.H. Lawrence*, M. J. Masson discusses the implications of the war on D. H. Lawrence's doubt toward Christianity. According to him, Lawrence had a firm belief that the Great War was the byproduct of degenerated Christianity.

II. LAWRENCE, WAR AND *WOMEN IN LOVE*

Lawrence's *Women in love* is different from *The Rainbow*, although it is a sequel to it. There is a gap between *The Rainbow* and *Women in Love*. In general, the setting of *Women in Love* does not bear resemblance to the pastoral atmosphere of *The Rainbow* because the ban on *The Rainbow* and the catastrophes of WWI seem to be effective in this regard. This explains his lack of interest in using another pastoral setting for *Women in Love*. Additionally, he wanted to reflect upon the negative impacts of the war on those involved in it. Meanwhile he was in touch with Freud's latest works through his wife Frieda. Freud published his new essay entitled *Reflection on War and Death* in 1915, in which he studied the relationship between war and death. After reading this essay, Lawrence began to write his new novel. Both for Freud and Lawrence, the Great War was the utter frustration of England and the world. His disappointment reminds back Freud's quotation: "we expected that these nations would find some other way of settling their differences and conflicting interests" (Freud, 1918, p.6). It was war that generated in him the desire to escape "with a few chosen spirits...to an island" (Kingsmill, 1938, p. 99). As Murry wrote "if ever a man suffered from the war... it was Lawrence" (ibid.).

Lawrence's first book after the war is rife with pessimism. Death and destruction take the place of life in it, and even sincere in the work love is fulfilled through death. He himself felt the same in his real life. As Chambers (1936) points to it in his biography,

Lawrence skipped from one white boulder to another in the vast amphitheater of the bay until I could have doubted whether he was indeed a human being. I was really frightened then — not physically, but deep in my soul. He created an atmosphere not of death, which after all is part of mortality, but of an utter negation of life, as though he had become dehumanized. (p.128).

Due to these sufferings, he could not be indifferent to the war even if he was not amid the chaos of war. One can observe the pernicious effects of the war in his created characters' discourses, their beliefs on life and death, as well as their acts. An obvious example is Birkin since his "consciousness is profoundly affected by that holocaust" (Lawrence, 1998, p.12). Lawrence himself directly states that: "I should wish the time to remain unfixed, so that the bitterness of the war may be taken for granted in the characters" (p.10). In fact "the nature of the characters in *Women in Love* is predominated by what Freud calls the death instincts" (Meilebreuk, 2013, p. 5). For instance, for Birkin the humanity "is dead" and "dry-rotten" because they are "apples of Sodom" (Lawrence, 1998, p. 130). In *Women in Love*, death and destruction are intermingled.

As Freud mentions, the human beings have the "tendency to put death aside, to eliminate it from life." That is to say, they do not like to think about their death; however they would rather think of others' death,

We cannot, indeed, imagine our own death; whenever we try to do so, we find that we survive ourselves as spectators. The school of psychoanalysis could thus assert that at bottom no one believes in his own death, which amounts to saying: in the unconscious every one of us is convinced of his immortality. (Freud, 1918, p.16)

Nevertheless, he believes that during great wars like WWI the whole story changes. "Death" is "no longer to be denied" because every day they see people dying, "not one by one but in large numbers, often ten thousand in one day" (p.17). One of the reasons that Lawrence altered his subject matter from 'life' (in *The Rainbow*) to the study of the concept of 'death' stems from Freud's essay mentioned earlier. Above all, Freud's influence over the novelist is great. In general, Freud believes that the human beings have some basic needs like violence, but by nature they are social beings, that is to say, they need to live close to each other to benefit from the society. Life in the community demands the human beings to regulate/suppress their need for violence. Nevertheless, the suppression makes them feel miserable in their life. This explains why they seek to find some coverts [strategies] to satisfy their need for aggression. He points to some of the coverts like being a child, a leader or a soldier. Freud believes that children are freer, and this explains their violence during their games, albeit sometimes. Leaders normally justify their savagery and brutality by expressing their wish to promote justice in the society. But the only available covert for them is to conceal themselves behind social values and norms like the nationalistic and patriotic sentiments in particular when people go into the war and fight for the nation. In the following parts, the coverts which Gerald deploys in three stages of his life will be discussed in details.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Covert one: Gerald at the age of 6

Adopting a critical view towards the advancement of technology which brought about the catastrophes of the First World War, Lawrence expresses his (new) primitivism in the character of Gerald whose life mirrors Freud's ideas. When he was a child, he killed his brother by accident via an unused old gun that never worked. While he was playing with his brother, he asked him to look into the gun. Meanwhile it suddenly went off and he killed his brother by 'accident'. Through different discussions, Lawrence attempts to convey that it cannot be a mere accident.

Based on Freud's theories, children are freer when compared with adults in satisfying their basic needs through more acceptable ways like their play. In contrast to them, the adults are not supposed to mention someone's death in their presence but children "ignore this restraint" (Freud, 1918, p.16). For example in the case of death, children easily threaten each other,

As far as the death of another person is concerned, every man of culture will studiously avoid mentioning this possibility in the presence of the person in question. Only children ignore this restraint; they boldly threaten each other with the possibility of death, and are quite capable of giving expression to the thought of death in relation to the persons they love, as, for instance: Dear Mama, when unfortunately, you are dead, I shall do so and so. (ibid.)

Almost all main characters in the novel either discuss the death of Gerald's brother by him or analyze it in their minds. In chapter four, for the first time, this story is put into discussion between Ursula and Gerald. Ursula who is direct in expressing her mind, believes that "there was an unconscious will" and "primitive desire" behind it (Lawrence, 1998, p.80). In fact she calls the whole story as "playing at killing" but that's obviously not the way others thought about this incident. (ibid.). Gudrun has spent many years of her life in a city, thus she is frightened of the rural area of colliery region (which for Lawrence is a symbol of pastoral primitive milieu). Therefore the girl who has spent many years in civilized atmosphere has learnt how to adapt herself to the social norms. It is obvious that she rejects Ursula's opinion concerning Gerald as a deliberate killer. Unlike her sister, Ursula is the only true remaining primitive member of the first Brangwen family. Hence, she acts and behaves on the basis of unconscious impulses. In her discussion, one can sense that she firmly believes that there is a hidden intention behind it. Lawrence is taking Ursula's sides and indicates it through Ursula's words "he shot his brother" (p.79). Almost all the main characters accept it. Birkin rethinks about Gerald's act which was told as "pure accident", instead he refutes it and views it a covert for an instinct. Unlike other characters in the novel, Gudrun regards Gerald's killing utterly unintentional since she regards the human beings by nature good, who act decently and morally in their society. Her rejection of the intentionality of death, without even knowing much about the story, just at the beginning of the discussion, resembles to what Freud calls 'Defense Mechanism' which is done to safeguard the civilization against immorality, chaos and confusion,

And isn't it horrible too to think of such a thing happening to one, when one was a child, and having to carry the responsibility of it all through one's life. Imagine it, two boys playing together—then this comes upon them, for no reason whatever—out of the air. Ursula, it's very frightening! Oh, it's one of the things I can't bear. Murder, that is thinkable, because there's a will behind it. But a thing like that to HAPPEN to one (p. 80).

While Ursula is expressing her thoughts about the matter calmly, Gudrun is always "cold and angry" and talks "stiffening" (ibid.). She is angry because she assumes herself a decent social being who cares about the civilization and makes her contribution to it. She cannot admit this idea, since it suggests a pessimistic view toward human nature. As mentioned before, there is the clash between two different ideas whether human beings are good or bad by nature. Gudrun believes that human beings by nature are good but neither Lawrence nor Freud accepts in it. In *Reflection on War and Death* Freud clearly states that "What no human being desires to do does not have to be forbidden". The fact that the human beings are commanded not to kill other humans means "that [they] are descended from an endlessly long chain of generations of murderers, whose love of murder is in their blood as it is perhaps also in ours" (Freud, 1918, p. 21).

Even Gerald himself in his inner thoughts is not denying his intentional act. The author shows Gerald's inner thoughts: "He suffered badly. He had killed his brother when a boy, and was set apart, like Cain" (Lawrence, 1998, p.314),

Then he remembered, with a slight shock, that that was Cain's cry. And Gerald was Cain, if anybody. Not that he was Cain, either, although he had slain his brother. There was such a thing as pure accident, and the consequences did not attach to one, even though one had killed one's brother in such wise. Gerald as a boy had accidentally killed his brother. What then? Why seek to draw a brand and a curse across the life that had caused the accident? A man can live by accident, and die by accident. Or can he not? Is every man's life subject to pure accident, is it only the race, the genus, the species, that has a universal reference? Or is this not true, is there no such thing as pure accident? Has EVERYTHING that happens a universal significance? Has it? Birkin, pondering as he stood there, had forgotten Mrs. Crich, as she had forgotten him. He did not believe that there was any such thing as accident. It all hung together, in the deepest sense (p.38).

In addition, the author rejects the idea of love because he finds it disgusting since people hypocritically cling to it. Every day they are repeating that 'love' and 'charity' and claim that they are living for the sake of them while at the same time they are doing horrible deeds. They lie about love and it's the most horrible act. In his opinion, love is just a feeling exactly like hatred. He goes further and mentions that we should not delimit human beings (p.277). He also

states that “If we want hate, let us have it—death, murder, torture, violent destruction—let us have it: but not in the name of love” (ibid.). When Ursula suggests that love is the greatest, Birkin responds that one “might as well say that hate is the greatest, since the opposite of everything balances.” (ibid.). For Freud (1918) “love cannot be much younger than the lust for murder” (19). He believes that these notions are of “eternal polarities” (Kaes et al. 1994, p.31). He believes that “notions of good and evil... can operate rarely in isolation” or in another word, as he puts, they are “alloyed” (ibid.). For Freud humans’ good and evil deed is often done “with a certain dosage of its opposite, which modifies its aim or even” and “in certain circumstances, is a prime condition of its attainment” (ibid.).

Covert Two: Gerald at the age of 10

With regard to his second covert, the novelist reveals it in the form of desire to murder. At the age of ten when Gerald was watching a group of protesters against his father’s business, he wished he had a gun so that he could kill them all. When miners protested, and soldiers shot them, and one protester was killed. Looking at the scene, Gerald entertaining the idea of attacking and killing them with ‘delight’ (Lawrence, 1998, p. 418),

Gerald, who was a boy, was filled with the wildest excitement and delight. He longed to go with the soldiers to shoot the men. But he was not allowed to go out of the lodge gates. At the gates were stationed sentries with guns. Gerald stood near them in delight, whilst gangs of derisive miners strolled up and down the lanes, calling and jeering (ibid.).

He “longed to be a man, to fight the colliers” since all his life he has been “tortured by a furious and destructive demon which possessed him” (p.419). His desire to imitate the soldiers and hold a gun to shoot the protestors in a deeper level bespeaks his unconscious impulse to perpetrate violence. Instead of shunning the violent scene and sympathize with the killed miner and the injured miners, he delights at watching it. From his reaction toward the incident, one can safely conclude that his approval of the soldiers’ violence attests to the fact that the soldiers are doing what Gerald himself wants to do. In fact, his delight and fascination with soldiers’ inhumane act is his psychological covert for violence.

Covert Three: Gerald at the age of 18

In the chapter *Industrial Magnate*, the idea of sympathy or antipathy of human beings toward other’s miseries is discussed. One idea is that human beings on the surface are charitable and generous. But due to the advent of a new generation and modernization, people especially those in power, find it easier to show their real nature in different situations. Gerald’s father was the follower of the old belief. More than being the boss of his workers, he resembles a benefactor. When he wants to give the reason for the kind treatment of his workers, he sounds religious. He cares about “charity” and “his love for his neighbor” (p.397). The “welfare of the people” matters a lot to him because they are “nearer to God” and “in their hands” they have “the means of salvation” (p.224). If he wants to feel nearer to God “he must move towards his miners”. He will generously accept all the miners who came for his help saying: “it doesn’t hurt me to hear what they have to say. And if they really are in trouble -well, it is my duty to help them out of it” (p.400). But her wife and Gerald are completely different. Mrs. Crich doesn't sympathize with anybody. Not even with her husband. This is the reason why she sends “the dogs” on the workers who come to ask for help and would stand there “watching with an eye like eagle’s” how they escape. For her, they are “rats” (ibid.). She believes “her antagonism was passive” and “terribly pure” (p.401). By “pure” she means being “unconscious”. Therefore she feels “isolation” in her “surrounding country” (p.224). She has ironical description of Mr. Crich’s values. She ridicules it in her thoughts that he has this high values like chastity and purity, that he loves her and she is his “white flower of snow” but when he dies all his “ideas and interpretation” and values also die with him. Lawrence takes sides with Mrs. Crich who does not believe in these values. Mrs. Crich believes that these are all lies and only “death would show the perfect completeness of the lie” (p.403). As Freud (1918) refers to it in *Reflection on War and Death*, in our mind we always think of our close friends and family dying (p.23). In fact Gerald and his mother are manifestations of Freud’s ideas about true human nature, because by them, Lawrence is showing the true human nature. Gerald is closer to his mother in this matter than his father. He is the destructive force in the story. He always desired to break apart “the frame of life” (Lawrence, 1998, p.409). During all “his childhood and his boyhood he had wanted a sort of savagedom” (ibid.), to return and live and do freely. He always hated “remorselessly the circumstance of his own life” (p.224). For him the world was a wild and lawless space He is against “all authority” and wants an anarchistic and pleasure seeking way of living. He considers “life” as a “savage freedom” (p.410). He also detests school which is the oppressor of humans’ freedom and their instinctual needs, and thus Lawrence is its critic. He is sent to a German university where he discovers war as his amusement. War is the way out of this misery. In war he could satisfy his thirst for killing, blood and a savage way of life that is completely anarchistic.

Freud states that:

[W]hen a nation is summoned to engage in war, a whole gamut of human motives may respond to this appeal, high and low motives, some openly avowed, others slurred over. The lust for aggression and destruction is certainly included” (Kaes et al, 1994, p.31).

During war, patriotism and heroic acts as holy words are accepted by the civilized world; therefore, the humans can satisfy their thirst for barbarity, and accordingly free themselves from the shackles of civilization. Freud believes the same. He (1918) holds that the “slaughter of a foe gratifies an instinctive craving” (p. 28). Gerald goes for it and he finds it more amusing than what it looked like from outside. When he experiences it, he realizes that even the old savage way of living is “duller, less exciting than European” one (Lawrence, 1998, p.229). Because Europeans by

hiding behind these patriotic and heroic values are freer to fulfill more destructive deeds. "Idealism", Freud states, can "facilitate" the "release of these destructive impulses". In fact "Ideal motives" occupies the "foreground of consciousness" when actually these impulses come "from the destructive instinct submerged in the unconsciousness" (as cited in Kaes et al, 1994, 31). War is a good covert. It destroys the,

Later deposits of civilization and allows the primitive man in us to reappear. It forces us again to be heroes who cannot believe in their own death, it stamps all strangers as enemies whose death we ought to cause or wish; it counsels us to rise above the death of those whom we love (Freud, 1918, p.24).

In order to benefit from this privilege on the highest level, Gerald "took hold of all kinds of sociological ideas" (Lawrence, 1998, p.410). He knew that all these "ideas of reform" were "reaction against the positive order". It was "the destructive reaction", which can be fulfilled by having more freedom. Then he found the "real adventure in the coal-mines" (p.411). The "suffering and feelings of individuals didn't matter" at all (Lawrence, 1998, p.233). Lawrence is implying that the true nature of human beings can be found in those who are in power and are not afraid of displaying it because they are justified to be strict while ruling. As Freud states, after the elimination of violence by the might of law in the society, "members of the ruling class" start to set "themselves above the law's restrictions" (as cited in Antos Kaes et al, 1994, 29.). But we cannot expect this from ordinary people of society because they need to cling to social values and norms to have a normal and easy life, otherwise they will be expelled from the civilization. For people in power who are closer to the true human nature "the pure instrumentality of individual" matters so that they can satisfy their unconscious instincts (Lawrence, 1998, p.412).

IV. CONCLUSION

In this article, D. H. Lawrence's *Women in Love* has been analyzed according to Freud's theories which have been put forward in *Reflection on War and Death* and *Civilization and Its Discontent*. Freud holds that the mind of human is the arena of primitive instincts such as Eros and aggressive instincts. By default, they are supposed to answer these needs just like other animals. Nonetheless, they are social beings, and need to benefit from their community. In order to use the advantages of being in the community, they define the shared identity which results in limiting their needs and instincts. As a result of this exchange, Freud believes, they feel discontent. Therefore, they seek coverts to gratify these instincts. For Freud, children are exempted from the restraints of society. When adults are not expected to act according to the unconscious demands, children are free in this sense. In *Reflection on War and Death*, Freud directly explains this matter. When adults do not talk about someone's death in their presence, children may talk boldly of it without any fear or a sense of regret. As mentioned earlier, in *Civilization and its Discontent*, he expresses his ideas about the fact that human beings are social beings; they needs limit their primitive instincts such as Eros and Aggression. But in his letters, he explains about another covert to satisfy these instincts. He holds that, as soon as the foundation of a civilized community was laid, some people set their basic instincts. They are the leaders with enormous power at their disposal. This disagreement points us to the next covert which is being a leader. Leaders have justified their aggressiveness by claiming that they restore peace and order from the war and conflict torn zones again to people sorely in the need of stability in their society. Moreover, social norms and values are another coverts for ordinary people in the society because they too, want to have share in these coverts. Freud believes common people conceal themselves behind the values and ideals like patriotism to rush into the war to slaughter their supposed foes while in reality their main object is gratifying their hitherto oppressed instincts. This article applied these ideas of Freud to Lawrence's *Women in Love* in some stages. Firstly, the effects of war were traced in Lawrence's life. Then the character Gerald's psychological coverts such as killing his brother which in the eyes of the novelist is not a mere accident but a deliberate act, his desire to kill his father's protesters when just ten years old, as well as his fascination with war and primitivism. Given reasons offered here, Gerald is a complete depiction of Freud's ideas in this matter.

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Dickens's Neutral Philosophy of the French Revolution in *A Tale of Two Cities*

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Abstract—This paper delves into Charles Dickens's objectivity of the events of the French Revolution and his unique stand and transparency in his representation for the two great power rivals and their prolonged conflict. The pre-revolutionary period was remarkable for the tyranny, cruelty, Socioeconomic-Inequality, and Subjugation of the Barbarous aristocratic rule against the masses. Conversely, the post-revolutionary period underwent sweeping social and political chaos and the form of administration set after the revolution was not a democracy, as French people were fond of calling it, but a mischievous and shameful anarchy lasted from 1789 until 1799. This discussion is an attempt to analyze and sort out a complex of hostile relationships involving the aristocrats and the peasants of *A Tale of Two Cities*. Dickens' universal appeal indicates that whoever is in authority, aristocracy or masses, will get lavishly tempted to practice their full power depressingly and be obsessed with the dilemma of the establishment of the supremacy and dictatorship at any cost ignoring other's right in decent life, freedom, and equal opportunity. As the novel advanced, oppression is shown to breed oppression; violence to beget violence, evil to provoke evil. Instead of progress there is something more like the catastrophic continuum and piling wreckage upon wreckage.

Index Terms—French Revolution, France, *A Tale of Two Cities*, aristocrats, peasants

I. INTRODUCTION

The French Revolution was an epoch of sweeping social and political turmoil in France that lasted from 1789 until 1799 during spreading out of the French Empire. The impact of The French revolution can be powerfully perceived in the light of statement of some scholars who argue that the ideas of the French Revolution toured the globe. In other word, the lessons taken from the revolution changed radically the political and the social outlook and inspired new secular hope among the people in all over the world. The Revolution toppled the Empire, set up a state, went through critical periods of turmoil and extreme crisis, and finally ended up in another form of dictatorship, sadly, under the fake ironical label of equality, liberty and fraternity. Magnit (2006) argues that the French Revolution is a "movement ostensibly directed against despotism culminated in the establishment of a despotism far more complete than that which had been overthrown" (Magnit, 2006, P.6). Motivated by enlightened and neutral thoughts, *A Tale of Two Cities* (1859) is one of Dickens' most powerful works, set in London and Paris before and during the French Revolution. Dickens perceived the identical elements of forces that caused the uprising in addition to the tyranny and turbulence taking place in England during his time. Although he was in favor of the idea of people revolting against dictatorship, the turmoil that challenged the French Revolution evidently disturbed him (Marie, 2000). The novel portrays the dilemma of the French people oppressed by the French aristocracy in the years leading up to the rebellion as well as the parallel violence established by the revolutionaries toward the past aristocrats in the early years of the uprising. The principles depicted in *Tale of two Cities* that the French should persistently and constantly struggle for liberty, equality, and brotherhood. But, this struggle and anger against the aristocrats have been dreadfully misused and utterly transformed into retribution and loathing leading up to another tragedy of massacres, bloodsheds and chaotic mobs. Throughout the novel, Dickens' neutrality was obvious showing both power rivals—the aristocrats and the peasants— and their long-term quarrel, hatred, hostility which led up to desperate, devastating and tragic consequences.

II. OVERVIEW OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

The 1789 revolution significantly marks a new age in the history of Human civilization. The feudal order, the absolute monarchy and the Roman Catholic Church were entirely collapsed through radical transformation of the society. The French Revolution is the last important event in the western history as the masses, that to say, the millions of ordinary people, begin to take part in politics and, to take their lives and fates in their own hands. It is comprehensible as much as necessary that the revolution liberated mental power of mankind from the shackle of gloomy ages, that the change strengthens the triumph of the innovative age of renaissance by incorporating religion among the topics matter of human disputes. It lends a hand to the whole European nations to leave behind the era of the absolutism and aristocratic privilege and welcome the era of the citizenry as new leading force. Hegel (1965), one of the greatest philosophers of all time, was profoundly influenced by the French Revolution. He considers the French Revolution as a turning point in the history of mankind especially when he linked the French Revolution in its natural orientation with the entire history of the globe. He argues that the principles of the French Revolution prevailed almost in all over the world and gave the world new and different concept of life as all the nations and

Roman Catholic world –specially in Italy.Spain.French-were under the subjugations and power of the broadmindedness and free thinking. Despite its frustrations, despite all of its offenses and wrongdoings, the French Revolution was an incredibly great and a magnificent event. It did have an influential contribution to elevate the human race from the dictatorship and humiliation of the dark medieval ages. The people were enthusiastically pushed forth to revolutionary violence undermining the prevailing concepts of slavery, Subjugation, and Socioeconomic-discrimination. The French Revolution not merely changed the political supremacy, but it totally altered the inner existence of the state. For these cruelties, the uprising replaced a structure which is highly satisfied with equal opportunity as it matches the requirement of our aspiring modern age. It replaced the institutional regulation in the position of individual random rule, equitableness in that of dispensation; brought men from the divisions of caste system, the farming lands from the fence of provinces, business from the grips of prosperous people, farming from feudal exploitation and the coercion of tithes, and delivered everything to the condition of one nation, one system of law, one united people. When a change has turned out to be compulsory, and its time for achieving it has come, nobody is capable of interrupting it, everything promotes it. The French revolutionaries toppled the king, church, aristocracy and brought bread to poor, democracy to France and establish new whole order society. Those aspiring people were looking eagerly for attaining what they truly wanted, revolutions would then be quietly influential, and the historians would find no difficulties, no disasters to prove and record; they would only have to demonstrate the transitional critical point in the history of humanity to a better, wiser, freer, and more contented situation. Additionally, it is worthy to mention that the revolution was preceded by the ideological enlightenment principles. The followers of the enlightenments were the most struggling fighters against the feudal regulations. They considered the reason as the soul and the fuel of the revolution and the rational government should be the alternative of arbitrary rule and anything against reason should be inevitably collapsed. During 18th century, People started to question the authority and mock at any information or order giving from above either by the ruler or priest or any higher authority. Therefore, the people realized that the time has arrive to undermined the ideas that say aristocracy is natural, nobility should be dignified, and hierarchy is inherited. The popular coffee houses were substantial places for intellectual debates and activities as the people from all walk of life came together to discuss and exchanges their visions about the considerable ideas including reason, nature, happiness, progress and liberty. The peasants and the laborers who were desperately suffering from the hardship of life and low income were strongly influenced with ideas of those thinkers. According to William (1982), the enlightened principles dispersed among the people in the second half of the 18th century provoked their bitterness and impelled their rational intellect. The people went through dispute and concentrated discussion ranging from everyday common matters to the elevated standard of political attitude. The journals, salons, libraries, the reading societies and clubs played a very significant role in spreading the thoughts of thinkers among the common people. But the French Revolution was unfortunately illustrious for its complexity and contradiction in dealing with the affairs of the new state, its people and the diplomatic relationship with other countries. The authors of the revolution sought to get rid of everything related to the medieval age and used the violence, under the name of revolution, to purge and destroy the old aristocratic regime and its followers. The apostles of democracy instituted despotism of terror, exerting to exterminate all those who were indulgent of the offenses of the privileged classes. The apostles of equality scattered flames and consternation to almost the whole European countries, and substituted the disorder and random to the continent instead of peace and stability. The representatives of the fear secured neither age nor sex; neither the fame of distinguished achievement nor the unimportance of tedious weakness won mercy at their hands as nobody availed to save from the all-devouring guillotine. Every blossom, in such huge estates has been showered with the moans and tear of suffering hearts; every rock in these gigantic masses of constructions were constructed with human tragedy. “Louis XVI. Was paid for the hubris of Louis XIV.; the nobles paid for the pleasures which their forefathers had so carelessly enjoyed; the privileged classes for the privileges which they had usurped and had so grievously misused” (Megnet, 2006, p.8). The leaders of the Revolution followed values, the values articulated in three expressions, Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity. In order to achieve their lofty standard of dignity and success, they had to undermine past, erect the present and establish their vision for the future. The authors of the Revolution, who encompassed men and woman, moved backward and forward between the two extremes of tyranny and anarchy, diminished from gaining the path of victory and their mission has been left behind unfulfilled. Their dreams were somehow far from attaining the requirement of recognition; they launched no arena of perfect grace; they created no Utopia. But their toil was not in futile. Therefore, The revolution and its enlighten ideas were sharply criticized by some leading philosophers and critics including English famous critic Edmund Burk. He discredited 1789 revolution in his book *Reflection on the Revolution in France* as he damned the revolution and all its principles and ideology. His attack focused on the notion of social change and the deconstructive consequences of such change. The French revolution, thus, created controversy and prolonged philosophical debates among writers, critics and scholars due to its complex consequences on France and on the whole world. Its universal changes were massive; some were broadly accepted and others were resentfully challenged up to the late 20th century and have been regarded as a example for most of revolutions worldwide, despite the fact that the cost, in lives, was high.

III. ARISTOCRATS VS PEASANTS OF A TALE OF TWO CITIES: BLOOD FOR BLOOD

A. *Tale of Two Cities* was written in late fifties of nineteenth century when Dickens' creativity was at its peek. At that time, the British industry and capitalist economy also grew rapidly. Ills of capitalist progress, the poverty and the suffering of working class made the British society sinking on the verge of a social uprising. There was all-encompassing anger and dissatisfaction among masses and their rebellious sentiment triggered on the threshold. Accordingly, Dickens, who was the most celebrity author of his day and well-known for his contribution in social reform, wrote *A Tale of Two Cities*, which was basically about the French Revolution, to severely condemn the 19th century British and to provide reference for contemporary Britain. Dickens, in his philosophy of the French Revolution, sent two powerful neutral messages. The first

message was for the privileged classes of the British society indicating that the impoverishment and the hardship of the lower classes went through was unbearable and must come to an end and the social reform and equality should be instant and rapid. The second message was sent to the masses of the lower classes which implies that the common people should be sober, tolerant, and kind-hearted in case they revolt against the monarchy and the other privileged groups of classes and shouldn't repeat the same errors committed by the French people during the French Revolution. In the opening of the book, Dickens uses the lines "It was the best of times, it was the worst of times...it was the season of light, it was the season of darkness..." (Dickens, 1859, P.4) to articulate the dualistic nature of his time as it has some identical aspects with France during the French revolution. The French revolution was one of the most greatest events in the history, and its influence was extremely powerful during Dickens's time. *A tale of two cities*, therefore, was written in a very crucial and historical moment in which most incidents relied on a massive history of the French Revolution written by Dickens's famous historian friends Thomas Carlyle. Yet Dickens's viewpoint on revolution is significantly different from that of Carlyle. Contrasting with Carlyle, he did not witness virtue or fairness in the violence. His voice was ranging from being too compassionate with the revolutionary, to a feeling of dissension with their means of revolting. Throughout the novel, Dickens depicts his neutrality through the constant hostility and conflict between the privileged aristocratic classes and the third-state classes in a series of explicit descriptions. The Second part of the book is mainly concerned with the rotten and deteriorated condition of Pre-revolutionary France. Depiction of the arbitrary administration was significantly noticeable through the representation of a neglectful and uncaring government. For example, Monseigneur, a powerful aristocrat of at the court, owns himself four cooks to prepare chocolates for him at the time when the country was economically and politically depreciated. Instead of dedicating his time to the progress of the country and paying attention for its crisis, he wastes his time in the theater in the company of charming ladies. The military leaders and officials are completely incompetent and have no familiarity with the military affairs. Government officials are poorly unqualified and ignorant of the state affairs. Doctors are mainly occupied in curing the minor diseases of the aristocratic ladies and the architects are busy in building the castles and palaces (Saravanan, 2014). Consequently, the peasants experienced a desperate and tragic time and found themselves marginalized and oppressed due to such corrupt aristocrats and their arbitrary rule. The common people, miserably, underwent through Socioeconomic Inequality during the pre-revolutionary France. This period was illustrious for its distinctions of classes, barriers of provinces, feudal subjection, the oppression of tithes, and impediment of entails against the peasants by the privileged classes from the clergy men, noble people and aristocratic family. Dickens, in his book, utilizes irony, graphic description, and satire to highlight the social/economic inequality among the French people. Such inequality is exposed by Dicken's satirical portrayal of the standard of living of Monsignor's luxuries and the other members of the royal family. On the other hand, the poor people wretchedly suffer to the degree that they lay down to the ground to drink the wine that is accidentally spilt on the street. The reaction for the hunger and the begging of the people is too tough and inhumane by the marquise as his brutal reaction is to allow the people eat the grass; the people have nothing to eat but onions and struggle for survival while the aristocrats enjoy the luxury of life upon the people's toils. Evremonde family, who represents the aristocrats and the nobility in the novel, strongly believes that the humiliation and disgrace are the only effective means to deal with the peasants. Therefore, Doctor Manette's personal story with The Evremondes culminates such callousness and ruthless attitude of the royal family. They destroy the future of one families ruthlessly through raping a poor peasant girl, wounding her brother, then summoning Manette to treat their victims. When Manette attempts to condemn such aggressive behavior and makes a report about this genuine tragedy, he is imprisoned in the Bastille for over 17 years. Accordingly, He writes a full account of his experience-damning the Evremondes to the last of their race-and hides this personal history in his cell. Manette's experience proves that the royal family has absolute authority, and any information of their activities might bring serious risk: "The things that you see here," the Marquis cautions young Manette, "are things to be seen, and not spoken of" (Dicken, 1859, P.311). As a result The horrible incidents Manette explains, few examples of the larger stories, provoke the major events of French Revolution. The rape itself horribly indicates social and disgrace against common people and natural consequences of the absolute power. besides, The smoldering dissatisfaction in Saint Antoine where people live in wretched poverty deepens when the carriage of the marquis runs over a child and murders him horribly. Then Evremonde considers, "repression is the only lasting philosophy. The dark deference of fear and slavery, my friend, observed the Marquis, will prevent the dogs obedient to the whip, as long as this roof, facing up to it, shuts out the sky" (Dickens,1859, P.142). Conversely, while the French peasants' motives for revolting were completely reasonable, and the French Revolution was extensively eulogized for its substantial principles of "Equality, Liberty, and Fraternity", Dickens takes a more different view. He believes that the classical habits of subjugation and absolutism are no longer advantageous and provoke extreme anger among the people, and that much tyranny and much depression certainly trigger rebellion, but, unfortunately, when the revolution starts off, The writers believes that it is extremely brutal and that the less violence the better as he desires that people should show tolerance and harmony as a substitute of severe detestation. (Na Li, 2013). By viewing how the revolutionaries employ oppression and violence to further their own self-interested and vicious ends in the name of freedom and liberation from the absolute power of aristocratic monarchy, Dickens indicates that whoever is in authority, aristocracy or masses, will get lavishly tempted to practice their full power harmfully. *A Tale of two cities*, in other word, fundamentally demonstrates that while despotism will inescapably lead to revolution, revolution will lead just as unavoidably to despotism. Consequently, the oppression was among the key issues raised by the revolutionary people of French. "No one could deny that the Revolution had produced momentous and lasting changes. The Europe of the *ancien régime* had been destroyed and all attempts to restore it had foundered. But these changes appeared to be indivisible from the violence and despotism that had brought them about" (Jones, 2009, p.526). The mass violence and the bloodshed, it occurred, had never been accidental, but inseparable in its oriented and inherent nature. Albert (1978) argues that While the social exploitation of Defarge's family demonstrates the cruelty of the individual powerful people, Madame Defarge, accordingly, turn beauty into power and violence, finally into terror" (Albert,1978). Her retribution is extremely dreadful because it reverses the sister's misery and suffering -or, more generally, the implicit passivity of the

French peasants. She is more callous than her husband; her close follower is a woman who has thirst for blood and revenge; and the most horrible figure of all is "the figure of the sharp female called La Guillotine" (Dickens, 1859, p. 259). Hence, the revolution is overwhelmingly teeming with cruelty and senseless deaths. People are stabbed in the streets, shot down in cold blood, and executed at the hands of tyranny. There is no sense of the vulgarity of it all, as families take ringside seats at beheadings as if it were a sporting event, cheering as each head is separated from its body. The guillotine, a mammoth mechanism for killing that was decreed at the time in France as the instrument to be used for all executions, takes on a character of its own (Davis, 2004). Regrettably, instead of replacing order and peace, the early years of revolution had been so devastatingly horrible, and its traces had been a memorable moment of trouble events of the smoldering of castle, of the storming of the Bastille, of irritated masses, of the killing of the emperor and his queen, and most of the top leaders of the Revolution itself, of the horror and the killing machine the guillotine, of women having the ferocity of tigers and the violation of the inviolability of churches. According to Mysam (2014), Dickens profoundly describes the rebellious moments for revolutionaries where the hostility and revenge only lead to massacre and more despotism. Interestingly, the revolutionaries were ignorant of a constitution and demanded a republic without real understanding of the republic requirements. Therefore, once the French Revolution started, it turns into series of frantic chaos disturbing the calmness and stability of the people. This reality has been mostly described in chapters "Echoing Footsteps", "The Sea Still Rises", and "Fire Rises" (May, 2008). Through underlining some horrible incident in the novel, such as storming of the Bastille, Mass massacres of the Aristocrats including innocents, never-ending Chaos, merciless beheading of the enemies through the rapid fall of the guillotine, Dickens brilliantly concludes the heavy price the French revolutionaries had paid for their revolution. The author firmly believes that The hostility, anger, and revenge involving the Aristocrats and the peasants are almost the substantial reasons that renders the revolution even more violent, destructing, and obliterating. Sorry to say, what began as a revolution that stood up for the poor and unprivileged, turned into mass terror and obsessed hostility.

IV. CONCLUSION

Though Thomas Carlyle's history of the French Revolution is an important source for *A Tale of Two Cities*, Dickens's historical and socio-political dimension is elliptical and suggestive. By the time of his death, *Tale of Two cities* was powerfully on the way to being recognized as Dickens' most extensively published and popular work. It has become an icon of the French Revolution. Its focus concerns with the condition of 18th century European socio-political turmoil and its consequences and Dickens's appropriate and neutral response of the relationship involving the so-called aristocratic community and peasants. The pre-revolutionary period was depicted as an era which devastatingly based on Socioeconomic-Inequality, Tyranny, and Subjugation of the Barbarous aristocratic rule against the masses. The post-revolutionary period, nonetheless, demonstrated disappointingly how pointless the revolution has become when the substantial goal of equality has been lost and replaced by chaos, anarchy and violence. The fierce response of the well-pointed gun and an answering of violence with violence sadly culminated in more destruction and catastrophe that lasted for long period of time. The sequence reactions of brutal coercion and violent insurgence have gone through beyond human control, and in this ferocity all distinctions of individualism and even gender are submerged. Thus, my study concluded that the entire imaginative power of the writer has been successfully dedicated to illuminate his universal concept regarding the hostile relationship involving the classes and its catastrophic consequences.

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Exploring EFL Learners' Preferences, Perceived Needs, and Perceptions about Language Learning Strategies

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Abstract—This study was to investigate the impact of language experience and academic level on the perceived needs of Iranian undergraduate EFL learners. Two groups of Iranian TEFL female students (freshmen and senior) were compared regarding their preferences, perceived needs and perceptions of different activity types about language learning. To collect data, Sihong's (2007) needs analysis questionnaire for English language needs was utilized. Thirty two freshman and twenty nine senior MA students with the age range of 25-35 were considered as the subject of this study. They were asked to fill out the questionnaire through email and they were given the confidence that the collected data would remain anonymous. Results revealed that there was a significant difference between freshman and senior EFL learners in their preferences, needs and opinions about various types of activities, and various aspects of language education. The findings also revealed that freshmen students required more practice in grammar and pronunciation than vocabulary for them. The most difficult components of language were pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar respectively; however, the senior students reported that vocabulary and grammar were the most difficult component of language skill and pronunciation was the least one.

Index Terms—EFL learners, language learning strategies, needs analysis, perceived needs, perceptions of different activity types, preferences

I. INTRODUCTION

The first model of Needs Analysis (NA) in language pedagogy was proposed by Richterich (1972 as cited in Hutchinson & Water, 1987). Primarily, NA was applied to provide a definition of the contents and goals of language educational curriculums; since then, it has played role in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education and curriculum design (Hutchinson & Water, 1987). According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), most English for Specific Purpose (ESP) courses are developed according to the needs of sponsors, i.e. universities, companies, and agencies. For example, in Iran, nearly all English courses at institutional or university level is designed based on a target situation analysis of authorities who mainly rely on their own past experiences. The problem is that this view is incomplete; it overlooks the views of other parties involved such as the ESP teachers, the learners, and the teaching institutes.

Developing a program which matches the students' requirements, and help both educators and learners to achieve the objectives of a language program, especially at Master of Art (MA) level, could best be fulfilled through initiating an inclusive analysis of the students' needs. Various definitions of "needs" are given in the literature. Richards, Platt, and Platt, (1992) give a definition of needs analysis as the processes of finding out the needs of learners for learning a language and organizing them consistent with the main concerns. According to them, 'needs' could be interpreted in various ways according to the viewpoints of those who define it, e.g., instructors, students, supervisors, personnel, parents and investors might interpret 'needs' of learners in different ways. Overall, there is a common point in all definitions that knowing about the needs of learners provides teachers with a wealth of information leading to a better curriculum development by teachers exactly in line with their real educational needs. Also, Hyland (2006) defines needs analysis as the methods for collection and assessment of information related to curriculum development, or as the processes of determining the content and quality of an educational program. The second gap is that, unfortunately not many English teachers accept their learners' needs. In NA, not only we must pay attention to the learners' preferences but also we must consider instructors' alertness of those favorites, which plays a significant role in inspiring their policymaking practices and performance in teaching and learning context (Spratt, 1999 as cited in Hyland, 2006).

Lots of research has been accomplished in EFL contexts globally and in Iran so as to explore students' needs in a variety of settings especially the EAP context. For instance, the study of Chia et al. (1998) showed that listening skill was emphasized as the most significant skill to learn for students in their early English courses. . In another study, Chan (2001) investigated the English language requirements of learners at the Polytechnic University of Hong Kong. Through his study, the learners' awareness toward their own needs, the self-assessment of their abilities in educational

and professional domains were discovered. Atai and Shoja (2011) examined the language requirements of Iranian university learners studying computer engineering where writing abilities and constituents of language, including four skills, caused difficulties for the learners. Pourshahian et al. (2012) have also explored the needs of Iranian learners in an EFL setting and found that the learners had difficulties to deal with in developing their writing skills and applying grammatical rules. The results of one other research conducted by Allami et al. (2009) on the language needs of students and the current conditions of teaching materials for English language learners revealed that it deemed necessary to reconsider the curriculum and the resources generated for the school education in Iran. Nevertheless, no particular research has so far considered the needs of students in General English course, which is offered as a three-credit compulsory course throughout the Iranian academic settings.

Thus far, lots of studies have been conducted to analyze the language needs of various collections of learners round the world (Kim, 2006) few studies have focused on the variable of language experience and academic level on the needs of the students and particularly how these needs change over time. Most of the academic English courses in Iran are designed based on no robust needs analysis and teachers do not feel the need to ask their students about or consider their needs. Another problem is that as learners gain more experience, their perception of their educational needs change. For example, Iranian ELT students' experience at first year (freshman) affects their perception of their needs, expectations, and preferences which may differ considerably as they gain more experience during the senior year; therefore, the main goal of this research is to examine the influence of language experience and academic level on the perceived needs of Iranian TEFL students and to find out the difference between freshman and senior EFL Learners' preferences, needs, and perceptions of different activity types about language learning. This study also aims at investigating the difference between freshman and Senior EFL Learners' preferences about language learning as their views are compared. To comply with the objectives of the study, the following quantitative research questions are addressed:

Q1. Is there any significant difference between freshman and senior EFL Learners' perceived needs about language learning?

Q2. Is there any significant difference between freshman and senior EFL Learners' preferences about language learning?

Q3. Is there any significant difference between freshman and senior EFL Learners' perceptions of different activity types about language learning?

Q4. What are the perceived needs, preferences, perceptions of different activity types of EFL learners about language learning?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Thirty two freshman and twenty nine senior female TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) students at MA level in Islamic Azad University, Amol, participated in this study. They were selected based on available sampling. They were selected from the first and the last year of their MA studies on ELT program. Their age ranged from 25-35. They were native speakers of Persian who had at least 6 years of experience in learning English as a foreign language.

B. Instruments

To comply with the objectives of this study and in order to explore the EFL learners' perceived needs and preferences, the following questionnaires were used as data gathering instruments: First, a demographic questionnaire which included sections to extract personal and educational information about the selected sample of the study, e.g., age, gender, marital status, and proficiency level and previous background in English language. Then, the needs analysis questionnaire for English language needs by Sihong (2007) which was adapted by Moinvaziri (2014) in Iranian context was used as the main instrument of this study. This questionnaire was piloted and adapted into the context of Iran. It was explored by two professionals to see if the questionnaire was comprehensible, and then piloted amongst 30 learners resembling the sample for main study. The questionnaire enjoyed high reliability with the Cronbach-alpha of 0.875. It consisted of four sections: The first section was about biographical information. The second section (Part B) tried to explore the students' viewpoints towards what they needed to learn addressing the first and the fourth questions of this study; this part included 3 questions with five point Likert scale answers and asked students views about three language components (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation). The third part (Part C) investigated the learners' preferred learning styles and strategies to probe the second and the fourth questions of the study. The last part (Part D) was comprised of one main question. It addressed the students' expectations of the language activities to find answer to the third and the fourth questions of the study.

C. Procedure

In order to uncover the preferred learning style, perceived needs and expectation of learning activities, a needs analysis questionnaire developed by Sihong (2007) adapted by Moinvaziri (2014) within the context of Iran was used. Seventy freshman and senior MA students of TEFL in Ayatollah Amoli University were asked to fill out the needs analysis questionnaire which was emailed to them; they were notified that their answers would be anonymous and not disclosed to the others. Sixty one students (32 freshmen and 29 senior students) filled out the questionnaires and sent

them back. The questionnaire comprised four parts and each part was used to reflect one of the research questions posed earlier in this study. More specifically, the questionnaire comprised four parts: Part A enquired about biographical data. Part B included three Likert scale questions which aimed to probe the freshman and senior TEFL MA students' perceived needs about three language components (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation). Answers given to Part B of the needs analysis questionnaire by the two groups of subjects were compared. The third part (Part C) of the questionnaire aimed to uncover learners' preferred learning styles and strategies. This part included five questions to which aimed to uncover learners preferences about language learning. The last question in part C was designed to answer question four of the study qualitatively. The last section in the questionnaire probed the perception of different activity types. Part D of the questionnaire comprised eight subcategories with the aim to compare the problem between the freshman and senior TEFL MA students' attitudes toward the various types of activities and expectations about language learning.

III. RESULTS

In order to test the first null hypothesis stating that there is no significant difference between freshman and senior EFL Learners' perceived needs about language learning, both descriptive and inferential statistics were run. The first three questions from Part B of the NA questionnaire included the given importance to each component of the language (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation) (Q1), the frequency of practice required for each component (Q2) and components with the most and the least difficulty (Q3) (Table 1). Part B probed the learners' perceptions toward what they need to learn addressing the answer to the first and the fourth questions of this study; this part included five point Likert scale answers. Table 1 illustrates the descriptive statistics about the learners' viewpoints toward the components of language (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation).

TABLE 1.
EFL LEARNERS' VIEWPOINTS TOWARD THE COMPONENTS OF LANGUAGE (GRAMMAR, VOCABULARY, PRONUNCIATION), DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Part B	level	N	Mean	SD
Q1 grammar	freshman	32	4.25	.718
	senior	29	3.07	1.163
Q1 vocabulary	freshman	32	4.22	.706
	senior	29	4.03	1.149
Q1 pronunciation	freshman	32	4.53	.567
	senior	29	2.03	.823
Q2 grammar	freshman	32	4.19	.859
	senior	29	2.00	.655
Q2 vocabulary	freshman	32	3.13	.833
	senior	29	2.00	.655
Q2 pronunciation	freshman	32	3.47	.671
	senior	29	1.41	.682
Q3 grammar	freshman	32	3.38	1.070
	senior	29	2.55	.506
Q3 vocabulary	freshman	32	3.72	1.114
	senior	29	2.69	.604
Q3 pronunciation	freshman	32	4.13	.660
	senior	29	2.41	.733

Q1= Degree of Importance for each component (Grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation)

Q2= The Amount of practice required

Q3=The most and the least difficult components

Results of Table1 showed that freshman students considered pronunciation (M= 4.53, SD= .567), and grammar (M=4.25, SD= .718) as the most important language components while seniors believed that vocabulary was the most important component (M= 4.03, SD= 1.149).The freshmen felt they needed more practice in grammar (M= 4.19, SD= .859) and pronunciation (M= 3.47, SD= .671) rather than vocabulary (M=3.13, SD= .833) as they believed the first two were more important. The most difficult component of language for freshman students was pronunciation (M=4.13, SD= .660), vocabulary (M= 3.72, SD= 1.114), and grammar (M=3.38, SD=1.070) in order, but for the seniors vocabulary (M= 2.69, SD= .604). After vocabulary, grammar was the most difficult language skill for the senior subjects (M= 2.41, SD = .733); as opposed to the freshmen, pronunciation was the least difficult skill for senior students (M= 2.55, SD = .506) (Table 1).

An independent-samples T-test was conducted to compare students' views toward the components of language (grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation), their perceived needs, and the amount of practice they felt they need in each of the language components, and the importance of each component (Table 2).

TABLE2.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE FIRST RESEARCH QUESTION

PART B OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE	T	DF	SIG. (2-TAILED)	MEAN DIFFERENCE
Q1 GRAM	4.82	59	.000	1.18
Q1 VOCABULARY	.762	59	.449	.18
Q1 PRONUNCIATION	13.90	59	.000	2.49
Q2 GRAM	11.09	59	.000	2.18
Q2 VOCAB	5.82	59	.000	1.12
Q2 PRONUNCIATION	11.84	59	.000	2.05
Q3 GRAM	3.77	59	.000	.82
Q3 VOCAB	4.41	59	.000	1.02
Q3 PRONUNCIATION	9.59	59	.000	1.71

Q1= Degree of Importance for each component (Grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation)

Q2= The Amount of practice required

Q3=The most and the least difficult components

Results from Table 2 showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the scores of the two groups in vocabulary; $t(59) = .762$, Sig. (2-tailed) = .449, $P > .05$. The mean difference (.18) was small. Hence, the first null hypothesis was accepted in the case of vocabulary. On the contrary, there was a significant difference between the perception of the two groups about the importance of grammar, $t(45.77) = 4.71$, Sig. (2-tailed) = .000, $P < .05$. The mean difference (1.18) was large. Hence, the first null hypothesis was rejected in the case of grammar. Also, there was a significant difference between the perception of the two groups about the importance of pronunciation, $t(49.07) = 13.66$, Sig. (2-tailed) = .000, $P < .05$. The mean difference (2.49) was very large. Hence, the first null hypothesis was rejected in the case of pronunciation.

Table 2 also demonstrated that there was statistically significant difference between the scores of the two groups in all of the three language components with regard to the amount of practice they needed: Grammar: $t(57.37) = 11.24$, Sig. (2-tailed) = .000, $P < .05$, MD =2.1; Vocabulary: $t(57.89) = 5.89$, Sig. (2-tailed) = .000, $P < .05$, MD =1.12; Pronunciation: $t(58.21) = 11.83$, Sig. (2-tailed) = .000, $P < .05$, MD =2.05. Therefore, the first null hypothesis was rejected in the case of the amount of practice that the two groups felt they needed in all of the three language skills. However, the mean difference was greatest for pronunciation and smallest for vocabulary.

Results from Table 2 demonstrated that there was statistically significant difference between the scores of the two groups in all of the three language components with regard to the most difficult language components: Grammar: $t(45.14) = 3.89$, Sig. (2-tailed) = .000, $P < .05$, MD =.82; Vocabulary: $t(56.64) = 9.54$, Sig. (2-tailed) = .000, $P < .05$, MD =1.71; Pronunciation: $t(48.69) = 4.54$, Sig. (2-tailed) = .000, $P < .05$, MD =1.02. Hence, the first null hypothesis was rejected in the case of the most difficult language components that the two groups perceived; although, the mean difference was greatest in vocabulary and smallest in grammar.

Tables 3 and 4 showed the comparison of the mean scores of freshman and senior students to discover if there was a significant difference between freshman and senior EFL Learners' preferences about language learning and test the second null hypothesis.

TABLE3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PART C OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Part C	level	N	Mean	SD
Q1.view about tests	freshman	32	2.25	.672
	senior	29	2.00	.926
Q2. progress results	freshman	32	1.44	.504
	senior	29	2.62	.775
Q3. How often to take a test	freshman	32	3.41	.499
	senior	29	3.52	.509
Q4. learning style	freshman	32	1.59	.756
	senior	29	3.21	1.373

TABLE 4.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE COMPARISON OF MEANS BETWEEN THE GROUPS

PART C OF THE NA QUESTIONNAIRE	T	DF	SIG. (2-TAILED)	MD
Q1. VIEW ABOUT TESTS	1.19	50.68	.237	.250
Q2. PROGRESS RESULTS	-7.13	59	.000	-1.18
Q3. HOW OFTEN TO TAKE A TEST	-.86	59	.393	-.11
Q4. LEARNING STYLE	-5.60	42.60	.000	-1.61

Tables 3 and 4 indicated that there was no significant difference between the preferences of freshman ($M= 2.25$, $SD= .672$) and senior students ($M=2$, $SD=.926$); $t(50.68) = 1.19$, sig. (2-tailed) = .237, $p > .05$. Hence, the second null hypothesis was accepted for this part.

For Part C question2, there is a significant difference between the preferences of freshman ($M= 1.44$, $SD= .504$) and senior students ($M=2.62$, $SD=.775$) about the way they wanted to know about their progress; $t(59) = -.86$, sig. (2-tailed) = .000, $p < .05$. Hence, the H02 is rejected for this part. No significant difference was found between the preferences of

freshman ($M= 3.41$, $SD= .499$) and senior students ($M=3.52$, $SD=.509$) about how often they preferred to take a test; $t(59) = -7.13$, sig. (2-tailed) = .393, $p>.05$. Hence, the second null hypothesis was accepted for this part.

In addition, there was a significant difference between the preferences and learning styles of freshman ($M= 1.59$, $SD= .756$) and senior students ($M=3.21$, $SD=1.373$); $t(42.60) = -5.60$, sig. (2-tailed) = .000, $p<.05$. Hence, the H02 is rejected for this part. To sum up, there was no statistically significant difference between the preferences of freshman and senior EFL learners about tests; however, there was a significant difference between their learning styles and general preferences about language learning; therefore, the second null hypothesis was rejected.

Part D of the NA questionnaire included 1 question to test the third null-hypothesis and answer to the third question of this study. This part addressed the students' expectations of the language activities with 8 possible answers. Tables 5 and 6 show the descriptive statistics and the results of the comparison of means to test the third null hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference between freshman and senior EFL Learners' perceptions of different activity types about language learning.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PART D OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Part D of the questionnaire	Level	N	Mean	SD
Freshman and senior EFL Learners' perceptions of different activity types about language learning.	freshman	32	2.78	1.680
	senior	29	6.66	1.173

TABLE 6.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE COMPARISON OF MEANS BETWEEN THE GROUPS

Part C of the NA questionnaire	T	Df	Sig.	MD
Freshman and senior EFL Learners' perceptions of different activity types about language learning.	-10.33	59	.000	-3.87

Results showed that the third null hypothesis was rejected and there was a significant difference between freshman ($M= 2.78$, $SD= 1.680$) and senior ($M= 6.66$, $SD=1.173$) EFL Learners' perceptions of different activity types about language learning; $t(59) = -10.33$, sig. (2-tailed) = .000, $p<.05$ and the mean difference was -3.87.

The last question of the study was qualitative and related data was collected through the same NA questionnaire and descriptive statistics and frequency tables (Tables 7 & 8).

TABLE 7.
STUDENTS' LEARNING STYLES AND PREFERENCES

Part C,	Answers	Freshman students		Senior students	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q1. What is your view of tests?	both	4	12.5	12	41.4
	necessary	16	50.0	5	17.2
	useful	12	37.5	12	41.4
	Total	32	100.0	29	100.0
Q2. What source(s) could help you find out about your progress?	Test results	18	56.3	5	17.2
	Teacher- evaluation	14	43.8	1	3.4
	Self -reflection	0	0	23	79.3
	Total	32	100.0	29	100.0
Q3. How often do you expect to take a test?	Once a week	0	0	1	3.44
	Once a month	0	0	6	20.68
	Twice a semester	19	59.4	14	48.27
	Never	13	40.6	8	27.58
	Total	32	100.0	29	100.0
Q4. What kinds of learning styles do you like?	1	18	56.3	0	0
	2	9	28.1	14	48.3
	3	5	15.6	5	17.2
	4	0	0	0	0
	5	0	0	10	34.5
	Total	32	100.0	29	100.0

The comparison of the distribution of answers in Table 7 showed that while exactly half of the freshman students regarded tests as *necessary*, only 17.5% of seniors believed that tests are *necessary*; instead, nearly half of the senior students (41.4%) thought that tests are both *necessary* and *useful*. Distribution and frequency of responses also show that more than half of the freshmen (56.3%) regarded test results as the best source to know about their progress, and maybe that's why they believed that tests are necessary. The rest of the freshman students (14 out of 32) relied on teacher-evaluation as a source of feedback on their progress (43.8%). As opposed to the freshmen who did not rely on self-reflection at all, 79.3% of senior students believed in self-reflection as the best measure of their progress; respectively 17.2% and 3.4% of these students needed test result and teacher evaluation. The fact that only 1 out of 29 senior students relied on teacher evaluation about 43% of freshmen in the same type of evaluation, can indicate that EFL learners gain more autonomy as their experience increases.

Although more than half of the freshman students believed that tests are necessary and useful, 59.4% of them preferred not to take tests ever and chose *Never* as compared with 27.68% of seniors who would rather not take tests at all. The remaining students chose to take tests twice a month which is as rarely as possible. Fear of tests can have roots in the cultural and educational background of Iranian students. On the other hand, the percentages of answers for seniors show that as the academic level of the students goes up, their understanding of the usefulness of tests increases, too (48.27% twice a semester, 20.68% once a month, 3.44% once a week). An interesting result from table 7 is related to social and individual styles as defined in chapter 2. While no freshman student preferred social style and group work, 34.5% of senior students preferred social style. Also, the majority of seniors (94.83%) preferred a more active role for students in the classroom and believed that teachers should provide opportunities for more practice for students, and no one in the senior group preferred to be a passive listener while the teacher gives lectures.

The last question in Part C of the NA questionnaire was used to answer the fourth question of this study. This part investigated students' opinions about the qualities of an English teacher in a qualitative way. Students' answers are reported in Table 8.

TABLE 8.
STUDENTS' PREFERENCES ABOUT ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS

Part C, learning styles preferences	Answers	Freshman students		Senior students	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q5. Attitudes on what English instructor ought to do	4	8	25.0	1	3.4
	5	10	31.3	0	0
	6	4	12.5	3	10.3
	8	5	15.6	5	17.2
	9	0	0	10	34.5
	10	0	0	4	13.8
	11	5	15.6	0	0
	12	0	0	6	20.7
	Total	32	100.0	29	100

Neither freshmen nor senior students believed that the teacher should lecture and deliver knowledge, be the authority in the classroom or talk for most of the class time (Table 8). However, more freshman students (25%) preferred that the teacher gives time for student talk than seniors. While 31.3% of freshman preferred that the teacher should correct every mistake that students make, no one in the senior group agrees with this. Approximately the same number of students in both groups agreed that the teacher should respond to students positively and encourage students to ask questions. It looks as if the senior students paid more attention to the learning environment than the other group as 34.5% of them suggested that the tutor ought to build a pleasant and satisfying learning atmosphere and pay attention to students' needs. As it turns out, the higher the academic level of the students, the higher their awareness of the necessity of paying attention to the students' needs will be. While about 15% of freshman students prefer to stick to the textbooks and have more structured language activities, senior students prefer more unstructured and unpredictable activities and about 20% of them prefer that some learning strategies be taught to them.

IV. DISCUSSION

Results showed that freshman students considered pronunciation and grammar as the most important language components while senior students believed that vocabulary was the most important component, results from the t-test have also shown that there was no statistically significant difference between the scores of the two groups in vocabulary. Nevertheless, there was a significant difference between the attitudes of the two groups toward the importance of grammar. Hence, the first null hypothesis was rejected in the case of grammar. Also, there was a significant difference between the attitudes of the two groups toward the importance of pronunciation. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the perceived needs of freshman and senior EFL learners with regard to the amount of practice they felt they need in each of the language components.

The freshmen felt they needed more practice in grammar and pronunciation rather than vocabulary as they believed the first two were more important. The most difficult component of language for freshman students was pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar in order, but for the seniors, vocabulary and then grammar was the most difficult language skill; as opposed to the freshmen, pronunciation was the least difficult skill for senior students. Results have shown that there was statistically significant difference between the scores of the two groups in all of the three language components with regard to the most difficult language components. These findings are comparable with Chia et al.'s (1998) in which reading was considered as the most necessary skill and also vocabulary and structure were felt needed. Chia et al. (1998)'s study showed that in their first-year English course, listening was regarded as the most essential skill to learn. As Pourshahin et al. (2012) have asserted the Iranian students' needs in an ESL context and concluded that the students had problems in their writing skills and use of grammar. In other study, Atai and Shoja (2011) investigated the academic language needs of Iranian students of computer engineering in which writing skills and components of language (reading, writing, listening, speaking) created problems for the students. In spite of the availability of numerous materials on the market, there are some serious problems in this regard. First of all the existing material would

mostly emphasize the students reading comprehension skills and do not consider other skills and components of language. It is also worth mentioning that even in Iranian state education system the skill of reading is regarded as the most important skill as well (Sadeghi & Bidel Nikou, 2012). In addition, these textbooks are not well-complied either qualitatively or quantitatively (Ahmadi & Bajelani, 2012) and do not consider the students' real needs and constraints of the social life in which they should act in near future (Shamsaei & Shams, 2010).

Based on White (1988), the impression that equal importance should be given to all four language abilities is not suitable to all students is one of the perceptions generated through ESP and needs analysis. White (1988) declares that varying performance levels in four skill areas can be achieved. As a result, it is not needed to attain equality in all four skills. These results are found to be consistent with the findings of the present research. Selecting which of four skills to improve first could be one of the concerns of EFL learners. These findings are in line with those from Atai and Shoja (2011) and Pourshahian, et al. (2012) who founded that the learners in their study had difficulties in their writing abilities and the application of grammatical rules. While exactly half of the freshman students regarded tests as *necessary*, only 17.5% of seniors believed that tests are *necessary*; instead, nearly half of the senior students (41.4%) thought that tests are both *necessary* and *useful*. Distribution and frequency of responses also show that more than half of the freshmen (56.3%) regarded test results as the best source to know about their progress, and maybe that's why they believed that tests are necessary. The rest of the freshman students (14 out of 32) relied on teacher-evaluation as a source of feedback on their progress (43.8%). As opposed to the freshmen who did not rely on self-reflection at all, 79.3% of senior students believed in self-reflection as the best measure of their progress; respectively 17.2% and 3.4% of these students needed test result and teacher evaluation. The fact that only 1 out of 29 senior students relied on teacher evaluation about 43% of freshmen in the same type of evaluation, can indicate that EFL learners gain more autonomy as their experience increases.

V. CONCLUSION

The findings of this research might be helpful for curriculum developers at English unit of Language School in Ayatollah Amoli University in determining the English language needs of TEFL learners and upgrading the current program to better satisfy the requirements of the learners. When the language skills are talked about, practicing speaking and listening skills as well as presentation skill should be more emphasized. For freshman students, pronunciation and grammar and then vocabulary while for seniors vocabulary and grammar are the priority. Through analyzing and interpreting the data, it was revealed that learners were needed to do more preparation in listening and speaking skills as the unnoticed skills. Hence, full practice is required to improve reading and writing skills of the learners. Furthermore, the self-assessments of the learners showed that more practical activities were also required to observe improvement in reading and writing skills. An accurate assessment of the needs of learners could also pave the way for further investigations in the areas such as curriculum and resource design and development, and application of the courses in the syllabus.

While this research could not be generalized to all the academic centers in Iran, it attempted to detect the different needs and requirements of the learners at one academic center hoping that this describing and analyzing the learners' requirements in IAU of Iran, Amol Branch can work as a point of departure to draw the attention of university instructors, as well as syllabus designers and developers toward the significance of such courses together with specifically introduced courses. Moreover, it is hoped that this research could pave the way for those researchers in non-native ESL/EFL contexts to conduct further studies on the learning requirements of learners in the area of English language teaching and learning.

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The Application of Projected Visuals in Teaching Collocations to Intermediate EFL Learners

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Abstract—The present study is an attempt to investigate the effective of using projected visuals, pictures in the form of slides displayed through projectors, in teaching English collocations on students' learning. To this end, 60 Iranian EFL learners were selected out of 90 based on their performance on a language proficiency test, PET, and were assigned randomly into two homogeneous groups of control and experimental. Both groups took a 40-item researcher-made, validated pretest of collocations whose reliability was calculated as 0.74 through KR-21. 130 collocations were presented to each group in ten sessions through ten tables which consisted of 10 to 15 collocations with their L2 definitions and L1 (Persian) equivalents. The control group was required to make sentences, including the newly instructed collocations following the examples provided by the instructor, while the experimental group was shown a set of slides related to the newly-instructed collocations and was asked to determine the intended collocation related to each picture. After receiving ten treatment sessions, both groups took the posttest. The collected data were analyzed through ANCOVA and the results indicated that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group. Therefore, the use of visuals as instructional aids in teaching English collocations is proved helpful and recommended to those EFL instructors who are seeking for enhancing their students' learning through more effective materials.

Index Terms—English collocations, projected visuals, teaching aids, collocation teaching and learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning language has been occurred significantly through words and co-occurrence of words, namely collocations. In the existing literature, collocations are defined as the tendency of one word to co-occur with one or several other words in a particular domain so as to give a specific meaning (Hsu, 2007; Nation, 2001; Nesselhauf, 2003). The significance of collocations for communicative competence and the evolution of L2 vocabulary have been highlighted by a number of researchers (Benson, 1985; Cowie, 1994; Lewis, 1997) who commented on how to teach the non-native speakers English collocations. The collocation knowledge as an essential part of native speakers' competence makes learner creative in producing or processing language fluently (Forquera, 2006; Hsu & Chiu, 2008; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2000) and helps them "think more quickly and communicate more efficiently" (Hill, 2000, p. 54). In fact, one central feature of language production which can make a difference between a native and a non-native speaker is the use of collocations (McCarty, 1990; Nation, 2001; Wouden, 1997), and the improved knowledge of collocations could help learners be informed of language chunks and multi-word items used by native speakers (Narmvar, 2012).

Despite the major role of collocations in second language learning and teaching, many researchers have specified that collocation learning/teaching is still one problematic area in second language acquisition (Bahns & Eldaw, 1993; Millar, 2005; Taiwo, 2004; Walsh, 2005). Similarly, Aghbar's studies (1990) have shown that the lack of learners' collocation knowledge causes their poor performances of the second language. With no exception, Iranian learners who learn English in an EFL context have similar problems in using collocations despite having the required knowledge of grammar and vocabulary.

Although collocation learning might be a slow process, it can be enhanced by different strategies and techniques among which technological aids is an effective one. One of the most valuable and effective aids in language learning and teaching is the application of visuals, such as pictures, which attract learners' attention and interest to the materials being taught in order to create "images of reality into the unnatural world of the language classroom" (Hill, 1990, p.1). This implies that using visuals holds the learners' attention on meaning and helps them to make the language used in the class more refreshing. Although finding pictures for illustrating the meanings of words especially abstract ones is too difficult and somehow exhausting and time consuming for beginning teachers in particular, "the availability, variety, cheapness, and flexibility of visuals make teaching effective" (Hill, 1990, p.1). Moreover, using pictures in foreign language teaching for demonstration of words, expressions, idioms, and proverbs are always fresh and different (Hill,

1990). Visuals can be prepared in various styles and formats so as to make learners more interested in what are being presented to them. Perhaps this is why Koren (1997) claims that learning foreign words becomes easier through pictures.

Considering the need for language teachers to equip their teaching with more interesting techniques and with respect to the fact that no study has been conducted so far to evaluate the result of using visuals in collocation teaching and learning in an EFL context, the researchers of the current study attempted to investigate the application of visuals as teaching aids in enhancing learners' knowledge of collocations. In other words, the present study aims to explore the effect of collocation instruction with the aid of projected visuals on Iranian Intermediate EFL learners' achievement of collocations.

II. RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESIS

In order to achieve the purpose of this study, the following research question was proposed:

Does applying visuals as teaching aids have any significant impact on EFL learners' achievement of collocations?

Based on the raised research question, the following null hypothesis was formulated:

Applying visuals as teaching aids does not have any significant impact on EFL learners' achievement of collocations.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

Sixty Iranian female learners at intermediate level within the age range of 16 to 21 who were studying English in a language institute in Tehran were the participants of this study. They were selected out of 90 based on their performance on a language proficiency test, PET, and then were randomly assigned into two 30-member homogeneous groups, namely experimental and control groups. The homogeneity of the study groups was determined through an independent samples T-test.

B. Instrumentation

In order to test the hypothesis of the present study, two sets of tests were used for data collection: (a) Preliminary English Test (PET), and (b) a researcher-made pre/posttest of English collocations. Besides, 130 slides were developed by the researcher based on the content of the instruction to be used in the experimental group. Moreover, ten tables which contained the intended collocations to be instructed in each session were provided by the researchers to be used in 10 treatment sessions. The collocations were selected from the book 'Cambridge English Collocations in Use' written by McCarthy and O'Dell (2005) in order to be used in both study groups.

1. Preliminary English Test (PET)

The Preliminary English Test (PET) was given to 90 students out of whom 60 within the range of one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected. It is worth mentioning here that for the ease of administration and ease of scoring, the speaking and writing sections were excluded in the present study. Then, the reliability of the 60-item test, including reading and listening sections, was calculated through KR-21.

2. Pretest/Posttest of Collocations

A 40-item researcher-made test of English collocations was designed by the researcher to assess the participants' achievement of collocations presented in their course. The test was used as both pre- and post-test and was piloted on 20 EFL learners who were almost at the same level of the main subjects of this study. Two experienced university professors were consulted for confirming the content validity of the test, and the reliability of the test was also calculated as 0.74 through KR-21.

3. Pictures

Pictures of the collocations that were instructed in each session were presented to the experimental group. The pictures were extracted from internet and some of them were modified by the researchers through drawing and painting to give learners a better perception of the intended collocations. The pictures were further developed in the form of slides to be displayed through a projector.

C. Procedure of the Study

The following steps were followed in order to conduct the present study:

The preliminary step was related to piloting the instruments, PET and the pre/posttest of English collocations, by giving them to 20 students who were similar to the participants of the study. The reliability of the two tests was calculated at this stage.

The second step was selecting the main participants of the study based on their performance on a language proficiency test (PET). Sixty out of 90 who scored one standard deviation above and below the mean formed the main participants of the study. They were randomly divided into two homogenous groups each including 30 members. One group was assigned as the experimental group and the other as the control group. A researcher-made test of English collocations was also given to the study groups to determine their knowledge of English collocations at the outset of the study.

130 collocations from the book 'Cambridge English Collocations in Use' were selected and placed in ten tables. Each table included 11 to 15 collocations followed by their definitions and L1 (Persian) equivalents. The tables were presented to both groups in 10 sessions and each session lasted for 90 minutes. The students in the control group received one table each session and were asked to read aloud and have several repetitions of each collocation in the table as well as their definitions following their instructor. After that, the instructor helped them in making sentences for each collocation.

The experimental group also received the same tables followed by the presentation of a set of pictures related to the same collocations represented by each table. The students were given turn to state the collocation related to the displayed picture and in case of providing the wrong answer, the other students were asked to participate. The instructor (one of the researchers) also helped them if they were unable to produce the correct answer.

At the end of the 10-session treatment, the participants received the posttest of collocations. The aim was to determine whether or not there was a significant difference between the study groups' achievement of collocations. The results of the statistical analyses are represented in what follows.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The collected data were analyzed through independent samples t-test and analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) which has two common assumptions; homogeneity of variances of the groups and normality. The ANCOVA has two more specific assumptions; homogeneity of regression slopes and linear relationship between the dependent variable and the covariate. Except for the assumption of normality, the other three assumptions will be discussed when reporting the main results. The assumption of normality – as displayed in Table 1 – was met. The ratios of skewness and kurtosis over their standard errors were lower than +/- 1.96. It should be noted that skewness refers to the symmetry of the distribution of the data. The skewness is zero in a perfectly normal set data. The data said to be skewed when data points begin to pile up on either side of the distribution.

TABLE 1
TESTING NORMALITY ASSUMPTION

Group		N	Skewness			Kurtosis		
			Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Ratio	Statistic	Std. Error
Control	PET	30	.687	.427	1.61	1.053	.833	1.26
	Pretest	30	-.235	.427	-0.55	-.396	.833	-0.48
	Posttest	30	-.227	.427	-0.53	-.838	.833	-1.01
Experimental	PET	30	-.035	.427	-0.08	-.154	.833	-0.18
	Pretest	30	.206	.427	0.48	-.395	.833	-0.47
	Posttest	30	.386	.427	0.90	-.866	.833	-1.04

It should be noted that kurtosis refers to the relative height of the distribution of the data and is zero in a perfectly normal set data.

A. The Results of PET Analysis

The PET general language proficiency test was administered to 90 subjects in order to select 60 cases for the main study. Based on the mean ($M = 34.99$) plus and minus one standard deviation ($SD = 9.87$), 60 subjects were selected and divided into two groups (See Table 2).

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS; SAMPLE SELECTION THROUGH PET GENERAL LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
PET	90	34.99	9.87	97.51

An independent samples t-test was run to compare the experimental and control groups' means on the PET in order to prove that the study groups were homogenous in terms of their general language proficiency. As shown in Table 3, the experimental ($M = 34.03$, $SD = 5.28$) and control ($M = 32.20$, $SD = 5.51$) groups had almost the same means on the PET.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS; PET BY GROUPS

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
PET	Experimental	30	34.03	5.288	.965
	Control	30	32.20	5.511	1.006

The results of independent samples t-test ($t(588) = 1.31$, $p = .194$, 95 % CI [-0.95, 4.62], $r = .170$, representing a weak effect size) indicated that there was not any significant difference between the two groups' means on the PET test. Thus it can be claimed that the two groups were homogenous in terms of their language proficiency level.

TABLE 4
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST; PET TEST BY GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.004	.948	1.315	58	.194	1.833	1.394	-.958	4.625
Equal variances not assumed			1.315	57.901	.194	1.833	1.394	-.958	4.625

Note. The negative lower bound of 95 % confidence interval of -.958 indicated that the difference between the two groups' means on the PET might have been zero. That is to say, the above mentioned conclusion as no significant difference between the two groups' general language proficiency was correctly made.

The assumption of homogeneity of variances was met ($F = .004, p = .948$) (Table 4). This is why the first row of Table 4 (Equal variances assumed) was reported.

B. Testing the Null Hypothesis

The null-hypothesis posed in this study was analyzed using a one-way ANCOVA with respect to (a) one independent variable which represents the two groups, i.e. experimental and control, participating in this study; (b) one dependent variable, the results of the posttest of collocation, which was administered at the end of the treatment; and finally, (c) one covariate, i.e. pretest of collocation, which was measured at the outset of the study.

The aim of ANCOVA was to compare the experimental and control groups' mean scores on the posttest of collocation while controlling for the possible effects of their entry collocation knowledge as measured through the pretest (covariate). Before discussing the results of ANCOVA it should be mentioned that the assumptions of homogeneity of variances of the groups, homogeneity of regression slopes, and linear relationship between the dependent variable and the covariate were met. As displayed in Table 5, the results of the Levene's test were non-significant ($F(1, 58) = 1.77, p = .188$) indicating that there was not any significant difference between the two groups' variances; hence homogeneity of variances assumption was met.

TABLE 5
LEVENE'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.777	1	58	.188

The results of the Linearity Test (Table 7) ($F(1, 46) = 81.31, p = .000$) also indicated that the null-hypothesis that the assumption of linearity, the relationship between the dependent variable and the covariate was non-linear, was rejected. In other words, there was a linear relationship between the pretest and posttest of collocation.

TABLE 6
LINEARITY TABLE; PRETEST AND POSTTEST OF COLLOCATION

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Posttest * Pretest	(Combined)	1416.683	20	70.834	5.152	.000
	Between Groups					
	Linearity	1117.951	1	1117.951	81.318	.000
	Deviation from Linearity	298.732	19	15.723	1.144	.350
	Within Groups	536.167	39	13.748		
	Total	1952.850	59			

And finally, the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes which was probed through the non-significant interaction between the independent variable and the covariate was also met. As displayed in Table 7, there was a non-significant interaction between groups and the pretest of collocation ($F(1, 56) = 2.97, p = .090, \text{Partial } \eta^2 = .050$ representing a weak effect size).

TABLE 7
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS; TESTING HOMOGENEITY OF REGRESSION SLOPES

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Group	107.772	1	107.772	12.681	.001	.185
Pretest	880.666	1	880.666	103.622	.000	.649
Group * Pretest	25.270	1	25.270	2.973	.090	.050
Error	475.936	56	8.499			
Total	24885.000	60				

As displayed in Table 8, the experimental group ($M = 21.95, SE = .54, 95\% \text{ CI } [20.85, 23.04]$) had a higher mean on the posttest of vocabulary than the control group ($M = 17.15, SE = .546, 95\% \text{ CI } [16.05, 18.24]$).

TABLE 8
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS; POSTTEST OF COLLOCATION BY GROUPS BY PRETEST

Group	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control	17.150 ^a	.546	16.057	18.244
Experimental	21.950 ^a	.546	20.856	23.043

a. The mean values were recalculated after removing the effects of the pretest

As Table 9 shows, the results of ANCOVA ($F(1, 57) = 37.94, p = .000, \text{Partial } \eta^2 = .400$ representing a large effect size) indicate that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group on the posttest of collocation after controlling for the effects of the pretest. Thus the null-hypothesis **was rejected**.

TABLE 9
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS; POSTTEST OF COLLOCATION BY GROUPS BY PRETEST

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Pretest	868.827	1	868.827	98.808	.000	.634
Group	333.692	1	333.692	37.949	.000	.400
Error	501.206	57	8.793			
Total	24885.000	60				

The below figure also shows the significant difference between the performances of the study groups on the posttest of collocations.

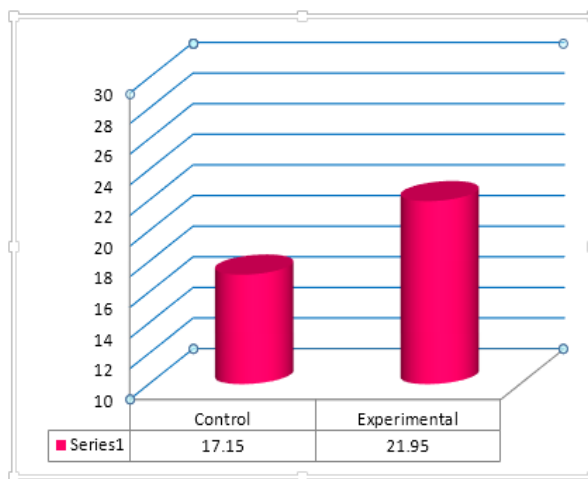


Figure . Study Groups' Performance on the Posttest of Collocation

Findings of the present study revealed that teaching collocations with the aid of projected visuals had a significant effect on learners' knowledge of collocations. The present finding is in line with Hill's (1990) words stating that "pictures not only bring images of reality, but can also function as a fun element in the class" (p. 1) and that pictures are virtually helpful not only in vocabulary learning, but also in teaching other language components. Wright (1992) also investigated the use of pictures in five different language areas and claimed that employing pictures in teaching vocabulary, collocations, idioms, structure, and functions could be very effective. However, McCarty (1990) argued that pictures may not be appropriate for demonstrating the meaning of all words, and Thornberry (2004) also states that illustrating abstract concepts are not always easy through visuals.

V. CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS

The results of data analysis revealed that the experimental group outperformed the control group; consequently, the application of the projected visuals as teaching aids seems to be significantly effective in improving learner's achievement of collocations. In other words, visuals could be used as an effective technique to attract the students' motivation in learning collocations and perhaps other language components, as well as enabling them to learn and recall them more easily.

Perhaps one implication of this study could be the application of projected visuals, as teaching aids, in L2 classes by instructors to facilitate both teaching and learning English collocations. Similarly, the findings of the present study might be of significance to material developers so that they can include pictures which are illustrated based on the intended words or collocations in each lesson in EFL course books. In other words, visuals could be presented to learners accompanied by a set of tasks or exercises that can raise learner' awareness towards learning collocations and induce both meaningful and autonomous learning.

The following suggestions for further investigations have also been offered:

1. The participants of this study were all at intermediate level. Similar research could be carried out at other proficiency levels to find out whether this variable, general proficiency, has any significant effect on the outcome of the study.
2. The present study investigated the application of projected visuals on the development of the second language collocations. Future studies may be required to investigate the impact of visual aids on the learners' knowledge of lexical items or other language skills or components.
3. And finally, the age and gender of the participants were not taken into consideration in this study. A similar research could be replicated in which the influence of these two variables is also investigated.

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Developing Communicative Competence for the Globalized Workplace in *English for Occupational Purposes* Course in China

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Abstract—This article reports an investigative case study of an *English for occupational purposes* course in the Chinese university context which aims to help students attain a level of communicative competence suitable for the globalized workplace. Methods of document analysis, semi-structured student focus group interview and survey with 21 participants, participant observation and teacher reflection are used to examine the possible outcomes of communicative competence development and the influencing factors. The results are analyzed based on a synthesized course analysis framework which record positive learning outcomes and success factors including helpful training methods and activities, learning materials tailoring, teacher's relevant background and experience, learners' strong motivations and clear learning objectives. Constraint factors include limitations in course time and length, learning environment, English co-curricular activities and learners' lack of practical experiences. Pathway to enhance teaching effectiveness is proposed to promote English teaching reform in both China and the world.

Index Terms—communicative competence, globalized workplace, *English for occupational purposes* course, Chinese University, case study, success and constraint factors

I. INTRODUCTION

In today's globalized economy, many Chinese businesses, including foreign invested companies, require their employees to possess English communication skills. According to Global English (2016), 67% of the chief executive officers who participated in an IBM survey considered communicative competence to be the key success factor in the globalized workplace. Communicative competence is also essential for job applicants.

Economic globalization and the increasing demand for talent have directly influenced the development of university English teaching and research. Cai (2010, p. 29) indicated that to meet the demands of a globalized economy, university students must possess not only general English skills but communicative competence in English for specific business sectors or industries. The results of a recent study by Wolff (2009) also indicated that China's universities are under huge pressure to update their curriculum to meet market demand, as Chinese graduates' English communication skills currently cannot satisfy employer needs.

The aim of this article is to investigate *English for occupational purposes (EOP)* teaching in the university context, and its contribution to the development of communicative competence for the globalized workplace. The focus of the article is "wide-angled" *EOP* courses (Basturkmen, 2006, p. 25). The objective of such courses is to enable students to "master the industrial knowledge and the ability to work in English in the related job posts". The course should center on developing the competence to use English effectively in the workplace (Cai & Liao, 2010, p. 48). The key issues explored in this article are as follows: whether the university *EOP* course design, course materials, teaching methodology, self-access learning platform meet student learning needs and objectives (Chen 2014); how *EOP* courses help students to develop sufficient communicative competence to meet the requirements of the globalized workplace; which factors improve the development of communicative competence for the globalized workplace; and which factors constrain such development.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. *Interpreting Communicative Competence for the Globalized Workplace from Different Perspectives*

Previous researchers have offered different definitions of communicative competence for the globalized workplace. Communicative competence in second language learning is associated with "both written and spoken languages and is context specific" (Savignon, 1983, p.8). Savignon (1983, p. 35) interpreted communicative competence for the classroom model with "grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic" perspectives. For the globalized workplace context, Louhiala-Salminen & Kankaanranta (2011, p. 258) emphasized "multicultural competence", competence in business English as a lingua franca (Kankaanranta & Planken 2010; Nickerson, 2015) and "business knowhow". The three factors that determine the effectiveness of business communication are "directness, clarity and politeness". Martínez & Gutiérrez (2013, p. 70) indicated that "business competencies" such as "leadership, negotiation,

relation management, strategic thinking and teamwork” are also required.

For the context of China, Guo & Zhang (2013) indicated business communicative competence should cover language ability, business knowledge and comprehensive competence. Wang et al. (2015) argued that China’s business English curriculum standards should cover the competencies of language use, cross-cultural communication, business practice, critical thinking, creativity and autonomous learning. Yuan (2012, p. 7) indicated that the competencies required by the globalized workplace are fluent business English, problem-solving skills, broad perspective and cross-cultural awareness.

This article also complies with the conventions of *EOP*, in the context of English as a second/foreign language, which aims at developing learners’ competence to use English in the target situation (Partridge, 2012, p. 179), i.e. the globalized workplace.

B. *Challenge in EOP Teaching: How to Develop Communicative Competence for the Globalized Workplace?*

In the field of *English for occupational purposes (EOP)*, relevant research has indicated the challenge to develop communicative competence for the globalized workplace through classroom-based teaching and learning.

In Hong Kong, Bremner (2010) indicated that one of the key challenges facing *EOP* teachers is to bridge the gap between classroom and workplace. One study based on eight business communication textbooks has shown that there are few collaborative writing tasks which often happen in the workplace. More authentic activities should be provided in business English textbooks to narrow the gap between the classroom and the workplace. Flowerdew (2010) also raised in the context of Hong Kong that in present situation analysis, there will be some constraints to course implementation, including students’ lack of motivation, disparate student proficiency levels and the difficulties of obtaining authentic materials from the real life situations in the example of business proposal module. Course developers need to take some balance measures.

In Egypt, Ghany & Latif (2012) examined the language preparation programme for hospitality and tourism undergraduates and the perceptions of teachers and students on its effectiveness of developing adequate communicative competence for the future workplaces using semi-structured interviews with two sets of questions. The English language preparation programme was found to have several shortcomings, such as a lack of pre-course assessment, inappropriate teaching and examination methods and inadequate teaching materials. Suggestions were given to the English teaching professionals to improve the language programmes such as encouraging the use of technology in class.

Other relevant studies have shown that innovative teaching activities can narrow the gap between classroom and workplace. In Ukraine, Tarnopolsky (2012) has indicated that workplace communicative competence can be developed by experiential learning. In the English courses for non-English major programs of economics, business, technology and psychology, students simulated English workplace communication activities, improved English communicative competence for the workplace, and prepared for the future career development. In Hong Kong, Evan (2013) in his study showed by empirical investigation that business English courses can adopt task-based language teaching methods to simulate the authentic workplace communication activities in order to bridge the workplace/classroom divide.

In Morocco, Bouzidi (2009, p. 10) indicated that many of their institutions are updating the *EOP* courses, in line with employers’ requirements. The reform is based on the recognition that students’ classroom learning should be closely connected with their future career needs. The main objective is to ensure that *EOP* courses provide the key business communication skills which are the most helpful to the graduates. This Morocco context study is based on the workplace needs survey with employers and employees, on the uses of English in the workplace, with reference to skills, context, topics and relevant language functions (p. 11). The results of the workplace survey were used by *EOP* programme directors to more closely tailor course content to future job needs. In Spain, Ruiz-Garrido (2006, p. 75) designed the business English course and assessment based on company and student needs. The course includes the aspects related to telephoning, socializing, presentation, meeting and negotiation etc.

C. *EOP Teaching in China: How to Enhance Effectiveness?*

EOP courses, as the extension from *English for general purposes (EGP)* should concentrate on English communicative competence for the workplace on the basis of general language knowledge and skills, in order to meet the talent needs of economic globalization (Zhang, 2006, p. 105).

However, previous research has shown that in the China context, business English courses have many problems related to communicative competence development. They include no fixed course books, students’ lack of practical experiences and the class size which does not meet the course objective (Wang, 2015, p. 67). Other researchers have suggested solutions. Ho & Lu (2011) indicated that business English teaching should be directed towards the cultivation of cross-cultural communicative competence. Teachers should change the existing teaching methods, and guide the students to read the western literature. More co-curricular teaching activities should be conducted. Yuan (2012, p. 145) observed that business English courses in China’s professional training organization could develop the competencies of socializing, negotiation, leadership and management step by step.

Nevertheless, few studies empirically investigate the *EOP* course from the perspective of meeting future workplace requirements by systematic course analysis (Basturkmen, 2010, p. 9), especially in the China context.

D. *Analyzing EOP Courses: Main Variables and Framework*

For systematic *EOP* course analysis, previous literature has highlighted the key variables. Dudley-Evans & St John (1998) indicated that the main variables of business English courses include “number of students, course time, material, class location, course length, age of learners, teaching facilities, assessment, pre-course information, quality and style of instruction, teacher’s appearance and dress” (p. 65) etc. Ellis & Johnson (2002) indicated that business English course variables should also include learner needs and course content (telephoning, meeting, correspondence, socializing), teaching activities and teaching materials.

As China’s *EOP* teaching belongs to the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) field, it is also important to consider factors related to EFL teaching, such as course objectives, syllabus (Nunan, 1988) and communicative teaching methods. Cheng (2011) indicated that *EOP* courses, as a branch of *English for specific purposes* courses should consider the factors of “social group, learning objectives, input materials and output tasks, teaching methods and how to evaluate the learning progress” (p. 45).

The main factors of *EOP* courses suited to the China context are thereby synthesized in Figure 1 China’s *EOP* course analysis framework.

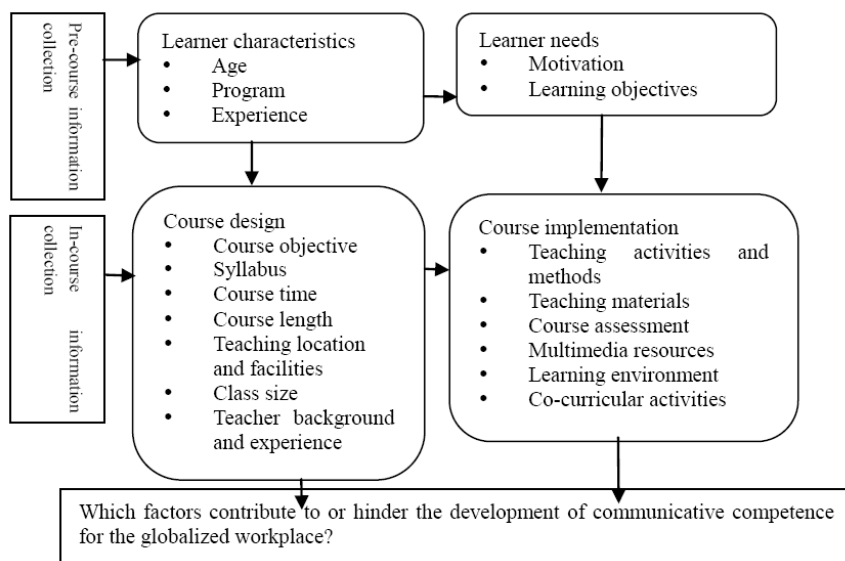


Figure 1. China’s *EOP* course analysis framework.

How can China’s university *EOP* courses improve efficiency and develop communicative competence for the globalized workplace through effective course design, course content selection and innovation in teaching etc.? This is the central issue this article is to explore to address the gap in the literature.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the theoretical framework, this article aims to analyze China’s university *English for occupational purposes* (*EOP*) courses, so that factors which contribute to or hinder the development of communicative competence for the workplace can be identified. The pathway which improves the teaching effectiveness is to be found to enable students to be better equipped with the English communication skills required for jobs in different business sectors. The three main research questions addressed in the study are detailed below:

1. What are the learning outcomes of *EOP* course in the Chinese university context in developing English communicative competence for the globalized workplace?
2. Which factors in China’s university *EOP* course contribute to the development of communicative competence for the globalized workplace?
3. Which factors in China’s university *EOP* course hinder the development of communicative competence for the globalized workplace?

IV. THE STUDY

The focus of the study is on the factors of course design, course content, teaching methodology/activities, co-curricular activities etc. based on Figure 1 within the key stages of programme development specified in Mackay & Bosquet (1981) in one case study of *EOP* course i.e. *Business English Reading and Writing*. The course examined in the current study was conducted between January and May, 2015 in a public university located in the east of China. One session was held per week (Friday, session 3 - 5) in a traditional medium-sized classroom with multimedia equipment. The course was delivered over 48 teaching hours, divided into sessions lasting for 3 teaching hours each (45 minutes per teaching hour). The class comprised 25 first-year students: a “pre-experience” group (Basturkmen, 2010, p. 6), from

School of Internet of Things. This was the first business English reading and writing course for non-English major students provided by the university, introduced during the second round of the university’s four-year tertiary English curriculum reform. Therefore, the outcomes of the course may have important consequences for the content of courses offered in subsequent semesters, and for course development in other learning contexts.

The learning materials used in the course were drawn from three course books on professional communication, namely *Market Leader Intermediate Business English Coursebook (Market Leader)* (Cotton, Falvey & Kent, 2011), *Collins English for Business: Writing (Collins Writing)* (Brieger, 2013) and *Success with BEC– Student’s Book Vantage* (Hughes, 2010), according to the students’ attainment levels. The teaching process follows text-based instruction and analysis, student group project presentation on a company case study, student oral discussion and writing guidance based on authentic writing tasks. In addition, some authentic materials were drawn from public media resources.

According to the syllabus description, the course was designed to enhance students’ competence in business English reading and writing to prepare them for employment in the globalized workplace after graduation. The course ended with a written assessment, following Business English Certificate (BEC) Vantage criteria. The average score was 70.6/100, with a 92% pass rate. The aim of the case study is to examine whether the course can truly prepare students to meet the future workplace requirements, and to identify the success strategies and the constraint factors.

A. Case Research Process

The data collection methods for the case study include document analysis (textbooks, syllabus and student assignments), semi-structured student focus-group interviews, student surveys, participant observation and teacher self-reflection, which are adapted from the case study guidelines in Kim (2008) in the Korean context. The rationale of data collection methods for the case study also complies with the principles summarized by Yin (2009) to solicit information through multiple sources.

Document analysis: Initially, a comprehensive document analysis was conducted by the researcher to study the course books in terms of the gap with the actual workplace requirements, the syllabus mainly on the aspects of course design and student assignments to identify the strength and weakness in their workplace document preparation.

Semi-structured student focus group interview and student survey: The researcher conducted semi-structured interviews with 21 participants in May 2015. Each interview involved one or two students. The participants were eager to communicate both in and outside class. To ensure that the participants’ identities remain confidential, they are referenced here using alphabets (A – U). The students’ demographic information was gathered using written surveys, and their profiles are provided in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1.
STUDENT PARTICIPANT PROFILE

Gender	Age	Study program	Years of English learning	Self-assessment of English communicative competence on a 4-point scale, representing the levels from beginner, lower intermediate, upper intermediate to advanced
F	19	Communication engineering	11-13 years	2
F	19	Communication engineering	14-16 years	2
F	19	Communication engineering	7-10 years	3
F	18	Communication engineering	7-10 years	3
F	21	Automation	7-10 years	2
F	20	Automation	7-10 years	2
F	19	Computer science and technology	14-16 years	3
F	19	Computer science and technology	11-13 years	3
F	20	Automation	7-10 years	2
M	18	Microelectronics	11-13 years	3
M	20	Computer science and technology	4-6 years	3
M	19	Computer science and technology	7-10 years	3
M	19	Internet of things	10 years	2
M	19	Electric engineering and automation	7-10 years	2
M	19	Automation	4-6 years	2
M	17	Microelectronics	11-13 years	2
M	20	Communication engineering	7-10 years	2
M	19	Communication engineering	7-10 years	3
M	20	Communication engineering	7-10 years	3
M	19	Microelectronics	7-10 years	2
M	19	Computer science and technology	7-10 years	3

Nine of the participants were female and twelve were male. Their average age was 19.14. They were enrolled in a range of academic programmes in the fields of computer science, electronics and communication technology. Most of the participants had studied English for 7 to 10 years, and some for more than 10 years. Their average score for self-assessed English communicative competence was 2.476 out of 4 (intermediate level).

The semi-structured focus group interviews comprised 22 questions, which were often raised in the programme evaluation context (Master, 2005, p. 109). The questions concerned the importance of *EOP* to participants’ study and

future job, factors of successful/effective *EOP* class, evaluation of training methods, activities and materials, and the learning outcome in relation to the development of communicative competence for the globalized workplace. Each of the focus-group interviews lasted for approximately 20 minutes. Sample interview questions are listed in Table 2.

TABLE 2.
SAMPLE INTERVIEW QUESTIONS.

How important is <i>EOP</i> to your academic study and future career?
Which factors are related to an effective/successful <i>EOP</i> class? To what extent?
Which classroom activity do you think is most relevant to the workplace task? Why?
Do you prefer to use textbooks, handouts, PowerPoint presentations, or other materials in the <i>EOP</i> course?
Do you think the <i>EOP</i> course can help you effectively develop global communicative competence for the globalized workplace?
Are your business email writing and oral communication better than before?
Do you participate in activities related to <i>EOP</i> learning, such as English science lectures or English competition?

Due to participants' inadequate English speaking competence, ten of the interviews were conducted in Chinese while one group used English as the interview language. The researcher later transcribed all of the interviews verbatim. The interview transcripts in Chinese were translated into English by the researcher. The transcripts were then analyzed using the theoretical framework and research questions detailed above. Key information, such as critical points raised by the participants, was categorised into themes to address each of the research questions. The 21 participants who completed the written survey also described other learner characteristics such as learning motivation and needs.

Participant observation and teacher reflection: Researcher and also the teacher of the *EOP* course observed the changes in the students' attitudes and performance during the course, and reflected on the course delivery process. Room for further improvement is identified to bridge the gap between classroom and the workplace and to enhance the development of communicative competence for the globalized workplace. Different sources of information are summarized in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
SUMMARY OF CASE STUDY RESEARCH PROCESS

Pre-course information collection	Learner characteristics (Age/Program/Experience)	Student surveys
	Learner needs (Motivation/Learning objectives)	Semi-structured student focus group interview
In-course information collection	Course objective/Syllabus/Teaching material	Document analysis
	Course time/Course length/ Location and teaching facilities/ Class size /Teaching activities and methods/Course assessment/Multimedia resources/Learning environment/Co-curricular activities	Semi-structured student focus group interview/Teacher reflection/Participant observation
	Teacher background and experience	Teacher reflection

B. Data Analysis

The information gathered by different data collection methods was extracted by themes (Brown, 2014), following the analytical framework in Figure 1 and the frequency of the themes was also calculated. Results generated by different instruments in the case research process were analyzed systematically (Guest, MacQueen & Namey, 2012) to ensure comprehensive and verifiable findings. The researcher, also an insider of the case study, ensures adequate insights and full understanding about the overall course implementation process and students' communicative competence development outcome.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Following Figure 1 and to answer the three research questions, the three main themes are as follows: *learning outcomes related to English communicative competence development for the globalized workplace*, *success factors contributing to the development of communicative competence for the globalized workplace* and *constraint factors hindering the development of communicative competence for the globalized workplace*.

A. Learning Outcomes Related to English Communicative Competence Development for the Globalized Workplace

For the learning outcomes of the *EOP* case study, in addition to a high passing rate in the BEC Vantage level written assessment in business English reading and writing immediately after the course which means the majority of the participants have reached the required level of English communicative competence, participants have especially emphasized the usefulness and additional benefits of the course to help prepare for their future career and workplace communication skills development.

Career development

Positive outcomes were reported in relation to promoting the workplace communicative competence when 14% of the participants could foresee to work in a foreign company requiring excellent English business communication skills such as in the following statement by participant S.

I think it is very helpful. I have known a lot about the business activities, such as in the airport, hotel or shops. They will be of some help for my future job. (Participant S)

Two participants anticipated working in Chinese companies, which also require their employees to possess workplace English skills. Participant U especially mentioned the prospect of working in China.

I think even in some domestic companies, there are still comparatively high demands on English. Many companies are facing the world. When they recruit new employees, they still have certain requirements on English. Therefore, it is necessary for us to study workplace English. (Participant U)

Two participants had concrete visions of their desired job in a company or even developed his own business as shown in the following two comments.

In the future, I think I want to do my job as marketing. Probably I will meet some foreigners and I will be good at communication. (Participant R)

I may set up my own business and will have some foreign companies as my customer. (Participant T)

Workplace communication skills development

33% of the participants reported that their email and memoranda (memo) writing, formatting and use of professional terms had improved. The improvements were described by Participant F and R.

There are even feedback on the format. I used to ignore the format and punctuation. I even did not know how to use the professional words. (Participant F)

I have learnt some professional words, especially those used in business communication. We have learned the formal business language. (Participant R)

Analysis of assignments produced at different stages of the course revealed significant improvements in the students' language use, formatting and punctuation. They had learned how to write memos, emails, faxes, business letters and reports in line with the relevant business conventions, which will prove useful in their future careers.

However, a few participants reported that the connection between the course and their computer science major was weak. Participant B's comment is quite typical.

Our academic program has little connection with business English. There is no English for computer science in our course we need. (Participant B)

Scholars have shown that the focus of *EOP* differs from that of English for science and technology. The former concerns "professional/occupational authenticity, oral and written communication, and workplace needs" (Master, 2005, p. 105), whereas the latter concerns "scientific/technical reading and writing" (Master, 2005, p. 104). Nevertheless, it is typical of these learners as Harding (2007, p. 11) summarized them as "studying English at the same time as studying their subject", which might not be "language related".

Learning transfer

When discussing their learning outcomes, 23.8% of the participants emphasized the importance of learning transfer, i.e. the need to put their knowledge to practical use in the globalized workplace. Participant U had this detailed explanation.

Learning transfer is more important. If English reading and writing are very good, but it may be difficult to put it into actual use, such as making resume. It is important to use English in future career planning. (Participant U)

However, participant O indicated that English learning is still examination-oriented rather than directed towards the actual use of English. This statement is consistent with the findings of Stanley's (2011) study of tertiary English language teaching (ELT) in China. The College English Test (CET) was found to have a dominant backwash effect on classroom teaching. Teachers prioritize content relevant to the CET over communication skills development, limiting students' practical use of English. The implementation of communicative language teaching (CLT) has also met with resistance in the classroom. Therefore, the context of China's tertiary ELT may constrain students' communicative competence development, despite the demand for communication skills in today's globalized workplace.

B. Success Factors Contributing to the Development of Communicative Competence for the Globalized Workplace

Teaching methods and activities

The teaching method and activities implemented in the course were considered helpful. For example, participants B, M and R highlighted the writing task as an effective means of improving their business correspondence skills. For example, participant B praised the writing task in the following comment.

Writing task is the most helpful, especially the email and letter writing. (Participant B)

38% of the participants reported that working in groups on a case study had enhanced their communicative competence, and the teacher confirmed that the students had approached this activity with enthusiasm. As observed by the researcher, most of the case study groups carefully prepared their materials for presentation in class after several rounds of active discussion. The case study group performance was subject to both teacher evaluation and peer assessment. Participant H's experience explained the benefit of case studies.

Case studies are important. We not only learn how to cooperate with others, but also we learn the culture of other countries more efficiently. (Participant H)

Two participants indicated that the case study group work had improved their presentation skills. For example, participant O elaborated on the presentation in the following statement.

Presentation can force me to speak English in public. It is more active than question and answer. I can prepare for the presentation by reading the case story. (Participant O)

Although scholars have argued that the methodology of *EOP* is not different from *EGP* (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987),

innovative teaching methods such as experiential learning and simulation should be implemented in *EOP* classes to narrow the gap between classroom and workplace.

Teaching materials

English language teaching literature indicated evidence that “what teachers and students do in the classroom is largely determined by the course book” (Tomlinson, 2005, p. 143). However, the development of communicative competence for the globalized workplace also requires authentic material input. Careful document analysis revealed that most of the materials in the course books under study were drawn from authentic media resources, such as *Financial Times* and *Guardian* in *Market Leader*, with typical business topics ranging from “brand, travel, employment, trade, change, organization” to “culture, money, quality, leadership and ethics” (Cotton, Falvey & Kent, 2011). The design of case-based writing and role play tasks has enabled the learners to experience authentic workplace communication activities. Most of the materials provided in *Collins Writing* were drawn from the Collins corpus, with a focus on the development of writing skills required in globalized workplace settings such as multinational companies. This guaranteed the authenticity of the materials in the textbook.

As a resource provider, the teacher supplemented the innovative content above with additional authentic materials collected from various sources, such as a template for writing business memos and videos of advertisements made by famous companies in various historical periods recorded in a movie.

Participants expressed preferences to the learning materials, especially the writing guidance on *Collins Writing*, and the business knowledge and vocabulary on *Market Leader*. Participant F expressed his willingness to learn about the business background knowledge.

I have learned about the company’s marketing. I also got to learn more about the company’s operation with examples and methods. (Participant F)

14% of the participants indicated that the tailored learning materials met their academic needs such as the views by participant T.

Tailoring materials is relatively important. The university class should meet the future development needs and broaden the students’ horizon with more exposure to the western culture. (Participant T)

Multimedia resources

Moreover, participants especially suggested more input of multimedia resources as some of them enjoyed watching English films in their spare time. Participant G had a good summary of his learning experience.

I think we need to use multimedia, because learning English is a process of writing, listening and speaking. If we have the class in multimedia, we may have progress in many ways in order to increase our English level. (Participant G)

Teacher background and experience

Participants indicated that the teacher played an important role in facilitating their communicative competence development. Studies of *EOP* (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 158) have shown that the teacher provides resources, guides the learning process and solves various learning problems. Participant R especially indicated the important role played by the teacher.

I feel the most important factor is teacher. It is not just the book knowledge, but also the communication between people, including the varied workplace language. Communication with teacher can change my own language. (Participant R)

The teacher under study had the educational background and professional experience required to teach the course effectively. When reflecting on the course, the teacher reported enjoying communicating productively with the students in class and providing feedback on various speaking and writing tasks. Therefore, the teacher played the role of both instructor and facilitator in this context. The teacher also evaluated the students’ performance, and kept an accurate assessment record. Participant Q also emphasized the importance of class-based evaluation.

The evaluation in the teaching process is important. If the teacher can find out problems in students’ learning, there can be better solutions. (Participant Q)

Learner motivation

The participants’ motivation to learn *EOP* varied. Some were enthusiastic about learning English such as participant F.

I am very enthusiastic about English since young. I like English. Basically, I need to pass CET-4/6. If will go abroad to study, I also need to pass TOEFL. (Participant F)

Around 28.6% of the participants believed that learning English can help with their academic study in communication engineering or microelectronics in the aspect of western literature reading or overseas technological study. Participant G mentioned the needs of international technical communication.

We may have communication with other foreign engineers, in America, Japan or other western countries. If I learn something about business English, it’s important to promote our mutual communication, with engineers from other countries. (Participant G)

Learners’ learning objectives

In general, participants’ learning objectives were related to communicative competence development and the cultivation of cross-cultural communication skills such as those mentioned by participant R and S.

My objective is to learn some communicative language, especially with westerners. (Participant R)

I hope to acquire the ability to have fluent communication with foreigners, such as greeting. I can watch English movies. (Participant S)

Angelelli & Degueudre (2002, p. 77) stated that a person has different purposes of learning language. It could be using the language to read the academic literature, traveling with more cultural experiences, getting more business opportunities or workplace communication, of which the fundamental aim is to enhance communicative competence. In this case, participants' motivation for developing language competence for computer science and technology industry and pro-communication learning objectives are also contributing factors in communicative competence development for the globalized workplace.

C. *Constraint Factors Hindering the Development of Communicative Competence for the Globalized Workplace*

Course time and length

Participants complained that the one-session-per-week *EOP* class was limited in improving their English learning. The teacher reflected that teaching efficiency should be improved within the limited class time while students should be aware of the importance of autonomy in their after-class self-study. Participant F and G explained their situations of English learning after class.

We have also one session per week class. Most of English learning happens before final term exam. (Participant F)

I think it is not sufficient. Learning English is long-time. One-time class is not sufficient. (Participant G)

Learning environment

Participants also indicated that their school leaders did not put much emphasis on English learning and there was little English use environment in their program study. Participant A had this very detailed description.

I used to be enthusiastic about English learning. But I was not encouraged by the school leaders to learn English well. They claimed that English was only a tool. (Participant A)

Co-curricular activities

Teacher reflected that to enhance communicative competence development, students should pay attention to English co-curricular activities. However, the participants were taking courses run by School of Internet of Things, and thus had limited access to such activities, unlike students from School of Foreign Studies. These were found by participant Q and U.

We don't have chances to participate in [English corner or competition]. (Participant Q)

We don't have many English activities in our school time. (Participant U)

The above two hindering factors have illustrated the lack of a pro-English environment for the students. Niu & Wolff (2009, p. 271) in their recent study explained the poor "English-speaking environment" (ESE) in China's universities, especially for English majors. As daily communication and sometimes classroom communication is in Putonghua, English learners are not 'compelled to speak English in an environment where English is the dominant language' (p. 272), typical of ESE. This finding is consistent with the results of the current case study. Though most of the classroom teaching is in English, learners may still lack adequate exposure to English in their daily living and the motive to use English, except when they happen to meet foreign friends on campus.

Learners' experience

In addition, the participants also claimed that they did not have adequate practical experience to understand the business context of the *EOP* course such as participant O.

We did not get in touch with business, such as what we should talk in meeting or with subordinates. We need to first experience the business meeting. (Participant O)

This is not unusual in the *EOP* literature. As adult students, these participants are categorized as the group of learners prior to embarking on the journey of work, in contrast with experienced learners in the companies. Therefore, the teacher should in future impart more business knowledge in the classroom to better prepare the learners for their future jobs.

VI. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Based on the analysis framework in Figure 1 which is synthesized for the first time, this article has systematically analyzed *EOP* teaching in the university context to develop communicative competence for the globalized workplace, the success factors and the hindering factors through a case study. It is intended that the pathway to enhance teaching effectiveness can be identified.

The results of the study show that the *EOP* course has improved the writing skills and the professional language use. The course can also better prepare the students for their future career. Though the subject of the course seems not to be closely linked to students' academic program in the School of Internet of Things, the case study participants reported positive learning outcomes while the teacher also observed significant improvement in the participants' workplace communication skills development. Though learning transfer, i.e. to put the class knowledge into practical use is widely recognized as a key factor, the focus on examinations in China's ELT today may decelerate the skills development process. The orientation of the university's English enhancement programme should be shifted towards the practical use of English and communicative competence development.

The success factors which contribute to development of communicative competence for the globalized workplace

include helpful training methods and activities, tailoring learning materials, teacher's relevant background and experience, use of multimedia resources, strong learner motivation and clear learning objectives. The writing task, case study group and presentation were found to be particularly effective in enhancing learners' practical workplace communication skills and boosting their confidence. More innovative methods are encouraged for classroom practice. Most of the course materials were creatively adapted for classroom use, especially the materials used in the writing task and the multimedia resources. The provision of authentic materials drawn directly from the workplace setting is highly recommended. In this case context, the teacher not only taught the course but facilitated the skills development process, with embedded classroom evaluation. The learners were strongly motivated to learn English, whether due to personal interest or to supplement their academic/technological study. They were also clear about the communicative competence development objectives. All of these factors contributed to the effective communicative competence development.

The factors found to hinder the development of communicative competence for the globalized workplace include limited course time and length, unresponsive English learning environment, limited access to English co-curricular activities and learners' lack of practical experiences. To overcome these drawbacks and to enhance teaching effectiveness, it is suggested to increase learners' out-of-class learning activities by developing a specially designed self-access learning platform so that they will be able to learn English whenever wherever they need. As discussed in relation to *EOP* teaching in Hong Kong (Chan, 2014), more co-curricular activities such as workplace task simulation, mock interviews and workplace communication skills workshops should be introduced. Learners should also be prepared to undertake internships or part-time work to gain a practical understanding and experience of the workplace before formally entering the world of work.

This article has both theoretical and practical value. The theoretical framework, course analysis diagram and case research process can be replicated or applied in future research. In addition, the reported study can facilitate China's *EOP* teaching reform, to link teaching content with students' career requirements. To improve communicative competence for the workplace is also for students to make full preparation for future career development. Though this article only provides one case study results which may not be generalizable, it has highlighted some key issues which are worth exploration in the future research endeavor to enhance the quality and efficiency of *EOP* teaching both in China and worldwide. From the policy perspective, it is also recommended to stress real communicative competence development in the course implementation process by transforming the English language teaching focus in the current globalized environment.

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A Questionnaire and Model of Role Identity for Iranian English Language Teachers: A Structural Equation Modeling

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Abstract—The aim of this study was to develop a questionnaire and to explore and confirm a model of teacher role identity among Iranian English language teachers in an EFL context. To achieve this aim, a questionnaire was developed and validated based on the literature, the theoretical framework, and the results of a qualitative study. The questionnaire was piloted and its reliability was estimated through Cronbach Alpha (0.87). The face validity of the questionnaire was guaranteed through questionnaire's good lay out and five experts judged about its content validity. The construct validity of the questionnaire was met through factor analysis. Based on the results of the exploratory factor analysis, thirteen factors emerged under three main categories for Iranian EFL teachers' role identity. After piloting the questionnaire, it was administered to 507 Iranian EFL teachers from different genders and educational contexts. A structural equation modeling (SEM) was performed on the data using AMOS 22 to test a model of Iranian English language teachers' role identity in the confirmatory factor analysis. The initial results revealed a poor fit model; however, by eliminating three items from the questionnaire the model fit the data eventually.

Index Terms—EFL context, Iran, questionnaire, structural equation modeling, teachers' role identity

I. INTRODUCTION

The concept of identity as a multi-disciplinary notion has been taken into consideration in different interdisciplinary fields, such as anthropology, philosophy, psychology, sociology, literature, and applied linguistics (Clark, 2013; Noonan, 2007; Norton 2013; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Because identity has complex, multi-layered, fluid, situated, and dynamic nature to provide a clear and unambiguous definition is difficult. Kumaravadivelu (2012) points out that “there is very little consensus among scholars about what really constitutes identity, or how it is actually formed and reformed” (p. 56); however, he warns that “teachers cannot simply make sense of their teaching self unless they fully understand their own identities, beliefs, and values” (p.72). For Burns and Richards (2009), identity deals with “how individuals see themselves and how they enact their roles within different settings” (p. 5). Role as a concept is psychologically defined according to the states and positions of the people in the specific group or community (Arikoski1999). Therefore, the functional side of people constitutes their roles and by referring to the status and position of every person in a specific groups or community the role of that person will be formed. The concept of ‘*teacher role identity*’ a term coined by Farrell views “how teachers recognize their roles within their world and involves their beliefs, values, and assumptions about teaching and being a teacher” (Farrell, 2008, p. 55). In line with this view, in every educational environment there is a proximity and interconnection between the concept of identity and the role which is performed by teachers in that educational context.

One of the significant components of each educational system is role identity of teachers. Canagarajah (1999) estimated that roughly 80% of English teachers around the world are NNS (Non- Native Speaker) and argued that these teachers may have different identities and bring these identities to language pedagogy. Therefore, knowing how these teachers perceive themselves as one who plays a determining role in this system is a place of debate in these years.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A review of the previous studies in both ESL and EFL contexts shows that a large number of studies has been conducted on the topic of teachers' identity construction. These researches have concentrated on different dimensions of identity, such as professional, social, personal, etc.

Teacher professional identity is an emerging phenomenon which is drawing an increasing amount of research attention (Akerman & Meijer, 2011). The professional dimension of teachers' identity is perceived as multifaceted, multi-layered, and a dynamic which is realized in teachers' classroom practice (Cooper & Olson, 1996). Coldron and Smith (1999) studied the tension in teachers' identity formation. They looked at teacher professional identity as

fragmented and multiple entity rather than stable and fixed. In this way, the identity was more or less bestowed or achieved by an active location in a social environment. Ben-Peretz, Mendelson, and Kron (2003) investigated how teachers perceived their professional roles in the classroom and how they connected these perceptions to their self-image. They concluded that teachers perceived themselves in terms of their interactions with others, such as principals, students, and student's parents. Their self-image were also constructed by their practical experiences. For Wright (1987), teacher's role identity was always under the construction and can be realized through social behaviors. Hawkins and Norton (2009) assigned the role of social mediators for teachers which played an important role in the construction of learners' beliefs, assumptions, and values. With regard to the role identity of teachers from cultural perspective, Duff and Uchida (1997) defined the role of cultural workers for teachers. They found that "teachers are very much involved in the transmission of culture, and each selection of videos, newspaper clippings, seating plans, activities, and so on has social, cultural, and educational significance" (p. 476).

In an EFL context, Moore and Hofman (1988) surveyed 247 teachers on the subject of teachers' identity in Israel. Results revealed that teachers felt that self-esteem and self-actualization were more important than job satisfaction for them. In another study, Fisherman (2015) surveyed 240 teachers by two questionnaires (teacher burnout and professional identity scales) to investigate the relationship between professional identity and burnout among three different groups of school teachers in Israel. The findings of his study emphasized on the relationship between professional identity and burnout resulting in factors, such as career choice confidence, professional efficacy, and sense of mission. In Iran, Abednia (2012) conducted a case study to examine how a critical teacher education course could contribute to the process of professional identity construction among Iranian EFL teachers. Three shifts were occurred from conformity to critical autonomy; from no orientation to transformative orientation; and from a linguistic view to an educational view in SL education to construct Iranian teachers' professional identity. In another study, Masoumpanah and Zarei (2014) found that Iranian teachers had a great sense of professional identity and their professional competence in their language teaching. Teachers assumed their profession as a respectable job in the society. The results of their study also revealed that Iranian teachers had a tendency toward 'standard English' to produce native-like bilinguals which in turn affected their professional identity.

Several frameworks have been proposed for the notion of identity construction. For instance, Wenger (1998) investigated the process of identity construction in terms of three modes of belonging to a community of practice, including engagement, imagination, and alignment. Wenger's community of belonging can be connected to the community of teachers as a professional community. In this community, belonging to a teacher community plays a significant role in the process of teachers' identity construction. Bijaared, Verloop, and Vermunt (2000) dealt with the notion of identity from a professional domain and emphasized on the practical side of teachers' identity. They presented teachers' identity framework based on 'what teachers' do by investigating teachers' professional identity from three domains of expertise, including subject matter or content expertise, pedagogical expertise, and didactical expertise. Finally, Farrell (2011) conducted a case study to investigate the concept of role identity among ESL teachers. He combined the term *role* with *identity* and coined a new synthesized term under the title of *role identity* for teachers. Farrell's (2011) framework assigned three main categories for teachers' role identity: (1) teacher as manager: it discusses how a teacher tries to perform his/her role as a person who controls or manages what occurs within the classroom and sub-divides into 'vendor', 'entertainer', 'juggler', 'communication controller', 'motivator', 'arbitrator', and 'presenter'; (2) teacher as professional: the teacher plays his/her role as one "who is dedicated to her/his work, and takes it very seriously" (Farrell, 2011, p. 58) and sub-divides into 'knowledgeable person', 'collaborator', and 'learner'; and (3) teacher as acculturator: it refers to "where the teacher is seen as one who engages in activities outside the classroom and helps students become accustomed to the local culture" (Farrell, 2011, p. 58), with subcategories of 'socializer', 'social worker', and 'care-provider'.

By comparing these theoretical frameworks to each other, one can clearly observe that Farrell's (2011) framework has some advantages. For instance, in other frameworks, there was not any room for the term 'role'. This means that the functional side of teachers' identity did not receive enough attention. But in Farrell's model, social and functional sides of teachers' role identity have comprehensively been taken into consideration. Another neglected matter was the pivotal role of the cultural factors in the process of teachers' identity construction. Regarding the important role of culture in the process of identity construction, Farrell's framework presented a broad classification for cultural factors. This framework also illustrated the role of teachers in a clear-cut classification with more details. By localizing Farrell's (2011) theoretical framework in Iran as an EFL context, the present study could provide a whole picture regarding Iranian teachers' role identity at both micro (inside classroom and school) and macro levels (outside classroom and school/ society).

Although the concept of teachers' role identity has increasingly been obtaining importance in the literature of teacher education, this has not comprehensively been taken into consideration among Iranian researchers. In Iran, the role of the teacher was merely decreased to an instructor and examiner. Obviously, recognizing language teachers' role identities plays a crucial role in classroom management, professional dimension, and social and cultural dimensions of the educational contexts. While the competency and qualification of teachers in performing their roles have been significant to improve the quality of teaching in any educational system, obtaining a precise understanding about EFL teachers' role identity was needed. Because the nature of role identity is multi-dimensional which encompasses several subjects

in pedagogical milieu such as social, cultural, psychological, and ideological dimensions, viewing the role identity from one point of view is misleading. Although extensive studies have been done in the area of teacher’s identity and professional identity, there was a paucity of research conducted on the nature of role identity from a multi-dimensional perspective in Iran as an EFL context. It is also worth to mention that no valid and reliable model was suggested for Iranian English language teachers’ role identity. By conducting this study in a local context rather than an ESL or native context, Iranian EFL teachers may obtain better understanding about their own role identities.

The current study pursued two objectives on the concept of role identity among Iranian EFL teachers. The first aim of the study was to develop a questionnaire for Iranian English language teachers’ role identity. The second aim was to explore and then to test a model in order to know to what extent the model fits Iranian English teachers’ role identity. To achieve these aims, two questions were addressed: (1) how do Iranian EFL teachers perceive their role identity as managers, professionals and acculturators? And (2) what model eventually emerges for Iranian EFL teachers’ role identity?

III. THE STUDY

Previous studies on the topic of teacher identity construction have shown that both quantitative and qualitative approaches have been employed through different instruments, such as questionnaires, narratives, and interviews (Bijaared, et al. 2000; Connelly & Clandinin, 1999; Farrell, 2011). Although there has been a great tendency toward the qualitative approach, the matter of cost and time should be taken into consideration. Therefore, surveying a large number of participants through a questionnaire in a quick and cost effective way should be a viable and reasonable solution.

The current study pursued to develop a reliable and valid questionnaire proceeded by proposing a model for Iranian EFL teachers’ role identity. At first, previous studies and related theoretical frameworks on the topic of teachers’ role identity were reviewed. Then, several participants were interviewed and asked to provide their narratives in the qualitative phase² of the study. Finally, based on the above mentioned steps, three main role identities and thirteen sub-role identities were re-conceptualized for Iranian EFL teachers. Farrell’s three main role identities were kept and their sub-categories were redefined and localized for Iranian EFL teachers. The first Iranian EFL teachers’ role identity was *teacher as manger* which considered the managerial roles of the teachers in managing their classrooms. This role sub-divided into knowledge transmitter, trader, juggler, interaction supervisor, promoter, arbiter, and entertainer. The second Iranian EFL teachers’ role identity was *teacher as professional* which dealt with professional view of teachers pertaining to their careers and sub-divided into pundit, collaborator, and learner. The last Iranian EFL teachers’ role identity was *teacher as acculturator* which encompassed both cultural and social dimensions of teachers’ role identity and sub-divided into social panacea, cultural adapter, and tutelage-provider. Table 1 presents a definition for each component of Iranian EFL teachers’ sub-role identity.

TABLE 1
THE COMPONENTS AND DEFINITIONS OF IRANIAN EFL TEACHERS’ SUB-ROLE IDENTITY.

Component	Definition
Knowledge transmitter	The teacher transmits his/her knowledge to the students and also delivers the information to the students.
Trader	The teacher views his/her job from financial point of view and acts like someone who wants to trade his/her teaching.
Juggler	The teacher provides multi-task simultaneously for students in order to increase students’ creativity.
Interaction supervisor	The teacher functions as a supervisor who manages or conducts the interactions between student - student and teacher -students in the classroom.
Promoter	The teacher encourages or promotes students in their activities in the classroom.
Arbiter	The teacher judges students’ performance in the classroom and gives them appropriate feedbacks when they make a mistake.
Entertainer	The teacher tries to entertain the students when the atmosphere of the class is boring.
Pundit	The teacher acts as one who has a profound knowledge about his own teaching.
Collaborator	The teacher negotiates his/her knowledge with colleagues and cooperates with colleagues in academic’s matters.
Learner	The teacher not only teaches the students but also learns from the students.
Social panacea	The teacher scaffolds the students and strives to solve student problems both inside and outside the classroom milieu.
Cultural adapter	The teacher respects and observes various cultural norms and customs. The teacher also adjusts the cultural differences and mismatches.
Tutelage-provider	The teacher has a sense of intimacy with his/her students and tries to be a good friend for the students.

A. Respondents

This study was conducted between November 2015 and January 2016. First the questionnaire was piloted with 118 respondents to estimate its reliability and validity in the exploratory phase of the study. Then, the main questionnaire was administered to 516 respondents in the phase of confirmatory factor analysis with 9 respondents were excluded

from the study due to missing the data, however. The procedure for selecting the respondents was convenient sampling, i.e. those respondents who were accessible were selected as the sample. The respondents were from 17 provinces of the country and they were from 5 main geographical districts (west, east, center, north, and south) of Iran. They were both male and female with different majors, work experience, work status, and degree. Because Iranian EFL teachers were working at different educational contexts (universities, schools, and language institutes), these three contexts were also considered. Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics for the demographic information of the respondents. This table appears in the appendix A.

B. Development of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed with two types of data: “factual and attitudinal questions” (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010, p. 5). Factual questions covered the personal information or demographic characteristics of the respondents (e.g. gender, teaching experience, major of study, etc.) whereas attitudinal questions considered teachers’ beliefs, attitudes, assumptions, and values. Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) mentioned that “developing a questionnaire is a stepwise process, and the quality of the final instrument depends on the cumulative quality of each sub-process” (p. 111). Therefore, to construct a valid and reliable questionnaire a few necessary steps were taken.

Step 1: Drawing up item pool and writing items

The data gathered from the qualitative phase² of the study, insights from the theoretical framework and previous studies on the topic of teachers’ identity construction both in ESL and EFL contexts constituted the item pool for the current study. Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) pointed out that “designing a new questionnaire involves conducting a small-scale exploratory qualitative study first” (p. 110) along with the literature which provides “a valuable source of ideas for preparing the item pool for the purpose of questionnaire scale construction” (Ibid. 110). To write the questionnaire’s items, several rules were considered, including designing short and simple items, using natural language, avoiding negative constructions, ambiguous, and loaded words. The questionnaire was designed in 3 pages and the designated time for completing the questionnaire was 30-minute. This is in line with what Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) suggested that “a questionnaire of three to four pages does not tend to exceed the 30-minute completion limit. (p. 12).

Step 2: Personal background information

Most of the researchers put personal background information at the beginning part of the questionnaires, but this might impact on the responses of respondents as a sensitive topic and as a kind of off-putting entity (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). Consequently, the researchers put demographic information at the end of the questionnaire. The demographic information included information about gender, work experience, work status, major of study, degree, geographical districts, and educational contexts. This section of the questionnaire was designed for a further research on Iranian EFL teacher’ role identity in the future.

Step 3: Deciding about the rating scale

Likert’s five response options scale was adopted as a multi-item scales for the current study. The reason to use Likert scale is that to avoid “the unpredictable impact of any idiosyncratic item wording and ensuring comprehensive content coverage—questionnaires should contain multi-item scales, rather than single items, to focus on any particular content domain” (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010, p. 57). Therefore, five options were assigned, i.e. ‘strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree, and strongly agree’. To calculate items’ score, the researchers allocated 5 points for strongly agree, 4 points for agree, 3 points for undecided, 2 points for disagree, and 1 point for strongly disagree.

Step 4: Experts’ judgment about items

To guarantee the content validity of the questionnaire, five experts judged items in the questionnaire. These experts worked at university as faculty members of the department of English. They were professional and experienced in the field of applied linguistics. At first, the experts advised that at least four items were designated for each sub-scale of teachers’ role identity. This is in line with Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) that emphasize to allocate 3-4 items for each sub-scale content. Then, the questionnaire was designed with 58 items. After taking experts’ views about the extent to which the questionnaire’s items were representative of teachers’ role identity, three items were discarded and some items were also reworded due to ambiguity, length, and redundancy. Finally, the questionnaire’s items for piloting phase of the study were reduced to 55 items.

Step 5: Piloting the questionnaire

To conduct the pilot phase of the study, the researchers observed several matters, such as providing a clear instruction for each part of the questionnaire, keeping the confidentiality of the respondents, considering the length of time. Then, the questionnaire was administered by hand to 118 Iranian EFL teachers’ who were working at three educational contexts (universities, schools, and English language institutes). The respondents to the questionnaire were similar to the target population that the questionnaire was designed.

Step 6: Reliability index

Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient was employed to measure the internal consistency of the questionnaire. The current study adopted above 0.70 as an acceptable measure to estimate the reliability (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). The questionnaire included 55 items and it was administered to 118 Iranian EFL teachers. Results of the piloting phase of the study revealed that the reliability of the whole questionnaire was 0.87. For the thirteen sub-scales of Iranian EFL teachers’ role identity, the reliability was estimated 0.87, 0.87, 0.92, 0.87, 0.88, 0.85, 0.85, 0.85, 0.95, 0.90, 0.87, 0.84,

and 0.80 respectively (see Table 3). The results of Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient showed that the questionnaire was reliable enough. Table 3 presents the components, items’ content, and the reliability indices of the questionnaire.

TABLE 3
QUESTIONNAIRE COMPONENTS, ITEMS’ NUMBER AND THEIR CONTENTS, AND RELIABILITY INDICES.

Component	Items’ number and their contents	Reliability
F1. Learner	(30). I believe that a good teacher is also a good learner. (33). I think that the process of teaching consists of both learning and teaching. (35). I believe that I as a teacher learn from my students.	0.87
F2. Interaction supervisor	(37). I believe that my previous experience as a student at school affects the way I teach. (4). I dynamically manage the flow of communication among learners. (11). I shift the stream of speech between student and myself when it is necessary. (22). I provide turn taking procedures in speech among students when they interact in class. (25). I control the stream of communication in class.	0.87
F3. Pundit	(31). I perceive myself as a knowledgeable person in my own field. (34). I believe that by reflecting on my everyday teaching, I expand my professional knowledge. (38). I have an appropriate knowledge about teaching methods. (40). I have knowledge about language learning.	0.92
F4. Social panacea	(43). I help my students outside the classroom if they need. (44). I think that I am responsible for my students in class as parents are responsible for them at home. (46). I perceive myself as a useful person for my society. (49). I support my learners on social affairs outside the class. (53). I participate in social activities outside the classroom. (55). I look into my students’ problems both inside and outside the class.	0.87
F5. Juggler	(3). I engage my students at several tasks simultaneously. (9). I think that students better learn when they engage in various problem solving activities at the same time. (21). I believe that engaging students at several activities enhance their common understanding about the subject. (26). I believe that the creativity of students improves by engaging them in different activities at the same time.	0.88
F6. Promoter	(8). I think that in a specific situation (e.g. children classroom) giving a gift to students encourages them to better learn. (10). I provide motivation for my students. (20). I evoke intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of my learners. (27). I encourage my students when they show signs of learning.	0.85
F7. Arbiter	(2). I correct my students’ errors when they make mistake. (14). I think that peer or classmate error correction is helpful. (18). I fairly judge about my students’ mistakes. (28). I give positive feedback to learners in class.	0.85
F8. Trader	(6). I think that money plays an important role in my job. (7). I act as a seller of specific teaching method in academic environment. (17). I see my teaching as goods for sale. (24). I look at my teaching from financial point of view.	0.85
F9. Collaborator	29). I share my knowledge with other teachers. (32). I improve my own teaching by incorporating with other teachers in academic environment. (36). I obtain a better understanding about my own teaching by consulting with my colleagues. (39). I negotiate my teaching experiences with my colleagues.	0.95
F10. Knowledge transmitter	(1). I present my knowledge to students when dealing with content and activities. (13). I appropriately provide useful materials for my students. (15). I set myself as a presenter for my students in class. (19). I act as a deliverer of information to my learners.	0.90
F11. Entertainer	(5). I tell jokes for students when they are being bored in class. (12). I consider my teaching as a matter of fun. (16). I believe that providing a sense of happiness among students increases their learning. (23). I perform the role of an entertainer for my students in class.	0.87
F12. Tutelage-Provider	(41). I perceive myself as a friend for my students. (47). I treat my learners in a gentle and kind manner. (51). I have a sense of intimacy with my learners. (52). I give advice to students when they ask.	0.84
F13. Cultural adapter	(42). I believe that it is teacher’s duty to teach “Western culture” along with teaching the language. (45). I respect various local cultures in my country. (48). I believe that teaching English is a combination of educational, social, and cultural phenomena. (50). I perceive myself as a cultural consultant for my students. (54). I respect different customs, norms, and beliefs when teaching.	0.80

Note: F refers to factor. The number of the factors is arranged based on the table of the component matrix (Table 5).

Step7: Validity

Three types of validity, i.e. face validity, content validity, and construct validity were taken into account in the current study. The researchers guaranteed the face validity of the questionnaire via using a good and orderly lay out (bold, italic, and normal type-faces), employing appropriate font size, reducing the margins, and sequence marking

(Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). It was attempted that the questionnaire to be eye-catching and to look short for the respondents. The second type of validity was content validity as aforementioned in step 4 was met through five experts' judgment. It should be mentioned that the content validity and the face validity of the questionnaire was made before piloting the questionnaire and estimating the reliability. To meet the last type of validity, namely construct validity, the congruency of the questionnaire's items was checked with literature, theoretical framework, and findings in the qualitative phase² of the study. Then, exploratory factor analysis was employed through running factor analysis to check construct validity of the questionnaire. Running factor analysis involves three steps, including assessment of the suitability of the data, factor extraction, and factor rotation and interpretation (Pallant, 2013).

The suitability of the data must be assessed through the size of the sample and the factorability of the data. Although there is a little agreement among scholars and researchers regarding the size of the sample and they suggest "the larger, the better (Pallant, 2013), a minimum of 100 (but preferably more) subjects" is proposed (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010, p. 63). In order to meet the first step, 118 respondents took part in the current study. Regarding the factorability of the data, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity must be considered. The KMO index which ranges from 0 to 1 should not be below 0.60 and the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity should be $p < 0.05$ (Pallant, 2013). In the current study, the KMO was 0.73 and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant at $p = 0.00$ (see Table 4). Therefore, the data were appropriate and acceptable for factor analysis and it could be expected that there were some significant factors to be extracted in the next step.

TABLE 4
KMO AND BARTLETT'S TEST.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.735
Bartlett's Test of Approx. Chi-Square	5629.190
Sphericity df	1485
Sig.	.000

The second step of the factor analysis was to decide about how many factors could be extracted from the data. To obtain this, two criteria were adopted: Kaiser's criterion and scree plot test. Maximum likelihood was run as the method to decide about the number of extracted factors. Those factors that have the eigenvalues of 1.0 or more should be retained based on Kaiser's criterion and the total variance should be over 60% (Pallant, 2013). In the current study, the eigenvalue of thirteen factors in the questionnaire was above 1.0 and the total variance was estimated to 77.44%. The thirteen factors accounted for 23.09%, 14.84%, 6.69%, 5.39%, 4.35%, 4.20%, 3.63%, 3.25%, 2.86%, 2.54%, 2.35%, 2.15%, and 2.04% of the total variance (77.44%). Variable communalities were also taken into account and they were greater than 0.30 (acceptable) for all items. The second criterion in this step was scree plot which involves "plotting each of the eigenvalues of the factors and inspecting the plot to find a point at which the shape of the curve changes direction and become horizontal" (Pallant, 2013, p. 191). In the current study, scree plot (Figure 1) showed that thirteen factors could be retained.

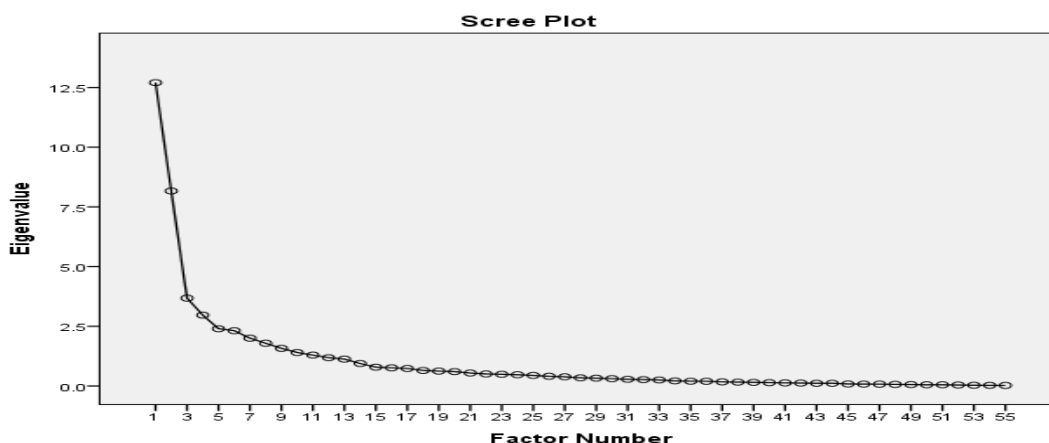


Figure 1. Scree plot for the extracted factors.

The last step was factor rotation which was obtained through pattern matrix based on maximum likelihood method. Table 5 indicates how thirteen factors were rotated. Some items were rotated on more than one factor. For example, item 42 both rotated on factor 11 and factor 13. This occurred because of the large number of factors and variables. When we considered the content of the item, we understood that it should be allocated for factor 13.

By conducting these rigorous steps on the questionnaire at the phase of exploratory factor analysis and ensuring about validity and reliability of the questionnaire, the researchers recognized that the questionnaire has acceptable quality.

TABLE 5
PATTERN MATRIX BASED ON MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD

Items	Factors												
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
33	.932												
37	.657												
30	.513												
35	.497												
22		.973											
25		.677											
4		.664											
11		.600											
40			.833										
38			.813										
31			.615										
34			.390										
49				.878									
55				.787									
53				.691									
43				.665									
44				.632									
46				.568									
26					-.956								
3					-.768								
21					-.725								
9					-.706								
20						.757							
10						.746							
8						.717							
27						.677							
14							.799						
18							.735						
2							.658						
28							.652						
24								.737					
17								.723					
6								.705					
7								.670					
36									.921				
29									.894				
32									.885				
39									.865				
15										.829			
19										.662			
1										.634			
13										.485			
12										.327	-.345		
50											.372		.392
5											-.445		
16											-.411		
23										.335	-.373		
51												.672	
52												.678	
41												.647	
47												.580	
48													.599
54													.544
45													.502
42											.378		.492

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As mentioned before the main questionnaire was administered to 516 respondents in the main phase of the study although 9 respondents were excluded from the study because of missing the data. The questionnaire was administered by hand and via email and the respondent rate was acceptable (0.71%). A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was run to see what a model might emerge for Iranian EFL teachers' role identity based on the questionnaire data.

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was adopted as "a confirmatory rather than an exploratory approach to the data analysis" (Byrne, 2010, p. 3). In SEM, the relations between variables are determined a priori. SEM as a linear, cross-

sectional and multivariate statistical technique also deals with factor analysis, path analysis, and regression. Since SEM takes into account the relationship between unobserved (latent) and observed variables, the 55 items in the current questionnaire acted as observed variables and 13 factors designated as latent variables. In order to emerge and then test a conceptual model, Amos version 22 was run and maximum likelihood was employed as a method in order to analyze the data. In the current study, the results of SEM revealed poor fitness of the model initially. Then, some modifications, such as removing the personal background information and removing three items (16, 49, and 50) were exercised. These items were caused to decrease the measure of goodness-of-fit indices and personal background information was exacerbated the complexity of the model.

In the first-order of CFA, 13 factors were explained by 52 reminded items (Figure 2). Figure 2 presents the pathway from each latent variable (factor) to observed variable (item). Each observed variable has an error of variance indicated by arrow from error to item. Each single-headed arrow from latent variables (factors) to observed variables (items) shows factor loading. Items with factor loading greater than 0.3 show medium effect and items with factor loading greater than 0.5 indicate high effect. Figure 2 shows that all of the items have factor loadings from 0.59 to 0.94. This means that all of the items have an acceptable and high effect on factors. The relationship between each latent variable (F) is indicated by double-headed arrows (covariance). The figure also shows an acceptable ratio of covariance between each latent variable (F).

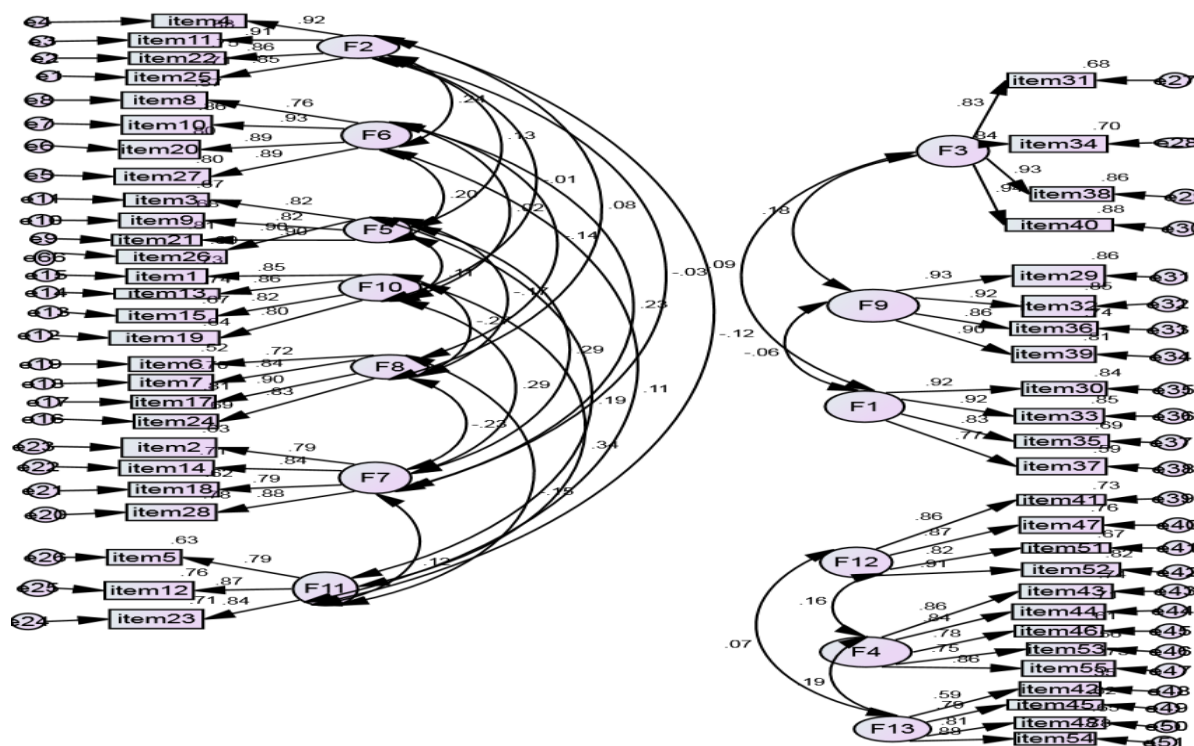


Figure 2. Model of 13 factors (first-order CFA) for Iranian EFL teachers' role identity.

Figure 3 shows the schematic representation of the final model for Iranian EFL teachers in second-order and third-order CFA. In the schematic representation (Figure 3), the path coefficient illustrates the pathway from each latent variable to observed variable and from each latent to other latent variable. Figure 3 also shows the strength of correlation and relation among the variables. Each single-headed arrow from factors (F) to items indicates factor loading. As mentioned before (Figure 2), all of the items had an acceptable level of factor loading. The pathway from each latent variable to other latent variable, i.e. the pathway from professional, manager, and acculturator to F (factors) refers to the path coefficient. According to Kline (2011), the path coefficient ranging from 0.10 to 0.50 refers to a moderate effect and the path coefficient greater than 0.50 refers to a high effect. All of the path coefficients in Figure 3 stand for a moderate effect of factors (F) on professional, manager, and acculturator. For 'professional' as a latent variable, the highest effect was for F3 (0.25), and F9 and F1 (0.22) had the same effect. Regarding 'acculturator' as a latent variable, the highest effect was for F13 (0.43) and the lowest effect was for F12 (0.33). Pertaining to 'manager' as a latent variable, the highest effect was for F2 (0.33) and the lowest effect was for F8 (0.24). Figure 3 also illustrates third-order CFA, i.e. the pathway from role identity (RI) as a latent variable to professional, manager, and acculturator as other latent variables. The path coefficients from role identity to professional, manager, and acculturator show a high effect of these three main role identities on role identity (RI). In this way, professional (0.85) had the highest effect on RI and manager (0.58) had the lowest effect on RI. Therefore, Figure 3 illustrates the final model of role identity for Iranian EFL teachers. In this way, in the second order of CFA, thirteen factors and their related items explained three

main role identity, i.e. manager, professional, and acculturator. Then, in the third order of CFA, these three main role identity explained role identity (RI) for Iranian EFL teachers (Figure 3).

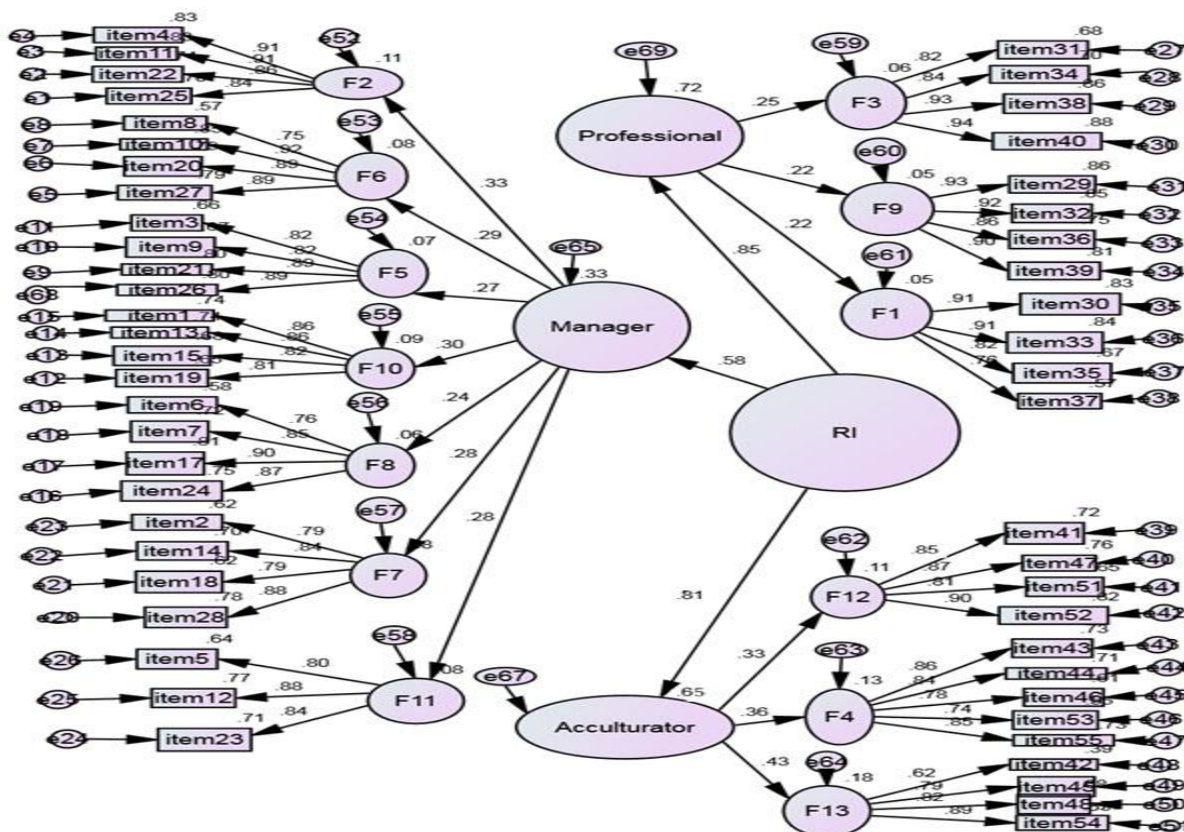


Figure 3. Final model (second and third-order CFA) for Iranian EFL teachers' role identity. Note: RI refers to Role Identity and F1-F13 refer to factors (see Table 3).

In order to accept a model, three criteria must be taken into consideration, including assessment of normality, estimation of factor loadings, and goodness-of-fit indices (Byrne, 2010). In order to meet the first criteria, the standardized kurtosis and skewness indices (β_2) in a normal distribution have a value of +3 and -3 (Byrne, 2010). In the current study, the kurtosis and skewness indices were 1.57 and -0.59, respectively. This means that the data were normally distributed. The second criterion estimated the factor loadings for each item. Items with factor loadings greater than 0.3 show medium effect and with greater than 0.5 show high effect. In the current study, all of the items had acceptable factor loadings. These factor loadings (single-headed arrows from F to items (Figure 3) were between 0.62 and 0.94. To meet the goodness-of-fit indices, four indices from absolute fit indices were taken into account. These four indices were: χ^2 (Chi-square), χ^2/df , goodness-of-fit index (GFI), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). Table 6 shows accepted level (based on Kline, 2011; Byrne, 2010) and the current level for the final fit model.

TABLE 6
FIT MEASURES FOR FINAL MODEL

Index	Current level	Accepted level
χ^2	3857.06	$p > 0.05$
χ^2/df	3	< 5
RMSEA	0.06	< 0.08
GFI	0.73	> 0.90

The output of the SEM also indicates df (degree of freedom) = 1270 and p (significant value) = 0.00. To explain Table 6, χ^2 is a badness of fit index and it is sensitive to sample size ($N > 200$). To remedy χ^2 (Chi-square) problem, χ^2/df is employed which is $3857.06/1270 = 3$. So, χ^2/df shows an acceptable level ($3 < 5$) for the model. The third index is RMSEA which shows an acceptable level 0.06. The last index is GFI which shows 0.73. It seems that this index indicates an unaccepted level. This occurs because of the influence of the large number of factors and variables in the current study (Lacobucci, 2010). In such situation that an index is not an acceptable level and all of the other requirements are met and the model also fit the data, it is recommended to accept the fit model (Byrne, 2010; Kline, 2011). Therefore, the fit model was accepted and proposed for Iranian EFL teachers' role identity.

The findings of the current study backed the literature and theoretical framework. In this way, the role identity of Iranian teachers as manager was in line with Farrell's (2011) teacher managerial role identity. The second main theme

of Iranian teachers' role identity, namely professional identity subcategorized to pundit, collaborator, and learner. These sub-role identities were in line with Bijaared et al. (2000) professional identity from the domains of expertise, Wenger's (1998) community of practice, and Farrell's (2011) teachers' professional identity. Therefore, teacher as professional referred to the role identity of Iranian teachers as one who dealt with their teaching professionally, taking their job seriously, negotiating their knowledge with their colleagues, expanding their general and professional teaching knowledge, and learning from everyone in their own field. The third theme of the role identity for Iranian EFL teachers was teacher as acculturator. It encompassed both social and cultural aspects of teachers' role identity and subcategorized to social panacea, cultural adapter, and tutelage-provider. The social panacea as a sub-role identity took into consideration the role of Iranian EFL teachers' as one who supported their students and solved their problems regarding social matters. This role was in line with what Hawkins and Norton (2009) assigned the role of social mediators and what Farrell (2011) called the social worker. Considering and respecting different cultures and custom by Iranian EFL teachers was another emergent sub-role identity under the title of cultural adapter which was in line with Duff and Uchida (1997) who assigned the role of cultural workers for teachers and what Farrell (2011) called the socializer. Finally, Iranian EFL teachers' sub-role identity as a tutelage-provider was in concert with Farrell's (2011) care-provider sub-role identity for teachers.

V. CONCLUSION

The aim of the current study was to develop a questionnaire and to explore a model for Iranian EFL teachers' role identity. At the first step, based on the literature, theoretical framework, and finding on the qualitative phase² of the study, the questionnaire was designed. The questionnaire enjoyed an acceptable degree of reliability and validity though it is developed for the first time in Iran as an EFL context. Regarding the first question of the study, Iranian EFL teachers' conceptualized their managerial roles in the classroom as knowledge transmitter, trader, juggler, interaction supervisor, entertainer, arbiter, and promoter. They perceived their professional dimension of their teaching as pundit, collaborator, and learner. The cultural and social side of Iranian EFL teachers' role identity under the main category of acculturator sub-divided into social panacea, cultural adapter, and tutelage-provider. Pertaining to the second question of the study, a model emerged in three order of CFA based on the developed questionnaire. Although the model was not fit the data initially, it was fit the data with some modifications in it, eventually. In the final fit model, thirteen factors of role identity explained three main role identities and these three main identities in their own turn explained Iranian EFL teachers' role identity (Figure 3). It is worth to mention if the questionnaire and the model of the current study intend to be used in other ESL and EFL contexts, 'local exigencies' (Kumaravadivelu, 2012) must be taken into consideration. This means that with some reasonable modifications in the model's factors and checking the reliability and validity of the questionnaire again, the model and questionnaire can be employed in other contexts. The next matter that can be take into consideration in the future study can be an exploring the relationship between demographic information and Iranian EFL teachers' role identity.

Notes

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2. This is a part of a larger Ph.D. project conducted in a qualitative phase of the study.

APPENDIX

TABLE 2
RESPONDENTS' DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION.

	Gender		Work status		Years of teaching experience			
	Male	Female	Permanent	Part-time	Below 3	3-5	6-10	More than 10
N	231	276	201	306	107	137	141	122
Mean	45.6%	54.4%	39.6%	60.4%	21.1%	27%	27.8%	24.1%
	Major of study			Degree (level of study)				
	English Language Teaching	English Literature	English Translation	B.A.	M.A. student	M.A.	Ph.D. candidate	Ph.D.
N	296	69	142	128	123	171	62	23
Mean	58.4%	13.6%	28%	25.2%	24.3%	33.7%	12.2%	4.5%
	Geographical districts				Educational contexts			
	North	West	South	East	Center	University	School	Institute
N	90	78	141	82	116	117	106	284
Mean	17.8%	15.4%	27.8%	16.2%	22.9%	23.1%	20.9%	56%

Note: N= Number of the Respondents. The total number of the respondents was 507.

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The Influence of Phonological and Grammatical Awareness on EFL Students' Reading Performance

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Abstract—The purpose of the present research was to assess the influence of phonological and grammatical awareness on reading performance of EFL students at Azad Islamic University of Kerman. Based on such a purpose, a series of linguistic tasks were applied in order to find the relationship between phonological and grammatical awareness and reading performance. 50 EFL students participated in the present study through a qualitative and quantitative survey. Phonological awareness was measured by four tasks while grammatical awareness was measured by two tasks. A semi-structured interview was conducted among EFL students and their in order to obtain their feedback regarding the tests and the role of phonological and grammatical awareness in their reading performance. In addition, in order to measure reading performance, a two stage reading task (reading vocabulary and reading short sentences) was used. The results of the present study revealed that phonological and grammatical awareness had a significant role in reading performance of EFL students of the participants.

Index Terms—phonological awareness, grammatical awareness, EFL students, reading performance

I. INTRODUCTION

English reading skill is considered as one of the most critical ability in the process of learning and teaching English for English students as well as their teachers (Wolff, 2000). Besides, important modifications can be identified in the process of teaching and learning English academic discipline started from 20 years ago which can be highlighted as *communicative language teaching* (CLT) (Chastain, 1988, p. 163). The focal point of the new approaches in the process of teaching and learning are to obtain which are focus of these new methods is to provide complete consideration of teachers and learners to the four classic skills of language learning procedures. On the other hand, the core of the new methods involves both teachers and learners inside the procedures language learning. According to the objectives of the new methods, the present study's concern is the effect of phonological and grammatical awareness on reading skill where several studies have conducted in order to find the influence of task-based strategies on reading (Yang, 1995; Cook, 2000). There is also evidence, which suggests that cognitive demands have significant influence on phonological and grammatical awareness.

From students' perspective, reading is considered as the most important and critical skill. The reason behind such demanding process, reading is a fundamental skill in the native language of English students which can be learnt from primary school directly and from the society indirectly. As a result, it is can be difficult to gain a reading skill in the target language. Another reason backs to the differences and similarities between the learning process of reading in the native language of students and English Language. However, previous studies highlighted that the process of learning reading skill in English Language is exhausting for EFL learners because of the use of classic reading methods such as understanding the sentences based on the structure. Such a traditional and classic method, force students to use dictionary frequently and spend lots of time during the reading process which causes a serious loss of concentration and motivation. A lot of dictionaries may interfere with them, and they eventually stay out of meaning. However, the results of comparison between consciousness phonological and grammatical and spoken language is vague. Some evidences approved that learners' ability and proficiency in their second language depends highly to their ability in native language as well as their fluency in reading skill (Cummins, 1979, 1991). Considering such an important issue, the present research intended to study the influence of phonological and grammatical consciousness on the English learners' results in English department at Azad University of Kerman, English department.

The implication of present research is that phonological and grammatical awareness are important for improving reading ability. Thus, reading skill is the focal point of the present research as well as the EFL students' outcome within the process of learning English, while there is are several theoretical justification to support the relationship between phonological and grammatical awareness and performance of EFL students (e.g., Willis, 1996; Skehan, 1998; Bygate, Skehan & Swain, 2000) and improvement in reading skills of EFL and ESL students (Horowitz, 1986; Walshe, 1987;

Wolff, 2000), the investigation of these two factors is left rather much untouched. Furthermore, the use of task based methods in the process of teaching and learning English have several critics and impose some difficulties for both students and teachers since they highlighted various doubts about the significant role of phonological and grammatical awareness on EFL reading strategies. At the same time, reading as one of the most important skills for EFL students has received much attention from EFL researchers (e.g., Willis, 1996; Skehan, 1998; Bygate, Skehan & Swain, 2000). Considering such consequences, this research aims to visualize and clear the fundamental impacts of phonological and grammatical awareness on the development of EFL reading performance. Moreover, both students and English teachers will be informed that these two factors are supposed to facilitate the teaching and learning of EFL reading skills due to their significant role in this matter.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Several studies have been conducted to assess the direct association between phonological and grammatical awareness toward reading comprehension among ESL and EFL learners. Phonological and grammatical awareness in English language learning referred to the proficiency of learners to apply and use words and their related sounds as a phonemic tool in order to improve the skill and identify the relationship between those words with the written sentences in the understandable sequence (Gleitman & Rozin, 1977; Liberman, Shankweiler, Liberman, Fowler & Fischer, 1977). A study by Goswami and Bryant (1990) showed that there are three different methods for analyzing a word into its constituent sounds, and consequently, there are more than three possible levels of phonological and grammatical awareness. Liberman et al. (1974) highlighted that students have the ability to segment words by syllables and phonemes. Furthermore, different studies suggested that grammatical awareness had a significant role in reading development; however, the influence is seen in advanced stages of language learning (Carlisle & Nomanbhoy, 1993).

Besides, they suggested that phonological and grammatical awareness contributed in improving reading performance. Several researches in this context provided strong proof for the significant influence of phonological and grammatical awareness in the process of teaching and learning English (Elbro, 1996) as well as a being considered as the most important success factor of EFL learners (Bradley & Bryant, 1983; Byrne & Fielding-Barnsley, 1989; Chall, 1967; Muter, Hulme, Snowling & Taylor, 1998; Treiman & Baron 1983). Wagner and Torgesen (1987) proposed three different views to study the influence of phonological and grammatical awareness on reading ability. First, of all, reading ability and the development the related skills depends on the phonological and grammatical awareness. Secondly, improvement in the reading ability is a significant influence of phonological and grammatical awareness on the process of learning. Thirdly, there is a mutual relationship between phonological and grammatical awareness and the development of reading skill among EFL learners.

Adams (1990) established five levels of difficulty in English phonological and grammatical awareness. Adams (1990) proposed and classified the task based on the difficulty of them. According to the classification, the most difficult task is identifying similar rims, followed by groping and identifying sentences and related words into rims, pronunciation and considering the concordant consequences from the words, differentiation between phoneme and tasks, and finally, ignoring the to identify and explore the words. Several studies have suggested that phonological awareness is a necessary component of reading (Gillet & Temple, 1990). Some studies postulated that the use of phonological awareness as well as grammatical awareness simultaneously have significant impact of reading proficiency of EFL learners (Blachman, 2000; Kame'enui & Simmons, 2001). In addition, several studies provided notable support for the critical and fundamental role of phonological awareness and grammatical awareness in the process of word reading as well as word learning among EFL learners (Wagner & Torgesen, 1987). However, other factors in conjunction with the phonological awareness and grammatical awareness are highlighted as influential factors in the process of learning and improving reading skill. According to Swanson, Trainin, Necochea and Hammill (2003) who conducted a comprehensive study on the relationship between phonological and grammatical awareness and learning skills of reading such as swift understanding of words or identifying related words in the text. Besides, they stated that in terms of regression analysis result (correlation coefficient) the differences between cognitive approached of reading skill such as memorizing the vocabulary and recognition approach can be waived. While, the strong relationship between phonological and grammatical awareness and ability of reading English texts and the process of learning reading skills is unneglectable. In line with the mentioned relationship, vocabulary learning techniques is considered as another important factor in the proficiency of EFL learners in reading skill (e.g., Catts, Fey, Zhang & Tomblin, 1999; Demire, 2008, Cao, 2012).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Survey Instruments

Since this is a cross-sectional study which aimed at taking a preliminary look at the phonological and grammatical awareness of English students, several tasks according to the Muter, Hulme, Snowling and Stevenson's study (2004) were proposed in order to examine the role of phonological and grammatical awareness of English students' reading skills in Islamic Azad University of Kerman. Accordingly, feedback forms and semi-structured interview were conducted in order to obtain the students' viewpoint about the used task. Thus, in this research, descriptive data analysis technique was applied to demonstrate the features of sample of the study and describe the facts based on their nature and characteristics

which provide precise perspective about the population of the study (Isaac & Michael, 1997, p. 18; Demire, 2008, Cao, 2012).

B. Data Collection Procedures

The participants of the study were the preparatory EFL class students at Azad University of Kerman. Both males and females took part in the study. In the study, the students were given various reading tasks (i.e., listing, ordering and sorting, matching, comparing, problem solving, word-reading, sentence-reading), phonological measured tasks (i.e., rhyme detection, rhyme production, phoneme completion, phoneme deletion) and grammatical tasks (i.e., word orders correction, morphological generation). Each task required students to deal with a specific reading skill (Demire, 2008).

After the tasks were conducted, the participants were given the feedback forms by which they were asked to comment on each of the tasks conducted. Finally, they were asked to write about their general views about the tasks. This procedure enabled the researcher to have a deeper understanding of how the students perceived the use of these tasks in the reading lessons and how phonological and grammatical awareness assisted students to complete the tasks. Moreover, for each of the tasks some students were randomly selected. Elliot (1991) referred to the semi-structured interview as a valuable research tool as they can include "observations, feelings, reactions, interpretations, reflections, hunches, explanations" of the students and the teachers (McDonough, 1994, p. 6). During the semi-structured interview, the participants were asked to talk about their attitudes toward the tasks and share their ideas. A semi-structured interview was used since 'it is useful to keep a record of their research progress because a research interview is a personal rather than a formal document, which enables respondents to be honest as they like' (McDonough, 1994, p. 6; Demire, 2008).

In addition, 15 of the total 50 participants were selected based on their phonological and grammatical awareness for the semi-structured interview. Their age, gender, social and cultural backgrounds are not taken into consideration. These 15 students were interviewed at the end of the term. They were asked for their views on the tasks, and also the problems they encountered. Besides, they were asked what they learned by the help of tasks (Demire, 2008).

C. Data Analysis

After the data were collected (the participants' feedback forms and semi-structured interviews), the data were analyzed by the use of content analysis. Content analysis is a method to analyze text (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006, p. 310). This method is a practical method as it make a core concepts inside the text through a systematic approach and make the sentence to interpret easily (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Demire, 2008). In the present study, academic justification for the use of content analysis. The first one is that content analysis assists the researcher to have precise perspective about the descriptive information of the study. second reason is that the interviews can be analyzed through the content analysis more accurately and easily. And the third reason is that to test hypotheses and compare their results with the other study in practical manner (Bryman, 2001, p. 19; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006, p. 3; Demire, 2008, Cao, 2012).

Data analysis started from the analysis of the feedback forms, while the most frequently cited views were identified. As the second step, all the feedback forms were reread and the parts reflecting the students' statements about the tasks and the learning that resulted from these tasks were underlined. The third step was to code the data gained from the feedback forms according to given comments for each task. After coding and decoding, categories were made. The last phase of the analysis was concerned with the semi-structured interviews. The process of a semi-structured interview involved the interviewer presenting the context of the study and its objectives to the interviewee. As the aim was to capture as much as possible the participant's thoughts about a particular topic or a practical task, the interviewer followed in depth the process of thinking posing new questions after the first answers given by the subject. The proposed questions were simple with a logical sequence to help the discussion flow. The interviews were recorded and then transcribed. The analysis was consisted of three steps. The first step was to listen to the interview cassette and to write down the opinions stated for each question one by one, whereas in the second step all the statements were analyzed, categories/labels were generated, and a list of statements was used to classify the answers of each interviewee in terms of reading performance. In the third step, the incident was put onto a qualitative data category table after reading and focusing on all the answers given to each question. Finally, the Pearson's inter-correlation analysis was conducted to investigate the relationships between phonological and grammatical awareness and reading skills of EFL students (Demire, 2008; Cao, 2012).

IV. RESULTS

In this section, the results of data analysis for semi-structured interviews, descriptive analysis results for phonological and grammatical tasks and correlation analysis results between reading, phonological and grammatical tasks are presented in the following tables.

A. Analysis of Semi-structured Interviews

In this section, the results of data analysis for semi-structured interviews are shown. The analysis of semi-structured interviews starts with students' attitude toward tasks-used, followed by students learning from tasks-used, students' attitude toward efficiency of tasks-used, students' attitude toward task-related problems and comments on tasks.

Table 1 indicates the results of data analysis for students' attitude toward tasks-used. As it can be seen the attitude of the students were classified into four distinctive categories namely, contribution to language learning, personal attitude,

retention, and the nature of activities. The data analysis explanations for students' attitude toward tasks-used are presented in the following section.

TABLE 1
STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARD TASKS-USED

Attitude toward Tasks-Used			
Contribution to Language Learning	Personal Attitude	Retention	The Nature of Activities
Strengthened English(2)	Interest generating (7)	Memorable (9)	Real life like (1)
Instructive (2)	Enjoyable (6)	Useful (4)	Useful group work (1)
Contributed to students' participation (1)	Marvelous (5)	Led to retention (1)	
Related to the language usage (1)	Activating (4)		
Inspired me to read (1)	Fruitful (3)		
Assisted me to apply English Language outside the class (1)	Exciting (3)		
	Lesson outside was enjoyable (1)		

Table 1 displays students' attitude towards the tasks used. As it can be seen in the table, two students from fifteen students stated that the used task in the process of learning English assist them to enhance their proficiency in reading and in general English usage. Moreover, one students highlighted that from the used task in contribution to language learning were helpful for them to show better performance in reading skill. Also, seven students from fifteen students remarked that the used tasks were amazing and enjoyable for them in the way that they were more interested in using those tasks. Nine students in total believed that the used tasks in this section were marvelous and motivate them to be involved in the process of learning and made the active. From fifteen students, three mentioned that the used task in this section were thrilling. Besides, nine students stated that the tasks were useful in the process of memorizing the skills and were similar in the process of learning their native language skills which improved the interest, ability and capability of learning English as a second language.

Table 2 indicates the results of data analysis for students learning from tasks-used. As it can be seen the students learning from tasks-used were classified into three distinctive categories namely, personal gains, gains in reading skills, and language-learning gains. The data analysis explanations for students learning from tasks-used are presented in the following section.

TABLE 2
STUDENTS LEARNING FROM TASKS-USED

Attitude toward Learning from Tasks-Used		
Personal Gains	Gains in Reading Skills	Language Learning Gains
Improved general / cultural knowledge (6)	Improved my reading strategies (i.e. scanning, skimming) that are parts of 'selectively attend' process of meta-cognitive strategies (6)	Strengthened pronunciation(7)
Attracted my attention to language learning (4)	Reading comprehension (6)	Learnt vocabulary (5)
Helped me use English outside the class (3)	Learnt guessing the meaning of a word from context 'inference (5)	Learnt grammar (1)
Enhanced confidence (3)	Learnt Making use of dictionary 'resourcing' (3)	
Learnt while enjoying (2)	Learnt getting the meaning without translation (3)	
Helped me to be successful in other English Courses (2)		
Enhanced my determination in learning English (2)		
Provided me to enlarge future goals in English (2)		

As shown in table 2, the results of analysis toward the attitude of students from the extent that learnt from the tasks represented. From total fifteen students, six mentioned that the used tasks in this section enhanced and flourished their knowledge toward the learning process based on the culture. In addition, four students from fifteen believed that the used strategy in the process of leaning and improving reading skills changed their attitude toward learning process and attracted their attention in which how one task caused significant changes in learning English. Besides, from total sample of the study, three students remarked that the used strategies and tasks encouraged them to apply and use English technique outside the class in order to examine their ability in real situations where the used task enhanced their confidence and proficiency. Form the sample of the study, two believed that the used task not only enhanced their ability in reading skills, but also improved their proficiency and ability in other skills as well as other courses. Further, they highlighted that the

tasks made them purposeful toward learning English and provided them the opportunity to expand their knowledge about reading skills.

As highlighted in the table 2, regarding the results of reading skills gain, from fifteen students, six students stated that the used tasks assisted them to use reading skills more efficiently. For instance they learnt how to use skimming technique more practically which is a key and focal point in Meta-cognitive process of learning. Furthermore, five students believed that the used tasks improved their knowledge about the technique of guessing the meaning of words while reading which helped them to have a better comprehension. At the final stage, the respondents highlighted that tasks-used assisted them making use of a dictionary ‘resourcing’, which is a ‘resourcing’ process of cognitive strategies. Besides, three students noted tasks-used enabled them to get the meaning without translation. In terms of language-learning gains, seven students remarked that tasks-used strengthened their pronunciation; five students remarked that tasks-used helped to learn vocabulary; and one student stated that tasks used assisted to learn grammar. Accordingly. It can be summarized that the tasks-used helped students to improve their intonation and enhance some basic technique on reading process such as scanning the text and skimming in the process of reading. Besides, majority of the students believed that the used task highly improved the ability of guessing the meaning of words in the texts rapidly. Besides, the tasks-used helped students to enhance not only their general knowledge but also their cultural information.

Table 3 indicates the results of data analysis for students' attitude toward efficiency of tasks-used. As it can be seen students' attitude toward efficiency-used were classified into three distinctive categories namely, change in personal attitude toward reading, contribution of tasks to reading, and nature of activities. The data analysis explanations for students' attitude toward efficiency of tasks-used are presented in the following section.

TABLE 3
STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARD EFFICIENCY OF TASK-USED

Students' Attitude toward Efficiency of Tasks-Used		
Change in Personal Attitude Toward Reading	Contribution of Tasks to Reading	Nature of activities
Lessons became more enjoyable (12)	Tasks made reading more fruitful (11)	Useful group works (8)
Lessons became easier (9)	The lessons were useful (3)	Real life like (3)
Improved students participation (5)	Tasks were enjoyable (1)	
Lessons became more exciting (4)	Strengthened pronunciation (2)	
Strengthened the learning desire (3)		
Learning process became more interesting (3)		

Table 3 shows that in terms of change in personal attitude toward reading, 12 students highlighted that lesson became more enjoyable when tasks were used; nine students indicated that lesson became easier when tasks were used. Besides, five students stated that tasks-used improved students’ participation; whereas four students noted that lessons became more exciting when tasks were used. Moreover, from fifteen students, three believed that the used tasks motivated and enhanced the desire of learning and reading English. This is because by using the tasks, the process became more fascinating and interesting process for them. In addition, eleven students highlighted that the task was pleasant for them and three out of fifteen students the task was helpful to them, while one out of fifteen students remarked that the used that made the process of learning enjoyable. Besides, the result represented that eight students believed that the used task were valuable and beneficial in nature as the spirit of team working insured through the class leaning. The final result indicated that students believed that the used task helped students to ignore some unnecessary parts. As a conclusion the result showed that the used tasks was a desirable process which made the reading process easier and attractive for students.

Table 4 indicates the results of data analysis for students' attitude toward task- related problems. As it can be seen students' attitude toward task- related problems were classified into two distinctive categories namely, filling feedback forms were boring and Lessons took long. The data analysis explanations for students' attitude toward task- related problems are presented in the following section.

TABLE 4
STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARD TASK- RELATED PROBLEMS

Students' Attitude toward Task- Related Problems
Filling feedback forms were boring (6)
Lessons took long (4)

Table 4 displays students' attitude toward task- related problems. As it can be seen in the table, from fifteen students six of them remarked that answering the questions of feedback form was difficult and tedious problem process. In addition, four of them remarked that the process of learning the task was long and boring and the time of class was long. Thus, it can be stated the reported problems were more related with the nature of the lessons, not with the tasks-used.

Table five depicts that results of students’ comments toward the used tasks. According to the students’ attitude, the comments were grouped into five groups. These groups are personal attitude, contribution to language learning, retention, the nature of language, and reading skills according to the Demire’s (2008) study. the five categories can be seen in the following tables.

TABLE 5
COMMENTS ON TASKS-USED

Commence on Tasks-Used				
Personal attitude	Contribution to Language Learning	Retention	The nature of language	Reading skills
Enjoyable (2)	Instructive (5)	Memorable (2)	Real life like (1)	Learnt many reading strategies (i.e. skimming, scanning) that are parts of 'selectively attend' process of meta-cognitive strategies (1)
Good (2)	Made students like English (2)			
Got pleasure from reading (1)	Made students love reading (1)			
Created a desire to learn English (1)				

Table 5 displays students' comments on the tasks-used. Two students remarked that tasks used were enjoyable and helpful for learning. One student stated that s/he got pleasure from reading; and indicated that tasks created a desire in her/him to learn English. In terms of contribution to language learning, five students stated that tasks were instructive. Two students remarked that tasks made them like English. Lastly, one student remarked that tasks made him/her love reading. Besides, two students found the tasks memorable in terms of retention. One student found the tasks real life like due to the nature of activities. Finally, one student indicated that s/he learnt many reading strategies (i.e. skimming, scanning) that are parts of selectively attend the process of meta-cognitive strategies.

B. Descriptive Analysis Results for Phonological and Grammatical Tasks

In the following tables, the results of mean analysis and standard deviation for phonological and grammatical tasks are presented.

Table 6 displays the results of descriptive analysis for all tasks-used in terms of sentence reading, word reading, phonological task, and grammatical task. The data analysis explanations for descriptive analysis of all tasks-used are presented in the following section.

TABLE 6
MEAN RESULTS FOR ALL TASKS

Tasks	No of Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Sentence reading	20	15.50	1.90
Word reading	12	12.20	2.10
Phonological task	46	31.70	1.44
Grammatical task	48	41.60	1.72

As shown in table 6, EFL students showed better performance in terms of grammatical tasks, which represent that EFL students had better awareness in grammatical tasks compared to phonological tasks.

Table 7 displays the results of descriptive analysis for phonological tasks based on the sub-dimension in terms of rhyme detection, rhyme production, phonemic completion, and phonemic deletion. The data analysis explanations for descriptive analysis of phonological tasks based on the sub-dimension are presented in the following section.

TABLE 7
MEAN RESULTS FOR PHONOLOGICAL TASKS BASED ON SUB-DIMENSION

Tasks	No of Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Rhyme Detection	10	7.00	2.11
Rhyme Production	10	5.90	1.10
Phonemic Completion	10	9.25	2.04
Phonemic Deletion	16	9.85	0.72

Table 7 indicates EFL students' performance on each task for phonological awareness. According to the results of data analysis, it is clear that EFL students showed weak performance in rhyme production tasks whereas phonemic deletion was highlighted as the strongest task.

Table 8 displays the results of descriptive analysis for phonological tasks based on the sub-dimension in terms of word order correction, inflections (plurals), and inflections (past tense). The data analysis explanations for descriptive analysis of phonological tasks based on the sub-dimension are presented in the following section.

TABLE 8
MEAN RESULTS FOR PHONOLOGICAL TASKS BASED ON SUB-DIMENSION

Tasks	No of Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Word Order Correction	24	20.30	1.55
Inflections (plurals)	12	10.10	2.20
Inflections (past tense)	12	9.50	1.09

Table 8 indicates EFL students' performance on each task for grammatical awareness. Based on the results, inflection (past tense) was highlighted as the weakest performance of EFL students. However, word order was highlighted as the strongest task of EFL students.

As shown, EFL students showed weak performance in inflection tasks whereas word order correction was highlighted as the strongest task.

C. Correlation Analysis Results between Reading, Phonological and Grammatical Tasks

In this section, the results of correlation analysis between reading, phonological and grammatical awareness are presented in order to show to what extent these variables are related. The correlation is conducted among both major variables and the sub-variables.

Table 9 displays the results of correlation analysis among major variables of the study namely, sentence reading, word reading, phonological awareness, and grammatical awareness. The data analysis explanations for correlation analysis among major variables of the study are presented in the following section.

TABLE 9
CORRELATION ANALYSIS AMONG MAJOR VARIABLES

	Sentence reading	Word reading	Phonological awareness	Grammatical awareness
Sentence reading	1	.406	.801**	.799**
Word reading		1	.810**	.666**
Phonological awareness			1	.550
Grammatical awareness				1

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

As shown in table 9, there is significant relationship between reading, phonological awareness, and grammatical awareness.

Table 10 displays the results of correlation analysis among sub-variables of the study namely, reading, phonological awareness, and grammatical awareness. The data analysis explanations for correlation analysis among sub-variables of the study are presented in the following section.

TABLE 10
CORRELATION ANALYSIS AMONG SUB-VARIABLES OF READING, PHONOLOGICAL AND GRAMMATICAL AWARENESS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Sentence reading	1	.367	.519**	.601**	.592**	.480**	.619**	.702**	.666**
Word reading		1	.399**	.494**	.508**	.622**	.629**	.540**	.673**
Rhyme detection			1	.596	.632	.510	.422	.357	.324
Rhyme production				1	.499	.370	.702	.698	.550
Phonemic completion					1	.502	.462	.319	.375
Phonemic deletion						1	.529	.613	.405
Word order correction							1	.399	.486
Inflection (plurals)								1	.644
Inflection (past tense)									1

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

This table indicates the results of correlation analysis between readings and phonological and grammatical awareness in terms of their sub-variables. Based on the results, it is evident that there is a significant positive relationship between reading sub-variables (sentence reading and word reading) and phonological and grammatical awareness.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study aimed to investigate the probable effects of phonological and grammatical awareness on the learner's learning outcomes as they perceive. The study was conducted between 50 EFL students who are studying at Azad University of Kerman. In order to find out the relationship between student's phonological and grammatical awareness and their reading performance.

One of the major inquiries of this study was to find out the relationship between students phonological awareness and reading performance. Analysis of feedback-forms, and interviews revealed that phonological awareness may create *high participation*, enhanced *student creativity* and *provide meaningful learning*, which is one of the main factors in enhancing reading performance. Further, when students were involved in the process of using reading skills, their progress significantly improved. The results of the present study were in line with the results of the study by Willis and Willis's (2007). They highlighted that phonological awareness may encourage student to participate in the related reading activities which improves their ability indirectly. At the same time, the study revealed that EFL learners who have better knowledge in terms of phonological awareness have higher motivation to apply reading skills. The reason is that the phonological awareness helps them to focus on meaning or outcome more efficiently. The most crucial effect of phonological awareness and the related task for improving phonological awareness which can be highlighted in the

present study refers to feelings of the students who engaged in the readings activities. The students mentioned that the reading activities and task were *enjoyable and fruitful*. Based on this results, it can be stated that these effects have the potential to increase EFL learners' motivation to learn and apply reading strategies. In addition, the results of the present study indicated that using tasks based had positive effects on learning outcomes of EFL students in terms of reading performance, phonological and grammatical awareness by involving them in the learning process. According to Skehan (1998), involving students in the learning process is one of the essential components of the reading activity which enables students to examine their performance and improve their weaknesses. As mentioned earlier in the data analysis results, the positive feedbacks were received from the diaries forms. As the results showed, majority of the participants highlighted that the diaries forms were useful and assisted them to monitor themselves through the process of learning English. However, in some tasks, negative responses were observed, the overall analysis was positive. The academic justification for such a negative result in some tasks is that *filling the feedback forms* is an exhausting process which impose additional tasks to the students in their free times. While it was not a serious issue for them. Considering these controversial issue for the feedbacks, the impacts of diaries forms of the reading performance of students was positive and those who followed the diaries forms showed better proficiency in reading tasks. In order to justify the negative perceptions about the diaries, the external factors can highlighted. One of these factors is personal problems. Moreover, some participants did not enjoy the task and some did not make mutual relationship with the teachers and showed negative response against teachers' mood. Additional reason backs to the nature of diaries in which in some cases drawing was the only way to convey their feelings. Drawing a picture to convey the feelings and information were difficult for some students and some have no idea about the task. Also, some students did not have enough confidence to draw a picture in the forms. According to these reasons it can be concluded that the task was enjoyable and the small critics can be ignored and consequently, EFL learners and students were involved in the process of learning reading skills in enjoyable manner.

Another strategy that used in the present study refers to the simplicity of the process and avoiding to make the tasks complicated. Therefore, the whole process of learning English specifically reading skill was simple and easy and the students were able to manipulate the inputs based on their preferences. Due to such a process, the students had adequate time to focus on the tasks and process and use their phonological awareness in the tasks. Based on the collected data from the interviews, the participants or students were interested in enhancing their ability in terms of grammatical as well as phonological. In order to justify such kind of result, two possible reason can be developed. The first reason is that, the task were in line with students' preferences and they liked the tasks and the procedures of improving the reading ability. However, the novelty of the process may influence the preference of the students and motivate them to show positive reaction to the test. According to the data analysis results, since the students were on self-study mode and they were able to finish the task after discovering the limits and using meta cognitive approaches, they believed that the task was novel and new. Besides, the ability of using the meta cognitive tasks of students were improved and they learnt to improve ability of reading without constant refer to the dictionary and use alternative techniques such as skimming which is derived and extracted from phonetical and grammatical awareness of students.

As highlighted in data analysis, regression analysis showed relationship between grammatical awareness and reading performance of the students. However, some difficulties were seen among the use of grammatical awareness and reading ability. Based on the pre-test results having ideas about the use of grammatical awareness was the major problem and difficulty of students. Hence, it can be concluded that students' grammatical awareness causes the variation in EFL reading performance. The results depicts that most of the EFL students had some difficulties regarding the use of grammatical awareness in the test. Therefore, EFL students with higher ability in grammatical awareness represented better performance in reading skills.

According to the results of data analysis, it can be stated that those students who had grammatical skills and were able to use their grammatical awareness more efficiently, paid much more consideration to the strategies for improvement of reading performance. Besides, EFL learners with higher grammatical awareness represented higher developments of reading task and strategies due to their clearer idea.

Thus, it can be concluded that both phonological and grammatical awareness give EFL learners and students chance of using their previous knowledge to improve reading skills based on the native language. It means that similar concepts such fluency, logic in understanding, creating relationship between sentences rhetorical organization can be applied from native language to English through applying grammatical and phonological awareness.

In addition, 'grammatical awareness shows significant influence on the improvement of EFL learners in terms of reading competence. Based on the systemic analysis of quantitative results, there is strong and the most direct evidence of EFL learners' reading competence improvement. Besides, the results showed that EFL learners' reading performance can be really enhanced in these grammatical tests. Students in grammatical tests were better in terms of comprehensive reading skills reflected. In addition, for reading analysis, subjects with higher knowledge in grammatical awareness had a much better performance than those with less knowledge in grammatical awareness. Accordingly, it can be inferred from the above findings that most of EFL students with proper grammatical awareness in the tests were more success to handle different words and cope with complex sentences. Also, the results confirmed that those students with proper knowledge of grammatical and phonological awareness were better in reading comprehending and understanding complete sentences.

The results of the study indicated that phonological and grammatical awareness directly enhanced interest of EFL students in order to attend in the classes and pay attention to the learning technique to improve their reading skills. This result, is one of the key point in the use of phonological and grammatical awareness as well as the aim of the treatment. Besides, the study results concluded that use of instructions and guidelines in the classroom constantly related with the grammatical and phonological awareness and giving students higher motivation in learning process. This study mostly underlines the fact that EFL reading should include learners as active participants whose phonological and grammatical awareness play an important role in EFL classes.

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A Study on Teaching Methods of Reading Comprehension Strategies by Comparison between TEM-4 Reading Comprehension and IELTS Academic Reading Comprehension*

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Abstract—The ultimate purpose of Test for English Majors 4 (TEM-4) and International English Language Test System Academic (IELTS A) are to test students' English language application abilities. This paper made a comparative study between reading comprehension part in two tests. It points out that IELTS A, with its up-to-date and diversified types of writing, can reflect students' real English level and ability to use English. IELTS reading requires that students adopt effective reading comprehension strategies to accurately and effectively extract the information and understand the meaning in the face of different types of English reading materials. Meanwhile, students can apply productive skills to use English language. It further puts forward 3 teaching methods of reading comprehension strategies: direct explanation, transactional method, interactive constructive method. It ends with factors teachers should take into consideration when teaching reading comprehension strategies. Three methods can be used in combination considering context of Chinese students' English learning, teachers' demonstration and effective group discussion and communication.

Index Terms—TEM-4, IELTS A, reading comprehension strategies, teaching methods

I. INTRODUCTION

Chinese-foreign cooperation in running schools, as a new school-running mode, has been springing up across the country over the decade, which makes full use of high-quality education resources in foreign universities and introduces teaching contents and teaching methods into China. It opened a door for Chinese students to go abroad for further study. This new mode has made great contribution in promotion of higher education internationalization in China. For both English teachers and students, the problem they face is English language, since one of the prerequisites before going abroad is to pass language tests as IELTS or TOEFL. English language becomes the crucial tool not only for study but also for living in a foreign environment. Most Chinese universities are cooperating with UK universities and IELTS result will be accepted by most English speaking countries. That is why nearly all Chinese universities choose to focus on IELTS when teaching English in joint programmes. The full name of IELTS is International English Language Test System. It was developed by University of Cambridge Examination Committee, which was accepted as an authoritative test of testees' English level and effective English communication skills by more than 6,000 colleges and universities, government and professional bodies in the world. There are two types of test within IELTS. One is IELTS Academic, the other is IELTS General. IELTS Academic is for people planning to study in higher education or seeking professional registration. IELTS General is for people planning to study in secondary education, to work or to do some training programs in English-speaking countries.

Chinese-foreign cooperation in running schools decides the importance of English language. The characteristics of joint programmes require that English language ability of students be higher than those in traditional higher education.

The English tests for English majors are Test for English Majors 4 (TEM-4) or 8 (TEM-8). Test for English majors is sponsored by Foreign Language Professional Teaching Steering Committee in Higher Education of Ministry of Education. It aims to measure English level of English majors in the last two years in universities. English syllabus of State Education Commission for English majors in the last two years in universities regulates that the task of English teaching is to continue to lay a solid foundation of English language, further expand scope of knowledge, and focus on cultivating integrated English skills, enriching the cultural knowledge, and improving communicative abilities. The nature of both IELTS and TEM reflects the ultimate goal is to test the students' language application abilities. At the

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same time, it determines that English teachers teach English as a tool for study and living.

Reading is regarded as one of the most important skills in our daily life, and for many English learners, the opportunity to directly communicate with native English speakers is really limited. Reading is quite an easy way to learn English language. Besides, reading comprehension part accounts for a large proportion in English tests.

This paper will make a comparative study on reading comprehension in IELTS Academic and TEM-4 to find out the differences between the two. It aims to put forward some practical teaching methods of reading comprehension strategies.

II. WHAT IS READING AND READING COMPREHENSION

What is reading?

We all know that reading is a way of getting knowledge and the main input method in foreign language learning, but what is the nature of reading? According to Goodman,

“Reading is a selective process. It involves an interaction between thought and language. Efficient reading does not result from precise perception and identification of all elements, but from skill in selecting the fewest, the most productive cues necessary to produce guesses which are right the first time.” (Goodman, 1973, p.35)

Reading experts consider reading as “the process of constructing meaning through the dynamic interaction of the reader’s existing knowledge, the information suggested by the written text, and the context of the reading situation” (Anthony, Pearson & Raphael, 1993, p.284).

And with the influence of the theories of the Cognitive Psychology, the modern reading theory points out the purpose of reading is to obtain meaning and the process to obtain meaning does not only depends on some particular sentences and words, but depends on the sentences and words around in the co-text. And the modern theory believes that in the second language reading comprehension, besides the reading material, the invisible information plays an important role. Between both of them, the former one is the sensory input based on the language input, the latter one is non-sensory input which refers to the knowledge which has already existed in the readers’ brain. Only they work together, can reading be efficient and correct.

What is reading Comprehension?

Notions of reading comprehension have changed dramatically over the decades.

Harris (1995) concludes reading comprehension as “intentional thinking during which meaning is constructed through text and reader”. Current research views reading as a more dynamic process. Grabe (1997) views reading comprehension as the activity of reconstructing a reasonable spoken message from written symbols to a form of language, which the person can understand. It is the most important skill for most language learner, especially for EFL learners. Reading involves the integrations of bottom-up processing which is text driven and top-bottom processing which is concept driven.

From the view of text linguistics, to understand the meaning of a text is an explanation behavior, which not only depends on the content the writer put in the text, but also the thinking which the reader brings into the text. That is to say, reading is an active process of the reader’s but not a passive one. It refers to the psycholinguistic action process which combines the decoding process of the literal comprehension and the inferential activity by the reader for comprehension. Reading comprehension is “the reconstruction of knowledge through dynamic and attentive reading procedures that direct readers to critically interpret and analyze the passage.” (Sharifah Amani Binti Syed Abdul Rahman, 2010, p.11) “Reading comprehension depends on the execution and integration of many cognitive processes.” (Panayiotou, et al., 2014, p.10)

It is important that students “need to learn the uses of reading ... so that merely a vehicle for transmitting information but a real tool for fostering the construction and transformation of knowledge”. (Mateos, et al., 2007, p.489). Wyse (2006) introduces his text with the statement: “The single most important thing that you can do to improve the chances of success on your course is to read widely” (p.4).

III. COMPARISON BETWEEN READING COMPREHENSION OF TEM-4 AND IELTS ACADEMIC

A. Method

All reading comprehension materials in the paper are chosen from two sources. One is Cambridge IELTS, which is the only official publications of IELTS training materials by Cambridge University press. There are 9 serials from Cambridge 1 to 9, among which Cambridge 5 to 9 are updated and used frequently for training and teaching. In this paper, 4 tests in Cambridge 7 published in 2009 have been chosen. The other is the past exam paper of TEM-4 from the year of 2012 to 2015.

B. Data Analysis

When doing reading comprehension in TEM-4, examinees have about twenty-five minutes to finish twenty single choices. While in IELTS, the answer time for reading comprehension is sixty minutes, which consists of three parts, with different types of questions following each part. The comparative study will be focused on the following aspects: question type, text length, text theme and text form.

1. Question type

As a big part of TEM-4, reading comprehension plays an important role, which aims to detect examinees' abilities of understanding articles or literary works that are in the same level of some originals in a set time. The question type of reading comprehension part seems to be simple. It presents only one type, i.e. single choice, involving summing up and summarizing, questions of details, questions of inference, and questions of view and attitude.

Compared to TEM-4, question type in IELTS academic (IELTS-A) tends to be more diversified, which contains single choice, multiple choice, short answer question, sentence completion, notes/summary/diagram/ flow chart/table complication, list of headings, identification of writer's view/attitudes, classification, matching lists. And the difficulty level of IELTS-A reading comprehension is comparatively higher than that of TEM-4.

TABLE1
CONTENTS OF SINGLE CHOICE IN TEM-4 READING COMPREHENSION

Year & percentage	Summing up and summarizing	Sentence comprehension	Questions of details	Questions of inference	Total number of question
2012	1	1	10	8	20
2013	1	0	13	6	20
2014	3	2	8	7	20
2015	2	5	10	3	20
Total	7	8	41	24	80
Percentage	9	10	51	30	100

TABLE 2
QUESTION TYPE IN IELTS-A READING COMPREHENSION

question type times	Summing up and summarizing	Multiple choice	List of headings	True or false question	Sentence completion	Schematic table item	Matching
Average times	4	4	3	7	3	6	1
Percentage	14.3	14.3	10.7	25	10.7	21.4	3.5

As has been mentioned before, single choice is the only type of reading comprehension in TEM-4. In table 1, among the total 80 questions, the contents of questions are different. Summing up and summarizing accounts for 9%, sentence comprehension accounts for 10%, questions of details accounts for 51% and questions of inference accounts for 30%. It's obvious that TEM-4 reading comprehension part pays much attention to questions of details and questions of inference.

In table 2, among the questions of Test1—Test4 in IELTS, the average times of summing up and summarizing is 4, the same with multiple choice, list of heading 3, true or false 7, sentence completion 3, schematic table item 6 and matching 1, with respective percentage as 14.3%, 14.3%, 10.7%, 25%, 10.7%, 21.4% and 3.5%. It is not hard to see that percentage of each type is close.

2. Theme and length

TABLE 3
THEME AND LENGTH IN TEM-4 READING COMPREHENSION

theme year	Types of writing				Theme	Text Length	
	N	D	A	E			
2012	2	0	1	1	A. manner B. recession in America C. graduate unemployment D. Tutankhamen	A.370 B.444 C.260 D.369	total 1443
2013	2	0	1	1	A. public speaking B. Rick Alden C. financial instability D. character model	A.458 B.506 C.481 D.455	total 1900
2014	2	0	1	1	A. pig in the middle B. stress in college life C. texting revolution D. growing-up	A.464 B.374 C.368 D.434	total 1640
2015	1	0	1	2	A. information in Internet B. internship C. war on anti-smoking D. attachment parents	A.371 B.497 C.432 D.561	total 1861

(Because of the limitation of space, here under type of writing, N stands for Narration, D for Description, A for Argumentation, and E for Exposition.)

TABLE 4-1
THEME IN IELTS-A READING COMPREHENSION

P \ T	Passage 1	Passage 2	Passage 3
Test 1	Bats research	Technology development	Psychology and study
Test 2	Japan pagoda	True cost of food	Rural transportation
Test 3	Ants wisdom	Population and genes	European forest protection
Test 4	Pyramid research	Fisheries research	Noise effect

(T stands for Test, and P stands for Passage.)

TABLE 4-2
LENGTH IN IELTS-A READING COMPREHENSION

Test \ Passage	Passage 1	Passage 2	Passage 3	Total
Test 1	877	827	934	2638
Test 2	1024	886	1147	3057
Test 3	897	713	948	2558
Test 4	865	885	750	2500

In Table 3, TEM-4 reading comprehension part consists of two pieces of narration, one argumentation and one exposition in 2012, 2013 and 2014 respectively, with themes being manner, recession, unemployment and archeology in 2012, public speaking, records of personages, financial issues and moral problems in 2013, game, college life, technology and life in 2014. In 2015, there are one narration, one argumentation and two pieces of exposition with themes of internet, internship, anti-smoking and family education.

The total text length is 1443 words in 2012, 1900 words in 2013, 1640 words in 2014 and 1861 words in 2015. Words in each piece of writing are between 200 and 600.

Table 4-1 presents themes of IELTS reading test. In Test 1, they are bats research, technology development and psychology and study. In Test 2, they are Japan pagoda, true cost of food and rural transportation. In Test 3, they are ants wisdom, population and genes and European forest protection. And in Test 4, they are pyramid research, fisheries research and noise effect.

In Table 4-2, it is obvious that the length of every reading article in IELTS is much longer than that of TEM-4.

3. Form

A typical form of text, nonlinear form, appears frequently in IELTS reading. "Linear Text is described as traditional text type that has a topic sentence at the beginning of a paragraph, is followed by several supporting sentences which serve as further elaboration to the topic sentence. Nonlinear is the opposite of linear text in which it allows readers to control their own movement, not necessarily using front-to-back movement and text is normally accompanied by graphic-visual representation." (Sharifah Amani Binti Syed Abdul Rahman, 2010, p.11). Nonlinear text intersperses in linear text with titles (or subtitles), prefaces, tables, charts, etc. There are many forms of examples of nonlinear texts. Printed forms as reports, application forms for hotels and companies, and encyclopedic entries are all good examples. (Ain Nadzimah & Chan, 2006). The following table shows clearly differences of text form between TEM-4 and IELTS.

TABLE 5
CONTRAST IN TEXT FORM

Form \ Number	TEM-4		IELTS	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Linear	16	100	0	0
Nonlinear	0	0	12	100
Total	16	100	12	100

What can be learned from Table 5 is that text forms in TEM-4 reading part are all linear, while in IELTS reading test, they are all nonlinear.

C. Results

Generally speaking, length of reading in TEM-4 is shorter than that in IELTS-A. Topics in TEM-4 are related to campus, network and some general reading. Compared with TEM-4, IELTS-A involves much more reading materials like geography, history, culture, medicine, education, management, sociology and other aspects. All articles are with nature of popular science, and the content is closely linked with hot topics in the contemporary society. Those include widely advocated traffic environmental protection concept like bus priority and carpooling, new technology like genes, industrial development like food, fisheries and noise effect, social science like psychology, and cultural knowledge like Japan pagoda and Pyramid research. All those appear in domestic newspaper and are often discussed in our social life. The multiplicity of the theme, on one hand, caters to the different students' interests and greatly enhances their study enthusiasm.

On the other hand, it is in line with the aim of teaching English as a tool for learning and living. Reading for the purpose of learning English and reading for getting information are quite different. The former is a process of accumulation of language knowledge, while the latter is a process of obtaining useful information based on language

knowledge and ability. The diversity of reading materials can stimulate students' thirst for knowledge and attract their attention to get information rather than mere grammatical and syntactic analysis.

What's more, the purpose of IELTS-A is to test whether those students with intention to study abroad are qualified with enough language level. When studying in a foreign university, it is common for a student to read a lot of literature and to search for a lot of information. In the actual test, students are indeed in the process of simulation, finding, retrieving and locating information rather than trying to understand every word.

Last but not least, different types of questions in IELTS show that reading is a two-way process. Besides those perceptive skills, students need productive skills. Of course, in this process of reading, students need to give full play to all their language knowledge, metacognitive strategies and background knowledge, etc.

IV. TEACHING METHODS OF READING COMPREHENSION STRATEGIES

It can be seen from the above analysis, IELTS reading requires that students adopt effective reading comprehension strategies to accurately and effectively extract the information and understand the meaning in the face of different types of English reading materials. Meanwhile, students can apply productive skills to use English language. How to teach to help students master effective reading comprehension strategies is an important task faced by teachers in teaching English reading.

A. *Reading Comprehension Strategies*

Usually, there are four levels of reading comprehension a student can experience when reading. They are literal comprehension, interpretive or inferential comprehension, critical comprehension and creative comprehension from the lowest to the highest level. Literal comprehension refers to readers' understanding of what is explicitly stated in the text. Interpretive or inferential comprehension refers to readers' understanding of what is implicitly stated in the text by using background knowledge to help deciding the interrelationships between sentences and paragraphs. Critical comprehension focuses on personal judgments after reading by using critical thinking. Creative comprehension refers to the reader's emotional response. It focuses more on after reading activity. While involving himself/herself in the reading, the reader will have new ideas.

Thus, usually two sets of complementary strategies will be used when reading: those for superficial meaning and network of the reading and those for inner logic and insight or reflection of the reading. In relation to the superficial ones, at least three main features including unity, coherence and cohesion should be sorted out to facilitate the reader's understanding of the meaning. At lexical and syntactic level, details and explanations, examples, comparison, contrast, experience, definition, word formation, cause and effect etc. are the most common strategies used. At discourse level, basic elements of different types of writing and of different genres should be taken as clues of understanding. A clear understanding of patterns like problem-solution, claim-counterclaim, question-answer, and general-specific will help in reading. In relation to inner logic ones, Sylvia and Nancy (2014) put it as "macrostrategies: (a) suppression: where the reader eliminates irrelevant or redundant propositions; (b) generalisation: where the reader substitutes a series of propositions for a more general one or of a higher order; and (c) construction: where the reader infers new propositions that are implicit in the text, enriching the text as a whole and integrating its content to achieve global coherence." (Sylvia and Nancy, 2014, p141-142) Both situational knowledge and background knowledge will be fully used in reading comprehension process, including setting, topic, degree of formality, relation between interactants, social and cultural norms, general knowledge, cooperative principles, mutual understanding of interactants, etc.

B. *Teaching Methods*

How can a teacher help students to internalize those reading comprehension strategies?

1. Direct explanation

Direct explanation puts emphasis on direct exemplary role of teachers, which enables students to imitate the cognitive process of reading comprehension. Teachers try to combine the interpretation of the reading comprehension strategies with usage of them to make strategic activities be immediately applied in reading. Roehler and Duffy (1984) pointed out that teacher's explanation should be metacognitive rather than mechanical. Students should be helped to understand the purpose of using skills and how the reader successfully use skills to actively monitor and adjust in order to understand the discourse meaning. Thus, students' awareness of function and practicability of reading skills will be cultivated and the relationship between the process and reading activities be understood.

This teaching method generally includes the following interconnected teaching procedures or steps.

Firstly, the teacher demonstrates and explains directly to students reading comprehension strategies. Teachers choose reading materials and use the method of thinking aloud to show how to apply a reading comprehension strategy, which makes students visually observe process of reading comprehension.

Secondly, teachers guide students to practice. Students shall carry out the task of reading in accordance with the requirements of and apply reading comprehension strategies. Teachers will evaluate their performance and give feedback. Teacher's guidance will be gradually less on the application of the strategies.

Thirdly, teachers explain on the application of learned reading strategies in other types and genres of writing, which promotes students' ability of using reading comprehension strategies in different types of reading comprehension.

2. Transactional method

Transactional method puts emphasis on dialogue between teachers and students. Texas Education Agency emphasizes (2015) “students are taught to use a set of reading strategies to accomplish tasks like setting goals and planning for reading, using background knowledge and text cues to construct meaning during reading, monitoring comprehension, solving problems encountered during reading, and evaluating progress.” It “involves teaching students to construct meaning as they read by emulating good readers' use of comprehension strategies.” The strategies typically include predicting, questioning, clarifying and summarizing. It occurs “in small-group settings, with the strategies used as vehicles to coordinate dialogue about text as students read aloud. In their groups, students are encouraged to relate a text to their background knowledge to summarize text, to describe any mental images they make during reading and to predict what might happen next in the text. As students read aloud, they engage in and exchange individual interpretations of and responses to the reading.” The importance lies in students’ cognition, internalization and independent ability of using reading comprehension strategies.

3. Interactive constructive method

Interactive constructive method “involves the interaction of readers’ prior knowledge, beliefs, concurrent experience, and the text in a sociocultural context to construct new meaning and understanding.” (Spence, 1995, p.2)

It is a kind of method which takes strategies as the medium to construct understanding. It emphasizes the interaction between readers and texts and between teachers and students. It argues that their reaction will affect their understanding of texts.

Several important teaching links are included in this method.

a. Teachers’ explanation and demonstration.

At the beginning of the teaching, teachers explain and demonstrate flexible use of several kinds of reading comprehension strategies, including different applications in different context.

b. Practice of students

Children practice using reading comprehension strategies with necessary guidance from teachers.

c. Group discussion and communication

In the group, children take turns by thinking aloud method to make their process of understanding and monitoring manifested. In particular, students tell others how they connect previous knowledge with the content and how they make summary. They describe the mental image appeared in their minds and how they predict the content. In this process, teachers and students will construct their own understanding respectively. They can communicate and discuss by brain storm.

V. CONCLUSION

No one teaching method can settle every problem once and for all. The above three ways can be used in combination. Especially under the background of Chinese-foreign cooperation in running schools, reading is not only a way of language learning, but also a tool of study and living. It is a way for learners to broaden their scope of knowledge, a tool to explore in the professional field, and a means to cultivate mode of thinking. In the teaching, teachers should take the following factors into consideration.

Firstly, English learning of Chinese students are in context of their native language. Students’ knowledge of pronunciation, vocabulary, syntax and grammar plays an important role in English reading. When choosing teaching methods of reading comprehension strategies, these characteristics should be taken into consideration. Timely and appropriate teaching methods must be based on students’ certain English language foundation and goals and contents of the reading.

Secondly, teachers’ effective demonstration is an important guarantee for the implementation of teaching tasks. It will help to achieve good learning effect. Teachers themselves should first grasp the knowledge of reading comprehension strategies, and to make explicit the concrete way to apply various strategies.

Thirdly, group discussion and communication can effectively organize students to do practice. In the group, students can share their knowledge, describe reading comprehension process, deepen their understanding of English reading comprehension strategies, and apply the reading comprehension strategies.

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An Investigation of the Frequency of Occurrence of Passive Structures in Classical and Modern Persian Literature

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Abstract—This paper investigates the frequency of occurrence of the passive and impersonal structures at two different periods of Persian literature, namely, classic and modern literature to decide on the tendency of their language use. To do so, a number of texts from the two periods were selected and analyzed. The quantitative study of the data shows that the occurrence of the impersonal structure is much more frequent in both classic and modern texts. The results indicated that Persian writers tend to use impersonal structures rather than the passive voice is not used. The findings also indicated that the passive voice is not so common in Persian.

Index Terms—passive structure, impersonal structure, classic prose, modern prose

I. INTRODUCTION

Languages have different classifications of grammatical voice. English uses active, middle and passive verbs. The active voice is most common in many languages and represents the normal case where the subject of the verb is an agent. According to Keenan & Dryer (2007), the main function of the passive is topicalization of a semantic role like patient in the sentence. In other words, it moves this semantic role, which was originally part of the rheme, to the beginning of the sentence and so presents it as the theme.

In English syntax, a passive structure occurs when the grammatical subject of the verb is functionally the object or the result of the action articulated by the verb. The agent or source of the action may be inserted in a prepositional phrase (Hubbuck, 2006). The passive voice is a grammatical construction that the subject of a passive sentence or clause is the recipient of the action rather than the performer (Arianna, 2001).

According to Perlmutter & Postal (1977), universal phenomena are engendered for transition of a clause from the active to a passive voice:

- a. Subject of a passive sentence is direct object of an active one.
- b. Subject in an active sentence is neither the subject nor the direct object of the corresponding passive.
- c. A passive clause is an intransitive clause in the absence of another rule permitting some further nominal to be the direct object of the clause. (p. 76)

There is still no agreement about passive structure in Persian and this structure has always been controversial e.g. Vahidia-Kamyar (2003) claims that the occurrence of the passive in Persian is not frequent but is used only in the following cases:

- a. When the agent is unknown or the speaker does not want to name him/her
- b. When the addressee knows the agent already.
- c. When the speaker takes the information for granted; e.g. 'zamin va aseman afaride shod' (Heaven and earth were created.).(p. 53).

Some scholars believe that there is no passive structure in Persian and what is called passive is in reality 'inchoative structure' (Moyne, 1974). Inchoative structure expresses a change in the state of things e.g. the verb yellow in 'The leaves yellowed'(Richards, 1999). Lambton (1983) states that in Persian, the passive voice will not be used if it is possible to use the active one e.g. the sentence 'I was hit by him.' can be translated as 'He hit me.' i.e. [ou mara zad]. Some other scholars in this field limit the use of passive structures to cases where there is no agent. According to Soheili (1976) the direct object is extraposed to the place of the subject and the subject is omitted through the process of passivization.

Moreover, Keenan (1985) suggests that there is a kind of grammatical structure which uses a third person with the third person verb. He called this structure 'impersonal', since the plural sign in these structures does not refer to definite people. Keenan adds that in languages with the main passive structures we also find this impersonal structure.

With all controversies that exist regarding the structure and use of passive voice and other forms which are preferred in Persian, very few studies have investigated the subject.

A. Statement of the Problem

In Persian there are different perspectives about passive voice which is a common grammatical voice in English. Several comparative studies have been carried out on the use of passive structures in English and Persian translated texts. Moreover, to the best of researchers' knowledge, there has been little work on the structure(s) other than the passive structure (e.g., impersonal constructions) in Persian.

B. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study is twofold: to investigate the frequency of passive structure in Persian classic and modern prose and to study the impersonal construction as a substitute structure for passive voice and its occurrence in Persian to see whether it is the passive voice that is commonly used in Persian or the instances that are extracted from Persian texts are mostly impersonal construction. Therefore, the present research attempts to gain a better understanding of the frequency and context of the passive and impersonal constructions in classic and modern texts.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The passive voice has long been a controversial sentence construction. Linguists have varied opinions about its general merit as a rhetorical device and about when and how it should be used. For decades, passives as a major grammatical category in both English and Persian have been subject to much research. There is no agreement about the existence of passive voice in Persian among linguists. Some linguists (Khayampour, 1973; Moyne, 1974; Vahidi Langeroudi, 1998) argued for the existence of passive structure in Persian. They believe that active voice seem more 'advisable' than the passive voice. However, in English language the passive voice is used regularly because it is a common feature in different texts. Many authors agree that English speakers have a tendency to use passive voice more frequently especially in formal texts (Zhonghua Xiao, 2007). In English, Passives are used more in written texts than spoken ones.

A. Passive Structure in English

Passive voice constructions can be divided into various groups by using different criteria. For example, focusing on the presence or absence of a *by*-phrase, Huddleston and Pullum (2002) distinguished short from long passive. Accordingly, the distinction is derived from the presence or absence of the agent in the passive clause.

SHORT: *His plan was rejected.*

LONG : *His plan was rejected by the board.*

The short passive, also called 'agentless' (Biber et al, 1999), is realized by the omission of the agent. The most frequent passive structure in finite clauses is short dynamic *be*-passive. The main function of the short dynamic passive is to leave the initiator of an action (the agent) unexpressed because it is unknown, redundant, or irrelevant. Veselovská and Emonds (2005) call this process as 'deagentivisation'. Short dynamic passives are most common in the academic prose (Biber et al, 2002).

In the long passive the agent is expressed in a *by*-phrase (Biber et al, 2002). As can be seen in the example, the agent of the action in the long passive is expressed through a *by*-phrase. However, Biber et al. (2002) point out that in some cases the *by*-phrase will specify a different semantic role (Biber et al, 1999).

There is another type of passive where their past participle behaves, to a greater or lesser extent, like an adjective. This passive type acts as a passive case despite their active equivalent. Huddleston and Pullum (2002) refer to this type

of passive as adjectival passives. Later, Quirk(1985) classifies them into semi-passives and pseudo-passives, however, in English grammar some of them are defined as stative passive to differentiate them from real passive and when you call something pseudo passive you mean it is not really passive though, in the first sight, one might take them for passive.

Prepositional passive is the other type of passive structure which, according to Alsina (2009), has all features of an acceptable passive construction except that the subject does not agree to an object of the verb in active form. In other words, in this type of passive the object is a prepositional complement. In Huddleston and Pullum (2002) terminology, prepositional passive can be divided in to two categories: (a) prepositional passive with preposition specified by the verb or verbal idiom and (b) prepositional passive where the preposition is less constrained.

Although passive structure normally includes *be + past participle*, it is also possible to use *get + past participle*. In informal language, Siewierska (1984) maintains that the English get-passive is described as colloquial or social dialect, with "be" -passives usually considered more formal than "get"-passives. Pullum (2014) believes that the intransitive verb *get*, which is not an auxiliary, has developed a special grammaticized use in marking an additional type of passive.

Last but not least, Contemporary English grammar, based on generative linguistics, (for instance, Quirk et al(1985) describes English verb group as:

Tns (M) (have-en) (be-ing) (be-en) V

With 'tense' as the only obligatory element within the AUX. Applying the relevant phrase structure rule for past tense, modal may, verb eat lunch, for male third person singular produces: he might eat his lunch, and perfect aspect: he might have eaten his lunch, adding progressive aspect: he might have been eating his lunch. While for the past tens, modal may, perfect aspect, prog aspect, passive produces: his lunch might have been being eaten.

B. Passive Voice in Persian

There are various perspectives on passive structure in Persian. Moynes (1974) points out that the passive voice does not exist in Persian but the distinction of passive and active voices are intransitive verbs which are accompanied by the verb *shodan*, (*become*). Similarly, Khayampour (1973), rejects the existence of passive voice since he believes that there is no specific form in Persian to express such a construction. He adds passive voice and the deputy of the doer "*nāib fā'il*" in *Ali was killed (Ali koshteh shod)* is an incomplete verb and *killed (koshteh shod)* is the complement for the subject. In addition, Vahedi Langeroudi (1998) questioned the existence of passive voice in Persian. He considered the passive voice with the verb *become (shodan)* as a kind of compound verb. Lambton (1983) argued that "if it is possible to use the active structure, the passive one will not be used" (p.50). For example, the sentence B is more acceptable than A in the following example.

A: *the window was broken by Ali (shishe tavasote Ali shekaste shod)*

B: *Ali broke the window (Ali shishe ra shekast)*

Some Iranian scholars (Dabir moghadam, 1985; Meshkatodini, 2005) define passive structures as past participle of the verb and the auxiliary verb *shodan*. Others have considered other structures, for example, the structures of the verbs in third person plural (Bateni, 1969; Vahidian Kamyar, 1992; Tayyeb, 2001; Pakravan, 2002) as passive, which has led to more confusion when readers are not so careful about the difference between passive voice (an element within the AUX in verb phrase) and passive meaning, which commonly expressed by passive voice in English and may be expressed by other constructions in a certain language.

C. Passive Structures in Traditional Grammar

In the earliest traditional grammar for Persian language, a distinction was made between active and passive cases. The active verb was defined as a verb connected to the subject (*Ahmad neshast*); however, passive verbs referred to the object (*Sohrab koshte shod*). Ahmadi Givi (2005) mentioned, after omitting the subject of the sentence different structures of the verb *become (shodan)* and the participle of main verb will be constructed in the common process of passivization. Then, passive will be transformed to the subject position and the proposition "*ra*" as the symbol of passive will be dropped in the sentence. There should be an agreement of the structure in the passive voice and the new subject or previous passive. In a nut shell, for constructing participle "*h-eh*" should be added to the past form of the verb and (become) *shodan* is inflected for the past. For example: *Ali brings the book (Ali ketab ra avardeh)* should change to *the book was brought (ketab avardeh shod)*. Farshidvard (2005) labeled 'passivied' verb for the verbs *become (shodan)* and *coming (amadan)*

D. New Perspective to the Passive Structure

Reviewing the related literature would reveal that there are some additional points despite what discussed earlier. In the traditional Persian, Sometimes the structure of passive is used in a number of verbs such as *become (shodan)*, *come (amadan)* and *turn (gashtan)*. Shariat (1988) postulated that sometimes in the structure of passive voice some supplementary Persian or Arabic word (such as *pasand amad*; *gereftar shod*) conveying the meaning of participle will be used instead of (PP+ h-eh).

Some linguists (Bateni, 1965; Vahidian Kamyar, 2003) exemplify that the sentence *Ali was killed (Ali ra koshtand)* include the third person plural verbs without subject which is regarded as a kind of passive. Ahmadi Givi (2005) points out that some specific Persian verbs like *avaredehand*, *naql kardand*, *miguyand* are classified in this passive voice.

Additionally, some other linguists believed that there is an even middle structure in Persian as well as passive structure. They considered the second verb in the following pairs as middle verbs: *baz kardan/baz shodan*, *gool zadan/gool khordan*, *shekast dadan/shekast khordan*. However, Rasekhmahand (2007) and Haspelmath, (1993) denied the existence of middle verbs in Persian. They called such verbs anti-causative verb. In fact, such structures are neither Persian nor middle but belong to a more general process called transitivity alternation.

E. Syntax and Reference

The theory of syntax and reference was first established as a theory at the beginning of the 80s by linguists such as VanValin and Foly. According to this theory, language is a system of social communicative action in which grammatical structures are used to express meaning. According to Van Valin (2005), while all languages meet the same communicative purposes, different languages employ different tools to to this end. An important aspect of these differences is related to different ways of interacting syntax, semantics and pragmatics in different languages. That is why this theory has paid particular attention to the typology and language universals. Role and reference grammar verifies the existence of two kinds of passive structures in Persian language.

In role and reference grammar the passive structure is identified according to the privilege of syntactic argument. In active cases, the affecting factor appears as privileged syntactic argument while in passive sentences the affected factor serves this position. Shariat (1988, p.165) believes that "a passive verb is attributed to the direct object like: *Hassan was seen (Hassan dide shod)* in which *the verb phrase "was seen (dide shod)"* is a passive case that attributes to the direct object, "Hassan". Accordingly, Khanlari (1985) argue that the difference between active and passive lies in the attribution of the verb to the subject and object respectively. He also believes that the theme is the subject in the active sentence and object in the passive sentence respectively.

Anvari and Ahmadi Givi (1996) define passive case as a verb whose subject is not known. For instance, the sentence "the teacher was seen in the street" the verb is attributed to the object. It is due to the transitive verb that can bear an object. The passive verbs comprised past participle and an auxiliary verb. A number of verbs such as release, be lost and be found are transitive form of the transitive verb.

F. Main Passive

The main passive is the common passive structure of Perian. It consists of past participle plus the verb *shodan*. In this type of passive, the undergoer noun phrase will be placed in the subject position and the actor noun phrase will be either omitted completely or be placed periphery in the prepositional phrase. Consider the following examples:

- a. *Ahoo be daste shekarchi koshte shod.*
- b. *Ahoo koshte shod.*

In the example (a) above "Ahoo", undergoer noun phrase, plays the role of privileged syntactic argument. This sentence indicates a syntactic agreement. . The word *shekarchi* plays periphery in the prepositional phrase. On the other hand, the example (b) the word *shekarchi* was omitted and only undergoer noun phrase replaced as subject. What is common in Persian is that the second example is more relevant. According to Mahootian (1997), we use passive structures in Persian when the agent is unknown or we do not want to mention it. Consider the following examples:

- a. *Name neveshte shod.*
- b. *Shishe shekaste shod.*

As it is clear in these examples, these passive structures completely follow the role and reference theory. This kind of passive is the most common structure in languages all over the world.

G. Impersonal Constructions

Linguists have sometimes considered another type of structure as passive. This structure includes sentences with no subjects which include third person plural verbs. For example:

- a. *Mashin ra dozdidand./ Mashin dozdideh shod.*
- b. *Khane ra kharab kardand./ Khane kharab shod.*

Batani called this structure "semantic passives". However, Tayyeb (2001) viewed such sentences as passives having fixed person. According to Keenan (1985), there is a kind of grammatical structure in many languages which lack the main passive structure. This structure is used instead of passive structures. He mentioned that the most common tool to express this structure is third person plural verb. He called this structure "impersonal", since the plural sign does not refer to definite people. Keenan (1985) added that this structure is also found in languages which have main passive structures. Anyway, Keenan viewed such structures as a kind of passive structure. The interesting point is that using the third person singular form of the verbs will change the sentences into an active voice. For example:

- a. *Mashin ra dozdid.*
- b. *Khane ra kharab kard.*

Rezai and Tayyeb (2006) argued that in these sentences, the noun phrase subject is omitted because it is not related to new information but presupposed, as a result they are naturally omitted.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Instrumentation

As the purpose of this study was to analyze the passive and impersonal structures and their frequencies in Persian, suitable data was needed. In selecting the texts for the study, two issues were taken into account. First, the selected texts were not a translated text of other languages into Persian. The main reason is that translated texts are vulnerable to the structures of source text; as a result, they can not provide reliable data for this study. Second, two types of texts, namely, classic and modern Persian prose were selected as the source of data collection. The selection of classic and modern Persian prose would present robust evidence on the use of such structures in Persian literary texts. The sources of data collection are presented in the following table.

TABLE 1.
THE BOOKS BEING PROCESSED

Classic prose		Modern prose	
Golestan – e - saadi	By Saadi	Boof –e- Kour (The Blind Owl)	By Sadegh Hedayat
		Shahri Chon Behesht (city like paradise)	By Simin Daneshvar
		Zan-e Ziadi (The superfluous woman)	By Jalal Al-e-Ahmad
Tazkirat al-Awliya	By Attar	Gohar Morad	By Gholam-Hossein Sa'edi
		Gile Mard	By Bozorg-e- Alavi
		Keyma-šab-bāzi (the puppet show)	By Sadeq Chubak
		Mordeh kharha and Atash Parast	By Sadeq Hedayat

B. Procedure of Data Collection and Data Analysis

In order to collect the samples of passive and impersonal structures, the two type of literary prose were read meticulously and instances of each type of structure were jotted down. To ensure that all the instances of the passive and impersonal structures have been covered, the researchers reexamined the text. After collecting the data, the frequency of each type of structure was used to discuss the construction of each structure in Persian. The extracted sentences are presented in the appendix.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

As already mentioned, this research aims to investigate the frequency of occurrence of the passive and impersonal structures in Persian. To achieve the objective of this study, the researcher extracted the main passive and impersonal structures and considered the frequency of the passive structures in the texts. The number of passive structures in the samples of the aforementioned texts were counted. The following table shows the frequency of passive and impersonal structures in the classic prose.

TABLE 2.
RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS OF THE CLASSIC TEXTS

	Total number of sentences	Total number of the main passive	Total number of the Impersonal constructions
Golestan – e – saadi	3382	2 (0.05%)	26 (0.76%)
Tazkirat al-Awliya	4096	6 (0.14%)	53 (1.29%)
Total	7478	8 (0.1%)	79 (1.05%)

As table 1 indicates, there were 2 passives and 26 impersonal structures among the 3382 sentences selected from the book Golestan –e- Saadi; and 6 passives and 53 impersonal structures have been identified among 4096 sentences selected from the book Tazkeratol oliya. In sum, there were 8 passive structures and 79 impersonal structures among 7478sentences in the two texts. Statistically speaking, in the classic texts, the percentage of the passive sentences was 0.1%, and the percentage of the impersonal sentences was 1.05%, i.e., over 10 times. The results indicate that Impersonal constructions frequency is more than ten times as frequent as that of the passive in Persian classic texts.

To indicate the frequency of passive and impersonal structures in modern prose, several texts have been examined. The following table shows the frequency of the two structures in the modern prose.

TABLE 3.
RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS OF THE MODERN TEXTS

	Total number of sentences	Total number of the main passive	Total number of the Impersonal passive
Boof –e- Kour	1302	2 (0.15%)	4 (0.3%)
Shahri Chon Behesht	1168	1 (0.08%)	7 (0.59%)
Zan-e Ziadi	987	5 (0.5%)	8 (0.81%)
Gohar Morad	1338	2 (0.14%)	8 (0.59%)
Bozorg-e-Alavi	616	4 (0.64%)	8 (1.29%)
Keyma-šab-bāzi	1056	2 (0.18%)	0
Mordeh kharha and Atash Parast	662	1 (0.15%)	8 (1.2%)
Total	7129	17 (0.23%)	43 (0.60%)

As table 2 indicates, 17 passive and 43 impersonal instances were found in the corpus of modern prose. Accordingly, except for one text (*Ke yma-šab-bāzi*) where the number of main passive was 2 but no impersonal structures were found, in the other texts the number of impersonal constructions was greater. Statistically speaking, in the modern texts, the percentage of the passive sentences was 0.24%, and the percentage of the impersonal sentences was 0.60%, which means impersonal constructions were almost 3 times more frequent.

V. CONCLUSION

As already mentioned, the frequency of impersonal structures was shown to be much higher than the frequency of passive structures in the two periods. The findings revealed that Persian writers prefer to use more active voice than passive or impersonal structures. However, when Persian writers feel the necessity to express passive meaning, they tend to use impersonal structures rather than main passive ones.

One implication of this study might be that in translation from English to Persian, active voice should always be the first choice; changing to passive must only occur appropriately. On the other hand, overuses or misuses of passive voice will also lead to poor translation.

APPENDIX

	Main passive	Impersonal passive
Golestan-e-Sadi	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. در رعایت خاطرش هرچه تمامتر سعی کرده شود. 2. کسی گفت: 3. چون دیگ پخته شد. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. یکی را از ملوک عجم حکایت کنند. 2. باری به مجلس او در کتاب شاهنامه همی خواندند. 3. چندان که ملاطفت کردند. 4. چاره ندانستند. 5. هر مز را گفتند. 6. حال بگفتند. 7. وز این جا گفته‌اند. 8. سیه گوش را گفتند. 9. گفتم حکایت آن روباه مناسب حال توست که دیدنش 10. عیب گیرند 11. پیشت بیش میرند 12. آورده اند که فقیهی دختری داشت... 13. فقیه را گفتند: چرا داماد را علاج نکنی 14. رنجوری را گفتند: دلت چه می خواهد؟ 15. حاتم طایی را گفتند از خود بزرگ همت تر در جهان دیده ای یا شنیده؟ 16. اگر این هم از جمله دزدان باشد که بعنیاری در میان ما تعبیه شده است تا به وقت
Tazkirat al-Awliya	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. در آن میانه بند ابزارش گشاده شد 2. چون پرده من دریده شد 3. چون ذکر او کرده شود. 4. روزنه ای در درون دلم گشاده شد. 5. قران بر من گشاده شد. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1-بایزید را گفتند 2-چون منی را نه در آسمان مثل یابند 3-نه در زمین صفتی دانند 4-شیخ را دفن کردند 5-مرا بر آسمان بردند 6-او را شهنشاہ علما گفته اند 7-ما را خوانده اند 8-امروز او را رضی الفریقین گویند 9-مرا از برای تو فرستاده اند 10-از او پرسیدند 11-او را بر دار کنند 12-او را امیرالمومنین گفتندی 13-او را گفتند 14-او را می آریند 15-آن را در دیوان علاینه نویسد 16-او را طلب کردند 17-او را به خواب دیدند 18-چون سفیان را به خاک بردند 19-همسایه را می رنجاندند 20-آنکس را بگرفتند 21-هر چهار را طلب کردند 22-چون این برهان بدیدند 23-یک روز برای امام احمد نان می پختند 24-چون نان پیش احمد آوردند 25-او را به خواب دیدند 26-جنازه او برداشتند 27. او را گفتند که در این شیوه همه او بود... 28. نقل است که او را نشان دادند که فلان جای پیر بزرگ است. 29. چون این سخن به ذوالنون باز گفتند... 30. این سخن با بایزید گفتند. 31. او را گفتند که مصلحت تو آنست که ... 32. او را بزنند. 33. او را علف دهند. 34. قومی را بدو فرستادند. 35. او را دیده بودند.

		<p>36. اويس را نزديک او بردند. 37. او را پيش عمر آوردند. 38. حجاج را به خواب ديدند. 39. منکران را منع کردند. 40. حسن را بر منبر فرستادند تا دعایی گوید. 41. سيد حسن را گفتند. 42. هر دو را به دوزخ در آوردند. 43. تو را و مرا بسوزند. 44. او را بشستند و نماز کردند و دفن کردند... 45. و ان خط در دست او نهادند. 46. ودیعت را باز دادند. 47. از او پرسیدند. 48. ما را خوانده اند. 49. او را گفتند. 50. چون او را بدیدند بانگ در گرفتند. 51. آن را طلب کردند. 52. چون آن را پيش او آوردند. 53. برای او نان پختند.</p>
Shahri Chon Behesht	1. بعد صدای جیغ مهر انگیز شنیده شد	<p>1. یک قصه به قصه های مهر انگیز اضافه شده بود. 2. دیگر فرسوده شده بود. 3. مادر علی ساعت بزرگی را که در طاقچه ارسی گذاشته بودند و مجسمه دو دختر سیاه در دو طرفش بود فروخت. 4. فردا پيش از ظهر در خانه را زدند. 5. یک بشقاب شیرینی بود که توی روسری حریر گلدار پیچیده بودند. 6. لبهایش به پایین کشیده شد. 7. یک روز تنگ غروب علی لباسهایش را پوشیده بود و می خواست از خانه بیرون برود که در خانه را با شتاب زدند.</p>
Zan-e – Ziadi	<p>1. میز انباشته شده بود از هدایای مهمانان... 2. نگاههایی که جز بی علاقه نسبت به همه چیز در آن خوانده نمی شد. 3. در او نه خیال تازه ای انگیزته شد. 4. همه جا شناسنامه ی سیاسی رهبران به تعداد ساعات و ایامی که در زندان به سر برده اند سنجیده می شود. 5. داستانهای دیگری هم درباره زمان زندان او شنیده می شود. 6. دوربین میزان شده بود. 7. به عضویت کمیته مرکزی حزب انتخاب شده است. 8. دوستی دارد که به تازگی نماینده مجلس شده است. 9. در جشنی که به افتخار اعضای کمیته بر پا شده بود.</p>	<p>1. دو تا از دختر هایش هم به خانه داماد فرستاده شده اند. 2. مردها را از خانه بیرون کرده بودند. 3. فرستاده بودند پاتیل مسجد بزرگ را آورده بودند. 4. همه را آورده بودند. 5. ته صندوق را هم گشته بودند. 6. روی میز گلدان گذاشته بودند. 7. همه را شمرده بودند. 8. میز بزرگی که طرف چپ در ورود باغ گذاشته بودند.</p>
Gohar Morad	<p>1. تنها دماغ کلنگش که بالا و پایین می رفت، دیده می شد. 2: صدای سرفه ها از توی دالانها تکوتوک شنیده می شد.</p>	<p>1. دیدند که زیلوی اسلام را روی مُرده پهن کرده. 2. می گن از خونه ی خاله اش نمی آد بیرون. 3. به یکی از خانه ها که وسط خانه های دیگر بود، صدها علم زده بودند. 4. اطراف گودال، سنگ چیده بودند. 5. یه چیزهایی درباره ی تو می گن. 6. زیلوی اسلام را تا کرده گذاشته بودند روی نردبان. 7. آجرهایی را که چیده بودند. 8. چند تا متکا و لحاف هم چیده بودند روی هم.</p>
Mordeh kharha and Atash Parast	1. مجلسی که در سنگ کنده شده بود	<p>1. اورا کشتند 2. او را بخاک سپرده اند 3. روحش را زود خلاص کردند 4. شاه شهید را که تیر زدند 5. اگر الان توی پاشنه در اطاعت را بگردند 6. روی میز یک بطری شراب و دو گیلان گذاشته بودند 7. چند تا عکس تازه ای که از ایران فرستاده بودی آوردند 8. یکی از آنها را گفتند</p>
Keyma-šab-bāzi	<p>1. زل زل بعکس آدمکی که برابر چشمش روی گچ دیوار کشیده شده بود نگاه کرد. 2. یکر است بطرف مرده که رویش یک لنگ حمام رنگ و رورفته انداخته شده بود رفتند.</p>	-
Boof –e- Kour	<p>1. یخه اش باز بود و سینه ی پشم آلودش دیده میشد. 2. یک سد نمناک بدون روزه به سنگینی سرب جلو من و او کشیده شد.</p>	<p>1. گویا به مناسبت تولد من این شراب را انداخته بودند. 2. مثل این بود که تن او را از آغوش جفتش بیرون کشیده باشند. 3. مثل ماده مهر گیاه بود که از بغل جفتش جدا کرده باشند 4. برای من، او مثل یک دسته گل ترو تازه بود که روی خاکروبه انداخته باشند</p>

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The Contribution of Word Webbing to Project-based Learning in Teaching Vocabulary: A Comparative Study in an EFL Context

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Abstract—This study was an attempt to investigate the effect of applying word web strategy with and without project based learning (PBL) on EFL learners' vocabulary learning. Ninety female EFL learners from a high school in Tehran were the participants of this study. They were at intermediate level of language proficiency and in three intact classes of 30 members. The three classes were randomly assigned as one control and two experimental groups. The homogeneity of three intact groups in terms of general language proficiency and knowledge of vocabulary was determined by comparing their mean scores after performing on a PET and a pretest of vocabulary respectively. After that, the participants received 12-session treatment, including teaching vocabulary using word web (WW) strategy without PBL for one experimental group, and using WW with PBL for another while the control group received the usual instruction of the teacher for the same new words without WW and PBL. At the end of the treatment, the teacher-made vocabulary posttest was administered to the study groups. To test the hypotheses of the study with respect to the violation of the normality assumption, Kruskal-Wallis test was run on participants' scores. The results showed that the participants in both experimental groups significantly outperformed the participants in the control group in terms of vocabulary learning. The results also showed that the students who received WW with PBL outperformed those who received it without PBL.

Index Terms—project based learning, word webbing, WW with PBL, WW without PBL, EFL context

I. INTRODUCTION

The significant role of vocabulary as a key element in learning a language can hardly be denied. Vocabulary knowledge is valuable because it involves the words we must know to access our background knowledge, express our beliefs and ideas, communicate successfully, and learn new notions (Rupley, Logan, & Nichols, 1999). As Thornbury (2002) states, "if you spend most of your time studying grammar, your English will not improve very much, but if you learn many words and expressions; you will see the most enhancement" (p.114). According to Morin and Goebel (2001), despite different procedures that teachers apply in vocabulary teaching, strategies are the best tools for developing vocabulary knowledge and they can apply them as a facilitator to raise the efficiency of teaching.

Among different vocabulary learning strategies, graphic organizers are highly recommended as they provide learners with visual scaffolds (Chularut & DeBacker, 2003). Word webbing is a kind of graphic organizer that according to Pierson, Cerutti, and Swab (2006) is appropriate for developing and reviewing vocabulary. Kagan (2001) states that word webbing is a graphical way of organizing words that make connections between similar words or ideas which are known by various names, including clustering and web maps.

On the other hand, Demirhan (2002) states that "Project-based learning is a comprehensive approach to classroom teaching and learning that has been designed to engage students to investigate complex, authentic problems and carefully designed products and tasks" (p.38). With respect to the vital role of vocabulary knowledge in effective communication and considering the deficiencies that still exists in the domain of vocabulary teaching, the authors of this paper sought to find an appropriate strategy to be applied in EFL classes to help learners overcome some of their problems with vocabulary learning. From among various vocabulary learning strategies, word webbing could be the one that looked both interesting and innovative. Levy (1997) states that many students are interested in webbing technique as it applies their ability to think and visualize. It provides structure for ideas and facts and gives students a flexible framework for organizing and prioritizing information.

Moreover, cooperative learning in the form of projects accomplished by the group of learners was another activity found by the researchers as probably effective in enhancing learners' vocabulary achievement. In fact, Project-Based Learning is an exciting and pleasurable learning process which has been founded on the basis of learners' active

involvement in the learning process, that is, learner centered teaching style. A number of empirical studies have confirmed that word web strategy and PBL have significant effect on EFL learners' skill (Agustini & Sianipar, 2013; Cha'vez, 2013; Rahmawati, 2011). As a result, this study was conducted to integrate word webbing as one of the vocabulary learning strategy with PBL and to investigate the viable effect that WW with and without PBL might have on Iranian EFL Learners' vocabulary learning. It's worth mentioning here that word webbing with PBL is operationalized in this study as requiring the students to prepare wall paper or the power point in order to present the word webs they have developed collaboratively.

II. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

With respect to the significant role that both word webbing and PBL have proved to have in different areas of second language learning and considering the lack of research related to the application of these teaching tools in the field of vocabulary learning in an EFL context, such as Iran, this research is hoped to have contribution to the attempt being done in this field. Considering these points, the following research questions were addressed in the present study:

Q1. Does applying word webbing without PBL have any significant effect on EFL learners' vocabulary learning?

Q2. Does applying word webbing with PBL have any significant effect on EFL learners' vocabulary learning?

Q3. Is there any significant difference between the vocabulary achievement of learners who receive WW with PBL and those who receive WW without PBL?

With respect to the raised research questions, the following null hypotheses were formulated:

H₀₁. Applying word webbing without PBL has no significant effect on EFL learners' vocabulary learning.

H₀₂. Applying word webbing with PBL has no significant effect on EFL learners' vocabulary learning.

H₀₃. There is no significant difference between the vocabulary achievement of learners who receive WW with PBL and those who receive WW without PBL.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of the present study were 90 female Iranian high school students of third grade in Tehran. They were at the intermediate level of general language proficiency and were at three intact classes of 30 members with the age range of 16 to 17. The homogeneity of three intact groups in terms of general language proficiency and knowledge of vocabulary was determined by comparing their mean scores after performing on a PET and a pretest of vocabulary respectively. One class was assigned randomly to the experimental group one, who received word web strategy without PBL as their treatment, while the other thirty-member class was assigned to another experimental group, group two, who received word web strategy with PBL. Also thirty learners from the third class were assigned to the control group

B. Instruments

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

1. Preliminary English Test (PET)

To determine the study groups' homogeneity in terms of their general English proficiency, PET was administered at the outset of the study. It is worth mentioning that concerning the ease of administration and the ease of scoring, and also school time limitation, the speaking and writing parts were excluded from the test. Therefore, the administered test consisted of 60 items as a whole, including 35 reading questions and 25 listening questions. Moreover, the reliability of the test was calculated as .783 through Cronbach's Alpha.

2. Vocabulary test as the pretest/posttest

Prior to the treatment, a teacher-made vocabulary test including 40-item was used as the pretest. The test consisted of 40 questions 25 of which were of recognition type and 15 others as production type. The vocabulary items were mostly developed based on the content of students' course book, with the purpose of evaluating the EFL learners' enhancement of vocabulary knowledge (receptive and productive) after familiarity with words instructed in each section. The time allocated for taking the test was around 40 minutes that was estimated by the researcher after a pilot study.

The pretest was administered in order to make sure that the participants were homogeneous with respect to their vocabulary knowledge at the beginning of the study. As mentioned before, the test was already piloted with a group of 30 students with almost the same characteristics of the target group and after doing item analysis, four items were modified. For ensuring the content validity of the test, the researcher asked three experienced EFL/ESL professors to offer their comments. After some minor modifications, the reliability index of the test was calculated through Cronbach's Alpha as .742 in the second pilot study.

At the end of the treatment, the same pretest was administered as the posttest in order to investigate the students' vocabulary achievement. In other words, the posttest was administered to compare the performance of the three groups to see whether or not there were any significant differences between them.

3. The instructional materials

The same course book was used for the three groups of the study. The course book was the students' "English three", used in Iranian high schools for third grade learners. It is published by the ministry of education and contains six units, each of which includes a text developed based on a given topic and followed by a set of exercises which mainly focuses on vocabulary and grammar. The subjects in this study were expected to cover each unit in two sessions as they had been offered a particularly intensive class held by schools' principal to help them get ready for their main English class. Therefore, the whole six units were covered in 12 sessions and the content of treatment was somehow based on the key words used in each unit.

C. Procedure

The piloted PET was given to three 30- member classes of participants to ensure they are homogenous in terms of their language proficiency. The result of a one way Anova confirmed the homogeneity of three classes. After making sure about the homogeneity of the three groups regarding their vocabulary knowledge as well, via one way ANOVA, the treatment phase was commenced. In all three classes, the teacher taught the reading passage and defined the key words in each text and answered the reading comprehension questions with the help of the students. In the experimental group A, the teacher created the word web to show the related words and ideas with respect to the key words of the previously instructed reading text. To make a word web, the teacher wrote a word chosen from the reading text in the center circle including its synonyms and antonyms (if any). This way, she drew a line out from the circle to create a link and wrote a related word to the center one. More links could be added to the major links to introduce some more related words. The figure below shows the word web sample provided for the key word, TV.

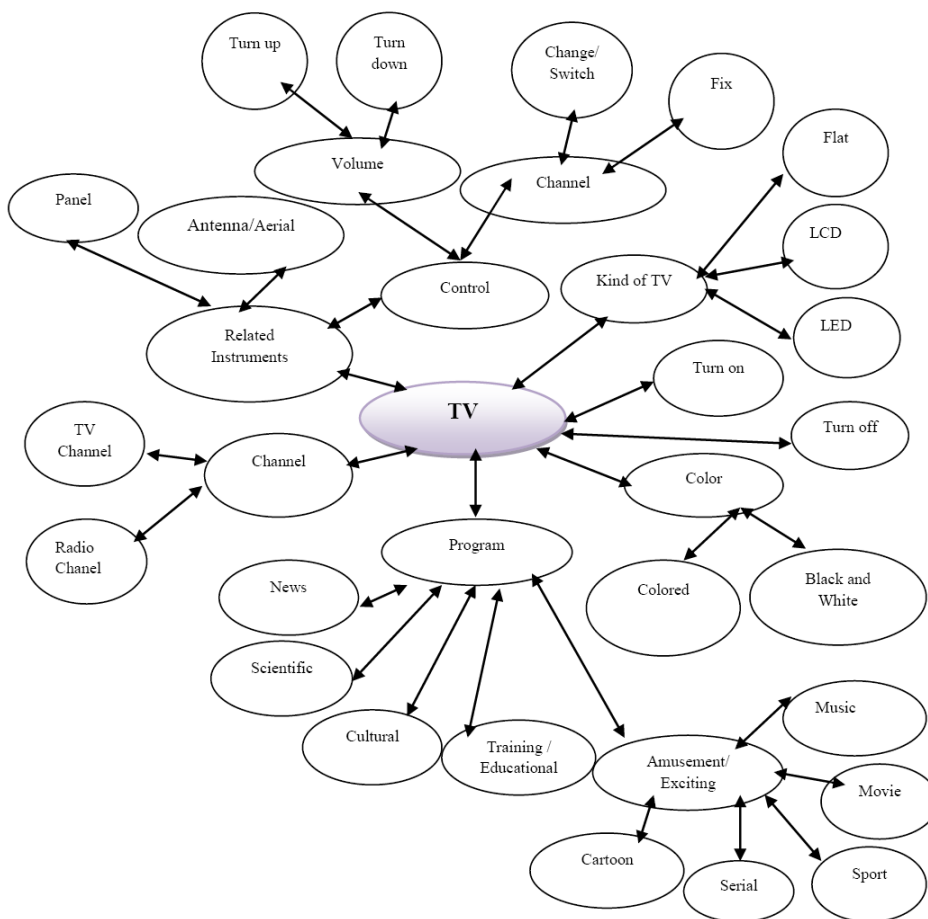


Figure. Word web sample drawn by the teacher for the key word, TV

In the second experimental group, word web strategy with project based learning (PBL) was employed. To this end, the teacher assigned students in six groups of five members in order to collaborate with each other and to do their project cooperatively. At the beginning of the treatment, the teacher briefed the participants on what they were expected to do, and introduced the procedures as well as the intended projects to be performed in the form of a word web. The teacher taught the new words to students through reading a passage of their text book in one session and for the next session she asked the six groups to draw their own web through wall paper or the power point to be performed in the class. Thus six word webs were presented in the following session, each related to one group. The presented projects in the form of word webs were compared by the teacher to find the new words suggested by each group. It is worth noting

that the teacher acted as a facilitator in the class and helped each group to explain about the new words when necessary or to correct their word webs in case of containing any errors.

In the control group, the teacher had the conventional way of teaching new words included in a reading book through giving definitions for the key words in one session and asking students to look up the new words in dictionary and to find and write their definitions, as well as its synonyms and antonyms (if there were any), for the next sessions. Then the students were asked to read aloud whatever they had looked up to be corrected by the teacher.

At the end of the 12 session treatment, the same 40-item researcher-made pretest of vocabulary was given to all three groups as the posttest to compare their performances and to see whether or not the given treatment had any significant influence on their vocabulary learning.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In order to answer the afore-mentioned research questions, a series of pertinent calculations and statistical routines were conducted and the following results were came up.

A. Pretesting

At the outset of the study, the piloted proficiency test (PET) was administered to 90 students who participated in the study. They were in three intact classes, each including thirty students. In order to make sure that the three groups manifested no significant difference in terms of their general language proficiency, a one-way ANOVA test was run. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of each group's scores for PET.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PET

PET at Outset	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
					Control	30		
Experimental one	30	38.1333	2.90936	.5311	37.0470	39.2197	32.00	42.00
Experimental two	30	37.9000	2.75869	.5036	36.8699	38.9301	32.00	42.00
Total	90	38.0111	2.74985	.2898	37.4352	38.5871	32.00	42.00

Before running ANOVA, the assumption of homogeneity of variances had to be checked. The result of Levene's test of equality variances showed that the variances among the three groups were not significant (Levene'sF (2,87) = .92, p> .05); thus the assumption was met. As it is evident from Table 2 (F(2,87) = .05, p = .95 > .05), the three groups were almost the same regarding the general English proficiency at the outset.

TABLE 2
ANOVA; PET AT THE OUTSET

PET at Outset	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.822	2	.411	.053	.948
Within Groups	672.167	87	7.726		
Total	672.989	89			

The piloted researcher-made vocabulary test was also administered to the homogenous study groups in order to make sure that the participants of the three groups were not significantly different from each other in terms of their vocabulary knowledge at the outset. Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics resulted from the test.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE PRETEST OF VOCABULARY AT THE OUTSET

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
					Control	30		
Experimental 1	30	9.2333	1.52414	.27827	8.6642	9.8025	6.00	12.00
Experimental 2	30	9.1000	1.39827	.25529	8.5779	9.6221	6.00	12.00
Total	90	9.2000	1.48551	.15659	8.8889	9.5111	6.00	13.00

In order to make sure that the three groups had no significant difference in terms of their vocabulary knowledge, the researcher decided to run a one-way ANOVA. Before running ANOVA, however, the normality of the distribution of scores had to be checked. To test the normalcy of distribution of score in three groups, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality was run. As displayed in Table 4, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov indices of normality were all significant (p < .05); hence normality of the present data was violated. Thus, the researcher decided to run non-parametric test of Kruskal Wallis.

TABLE 4.
TEST OF NORMALITY: VOCABULARY PRETEST

	Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Vocabulary at Outset	Control	.201	30	.003	.909	30	.014
	Experimental one	.161	30	.046	.950	30	.174
	Experimental two	.195	30	.005	.935	30	.068

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

As it is evident from Table 5, the three groups were almost the same ($p = .932 > .05$) in terms of their vocabulary knowledge at the beginning of the study. So, any differences in the knowledge of vocabulary at the end of the treatment could be attributed to the effects of treatments.

TABLE 5
KRUSKAL WALLIS TEST STATISTICS^{A,B}: VOCABULARY PRETEST

Chi-Square	.142
Df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.932
a. Kruskal Wallis Test	
b. Grouping Variable: Group	

B. Posttesting

The researcher administered the same test of vocabulary that was used as the pretest at the end of the treatment as the posttest. Followings are the descriptive statistics obtained from the results. The mean differences between three groups can be spied. The experimental group two had the largest mean (30.37), followed by the experimental group one ($M = 27.43$). The control group had obtained the lowest mean (24.47). Moreover, by calculating the skewness ratio (statistics/std. error) for each set of scores, it could be concluded that the normality of distribution in both experimental groups was violated. So, the researcher decided to run non-parametric tests to answer the research questions.

To test the null hypotheses of the study, the researcher conducted Kruskal Wallis test because, as mentioned above, the assumption of normality of distributions was violated. Table 6 shows the result of Kruskal Wallis test on scores obtained from vocabulary posttest by three groups. The result of Kruskal Wallis test showed that there was a significant difference ($p = .000 < .05$) among the performances of the three groups in vocabulary learning posttest.

TABLE 6
KRUSKAL WALLIS TEST STATISTICS^{A,B}: VOCABULARY POSTTEST

Vocabulary Learning Posttest	
Chi-Square	33.772
Df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000
a. Kruskal Wallis Test	
b. Grouping Variable: Group	

In order to test the first research hypothesis, a Mann-Whitney U test was run between the performances of control group and Experimental group one. As it is evident from Table 7, there was a significant difference ($Z = -.3.056$, $p = .002 < .05$) between the performances of two groups in the vocabulary learning posttest, indicating that the experimental group one, who received word web strategy without PBL significantly outperformed control group; thus the first null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE 7
MANN-WHITNEY U TEST STATISTICS^A: CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL ONE GROUP S' PERFORMANCES

Mann-Whitney U	244.500
Wilcoxon W	709.500
Z	-3.056
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.002
a. Grouping Variable: Group	

In order to test the second null hypothesis, a Mann-Whitney U test was run between the performances of control group and experimental group two. As displayed by Table 7, there was a significant difference ($Z = -5.616$, $p = .000 < .05$) between the performances of two groups in the vocabulary knowledge posttest, indicating that the experimental group two, who received word web strategy with PBL significantly outperformed control group; thus the second null hypothesis was also rejected.

TABLE 8
MANN-WHITNEY U TEST STATISTICS^A FOR THE POSTTEST; CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL TWO

Mann-Whitney U	71.500
Wilcoxon W	536.500
Z	-5.616
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

a. Grouping Variable: Group

In order to answer the third research question, a Mann-Whitney U test was run between the performances of Experimental groups one and two. As Table 9 shows, there was a significant difference ($Z = -3.102$, $p = .002 < .05$) between the performances of two groups on the vocabulary posttest, indicating that the experimental group two significantly outperformed experimental group one; thus the third null hypothesis was also rejected.

TABLE 9
MANN-WHITNEY U TEST STATISTICS^A FOR THE POSTTEST; EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS ONE AND TWO

Mann-Whitney U	241.000
Wilcoxon W	706.000
Z	-3.102
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.002

a. Grouping Variable: Group

C. Discussion

The result of the present study is somehow in line with those found by Cooper (1999) and Rahmawati (2011) who conducted the studies on the usefulness of word web technique on learners' reading comprehension and concluded that webbing is a good technique for students to learn and improve reading comprehension achievement to construct, organize and communicate the students' knowledge. This study's findings showed the enhancement of students' vocabulary learning as one of the components of reading comprehension as well.

With respect to the role of PBL in meaningful learning, the present findings support the findings of the previous research conducted by Shafaei (2011) who investigated a study on the effectiveness of using PBL on vocabulary learning. Similarly, the outcomes of this analysis indicated that PBL had a significant effect on learners' vocabulary learning. Moreover, the PBL group performed better than the control one. The present findings also support the findings of Zarei and SahamiGilani, (2013) who examined the various collaborative techniques on L2 learners. They found that word webbing was the best technique that had a significant effect on vocabulary learning.

In addition, the present findings support those of Soleimani, Rahimi, and Sadeghi's (2015) study that investigated the effects of PBL on learners' language performance, based on the factual information obtained from pre-test and post- test. The analysis of the collected data through out of this study confirm that, the PBL group's progress in all measured scopes were statistically significant. The researchers believe that using project-based learning in Iranian EFL courses positively affects the learners' reading ability and accelerates their vocabulary learning.

V. CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS

A. Findings

This research was an attempt to suggest two effective teaching aids, namely word webbing and project-based learning, for presenting vocabulary in EFL classrooms which might reinforce the learners' achievement. The results revealed that the participants in both experimental groups performed better than those in the control group.

Word Webbing, which is also known as semantic/concept mapping, gives students an opportunity to think deeply about the relationship between the terms being learned and the previously learned words in order to visualize them semantically and learn them meaningfully, accordingly. In other words, word webbing can support meaningful learning of vocabulary.

Project-based learning, on the other hand, can give the students the opportunity to practice their understanding on the instructed words through interacting and communicating with their peers in the groups. PBL is actually a student-driven method of instruction (Bell, 2010) that helps students organize their learning through creating their own projects. And finally, integrating word webbing with PBL is believed to reinforce learners' motivation as it enables them to make their own decisions and choices and to apply their creativity in their learning process. As a result, students could have more ownership over their learning and a deeper understanding of what they have been instructed (Bezon et al., 2007). In other words, assigning the students to do their projects collaboratively would lead to a different type of learning in which the learners share their understanding and the responsibility of the learning process.

B. Implications

The present study findings are hoped to provide EFL teachers with applicable and motivating techniques for presenting vocabulary to their learners. Correspondingly, teacher trainers may devise and plan courses through which teacher trainees become familiar with how to employ word web strategy with and without PBL which best helps students improve their vocabulary learning process.

The opportunity to work in a cooperative learning environment, on the other hand, can help the students to learn and practice a new and different way of learning that ultimately enhances their vocabulary achievement. Moreover, involving learners in word webbing can help them to learn more meaningfully through giving them an active role in their learning process as well as activating their visualization and enabling them to establish the relationship between the terms being learned.

Syllabus designers and materials developers may also wish to enhance the quality of the materials with appropriate tasks that familiarize learners with vocabulary learning through word web strategy and add more interest and creativity to students' learning process. Moreover, requiring students to do tasks that could be accomplished as projects may enhance both cooperative and meaningful learning among L2 learners.

C. Suggestions for Further Research

The present study employed WWS with and without PBL to investigate their effect on EFL learners' vocabulary learning. Further studies may be needed to investigate the effectiveness of the same learning aids on the learning of other language skills or components. The study was carried out among female students. A similar research could have been done with male learners to see whether the gender would be a significant factor or not. And finally, this research was conducted with young EFL learners at public schools; the same experiment could be carried out with other age groups to see whether or not age is a determining factor.

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Construction of Hybrid Identity in Samuel Selvon's *The Lonely Londoners* and *Moses Ascending*

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Abstract—Samuel Selvon (1923-1994) is an outstanding figure in Caribbean literature. His Moses trilogy is very famous because of his preoccupation with issues of identity and culture. His two representative works *The Lonely Londoners* and *Moses Ascending* giving a vivid description of Creole immigrants' life in London, have a far-reaching influence on postcolonial literature. The thesis attempts to employ Homi Bhabha's theory of hybridity to elaborate the formation of cultural identity. The thesis consists of three parts. Part One is Introduction, which gives a brief introduction to the author, his two works, the theoretical framework. Part Two presents the dilemma in which the Creoles have to face on cultural identity. In the aspect of cultural identity, the Creoles experience the process from identical crisis to the construction of hybrid identity. Part Three is Conclusion. Based on the above analyses, the thesis draws the conclusion that different cultures can influence each other. The effective way to solve identical crisis is to build the hybrid identity

Index Terms—Samuel Selvon, *The Lonely Londoners*, *Moses Ascending*, hybrid identity

I. INTRODUCTION

Broadly applied in different kinds of English texts written by postcolonial writers like Lamming and Naipaul, Homi Bhabha's theory of Hybridity is essential to conduct postcolonial literature. His major theories have been elaborated in his book *The Location of Culture* (1994). In his opinion, "Hybridity is the sign of the productivity of colonial power, its shifting forces and fixities; it is the name for the strategic reversal of the process of domination through disavowal..." (Bhabha, 1994, p.159) He gives a definition of hybridity as "the name of this displacement of value from symbol to sign that causes the dominant discourse to split along the axis of its power to be representative, authoritative." (Bhabha, 1994, p.159)

Cultural identity is a person's essential attribute. There is an obvious transition in cultural identity of the Creole immigrants from *The Lonely Londoners* to *Moses Ascending*. Generally speaking, the Creole immigrants have firstly met with a severe identity crisis. Then they begin to experience the hybridization in cultural identity. During this period, they gradually get assimilated by London culture and keep negotiating between their original culture and host culture. Finally they have constructed a hybrid identity. As a result of a hybrid identity, they are both people of Creole and London. They still keep a lot of their Creole traditions. Meanwhile, they speak English, live a Londonized life and are deeply influenced by western lifestyles, ideas and values.

II. THE CONSTRUCTION OF HYBRID IDENTITY

A. *The Crisis of Identity* — *The Lonely Londoners*

The Creole immigrants living in London always suffer not only the physical displacement but also psychological isolation and uncertainty, which is definitely a dilemma for them. Selvon's "innovative use of the Trinidadian vernacular enables him to express the nuanced sensibilities of a diverse and fragmented immigrant population in London, post-World War II". (Okawa, 2013, p.18) They are in a dilemma where the values, languages, ritual habits and social needs are totally different from theirs. Most protagonists have experienced the cultural shock. Then they have to face the conflict between Creole culture and London culture. On one hand, the London culture keeps permeating into every detail of their life all the time in the aspects of social status, living style and consuming way. They are eager to be recognized by the local Londoners. So they comply this trend. On the other hand, they are desperately trying to keep their traditional culture. They want to hold the dignity of their own culture. A Saturday night dance at St Pancras Hall is an impressive example. Moses's friend, Harris, organizes the dancing party. "An example of how the Caribbean culture of calypso dance and steel band music has been transported to the city of London". (Okawa, 2013, p.18-19)

In *The Lonely Londoners*, Galahad locates himself as the universal subject of the city. He comes to London full of dreams and ambitions. In his opinion, London is a city paved with gold. It can provide a lot of possibilities. But after living and working in London for a while, he experiences the cultural shock and racial discrimination. He begins to have the awareness of his status of an outsider and the sense of alienation and difference. With the social supremacy, the immigrants' subordinate cultural identity is under the shadow of the dominant identity. The dominant London-culture

identity is hegemonic and arrogant. It despises Creole culture and tradition, endeavoring to deprive all the factors of Creole culture and forms a cultural supremacy. Under the overwhelming influence of the dominant London culture, Creole culture is struggling. The Creole identity exists roughly. All these immigrants are facing the identical crisis: to stick to their original cultural identity or to rebuild the new cultural identity, becoming one of Londoners? What's more, these local Londoners will or will not admit their new identity and treat them as their fellows? Samuel Selvon describes the experience of Galahad in detail. His encounter shows their dilemma of identity and the attitude from the host culture.

But the child mother uneasy as they stand up there on the pavement with so many people around: if they was alone she might have talked a little, and ask Galahad what part of the world he come from, but instead she pull the child along and she look at Galahad and give a sickly sort of smile, and the old Galahad, knowing how it is, smile back and walk on. (Selvon, 1985, p.87)

From this we see the protagonists begin to present themselves as an out stander. The Creole identity gets reduced to the corporeality of his pigmentation. Galahad even scrutizes his black body.

And Galahad watch the colour of his hand, and talk to it, saying, "colour, is you that causing all this, you know. Why the hell you can't be blue or red or green, if you can't be white? You know is you that cause misery in the world. Is not me, you know, is you!" (Selvon, 1985, p.88)

This is the first time Galahad has realized his problem of identity. He is now facing a dangling identity. Before this time, he hasn't realized that his trouble in job-hunting, in living all come from this. Evidently, identity dominates even the most intimate relation in the city, making these immigrants difficult to blend into the society and to have a real life. This is the same with other people.

The identity crisis also finds its expression in their relationship with females. In general, white girls seldom fall in love with them. Most Creole men only can pay for white prostitutes. In everyday life, those London girls are unwilling to be with them. Even the girl herself would like to, her parents would never allow this. Bart is a typical example. When his girl takes him home to meet her parents, her parents have showed all kinds of hostility: shouted at him and asked him to get out.

Another character, Harris from Trinidad, adores and respects western values, attempting to blend himself in the dominant culture. He goes to the opera with the principal aim of mixing with the upper classes and being seen as cultured. He is described as "A fellar who likes to play ladedda, and he like English customs and things, he does be polite and say thank you and he does get up in the bus and the tube to let woman sit down, which is a thing even them Englishmen don't do." (Selvon, 1985, p.111) book *The Location of Culture* (1994). From his point of view, it is inadequate to use center or margin to define the relationship between the colonists and the colonized because they are mutually exclusive and depend on each other. He notes that "Hybridity is the sign of the productivity of colonial power, its shifting forces and fixities; it is the name for the strategic reversal of the process of domination through disavowal..." (Bhabha, 1994, p.159) Bhabha defines hybridity as "the name of this displacement of value from symbol to sign that causes the dominant discourse to split along the axis of its power to be representative, authoritative." (Bhabha, 1994, p.159) Harris who wants to be identified as white and English is very uncomfortable among these immigrants. He represents a subjectivity that identifies absolutely with the dominant culture, leaving no room for his own culture. Harris keeps trying to build a space between London culture and Creole culture. Harris is a cultural broker who uses Homi Bhabha's theory of "in-between space". (Bhabha, 1994, p.85) The difficulty of this in-between position is definitely the factor that makes the Creoles and other black immigrants racially ambiguous and puzzled with their cultural identity.

B. *Building a Hybrid Identity — Moses Ascending*

Under the overwhelming influence of London culture, the Creole immigrants yield to the metropolitan culture. Their identification is actually based on the assimilation, then from the negotiation to hybridity. Some of them are abandoned by the host society; these people have to leave London and go back to their hometown. The rest of them are gradually assimilated by the London culture. Some of them even live a life that belongs to London middle class like Moses. In *The Lonely Londoners*, the plot and structure are developed around two lines: Moses and his fellows. And Selvon focuses on description of Moses in *Moses Ascending* (Selvon, 2008). From Moses and his fellows' experiences, we can gradually recognize the subtle change of their cultural identities and get an understanding of the hybrid identity. After all kinds of identity crisis, these immigrants begin to realize they should construct a new identity by negotiating the Creole culture and London culture. Moses himself is a typical example in constructing hybrid identity. He "typifies to my mind all that happened among that older generation and he also spoke in the voice, in the idiom of the people which was the only way that he could speak to express himself. I think that in spite of all his presumptions to be English, that he still remains basically a man from the Caribbean". (Nasta, 1985, p.5-6)

There are two aspects in Moses's construction of hybrid identity. The first aspect is his shift in living habit. When he first comes to London, he enjoys the feeling of a big community and a big family. He attaches great importance to brotherhood. So every time the Creole fellows come to London, he goes to pick them up. He helps them to adapt to London life, a life away from his culture as soon as possible. He organizes the gathering every week in his living place. But after years' living in London, he begins to become independent and begins his own life. Just like the Londoners around, their lives are centered on themselves. They care more about themselves. When Moses decides to move into the

new house, he is going to free from his old fellows and free from his Creole identity. In his new location, he is in a hybrid situation: he is “dwelling and traveling: traveling-in-dwelling, dwelling-in-traveling”. (Clifford, 1992, p.108)

The second aspect in Moses’s construction of hybrid identity is reflected in his relationship with women. In *The Lonely Londoners*, Moses doesn’t have any connection with women. His view of women is traditional and rude. He never appreciates the beauty or wisdom of women. Women mean nothing to him. He could barely imagine that he could develop any relationship with women. His opinions towards women are confined to the Creole circle. At that time, the Creole women around him are not well educated. He doesn’t have any chance to develop any relationship with white females. But in *Moses Ascending*, he begins to know how to appreciate a woman from different angle. He begins to run after the woman he likes with strong passion. He even has relationship with a white woman. All of these behaviors result from his awareness of new identity, which has triggered his masculine strength. Brenda is a typical new woman, a representative of beautiful and brilliant woman. Her physical appearance illustrates her gender identity. Her ability, strong willingness and wisdom illustrate her cultural identity. These qualities arouse Moses’s dominant desire, making him fall in love. But Moses’s affection towards Brenda is not merely sexual. He helps Brenda in her process of dream pursuing out of his appreciation. He donates his money to her party and newspaper. He offers his house for her to have political meetings. And finally he takes part in the political activities she has organized. His viewpoints of women become more open, complete and mature just like the London gentlemen. After his passion towards Brenda runs out, he knows Jeannie, Bob’s girl friend, Jeannie, a white girl. He appreciates this girl and has subtle affection for her. He makes Jeannie live together with them in his house. He thinks that the atmosphere of the house is good when Jeannie is in. He enjoys this atmosphere. Different from the traditional Creole women, Brenda and Jeannie represent the new type of London women. He begins to develop new relationship with these women. This process also helps him to reconstruct his hybrid cultural identity.

III. CONCLUSION

According to the Theory of Identity, the immigrants are always seen as “the other” (Bhabha, 1994: 36) by local people. Western world imagines and describes the situation of the colonized subjectively and emotionally. From their point of view, the images of immigrants are associated with words like poor, savage, uncivilized and illiterate. The white people’s sense of superiority and distorted view of the immigrants are the primary reason of every form of prejudice, gradually leading to cultural barrier. Although most of the immigrants want to maintain their Creole cultural identity when they first arrive in London, they cannot stick to Creole tradition any more. The metropolis despises their culture. The immigrants are isolated from the mainstream society and begin to experience every kind of discrimination. They have to directly face their problem of cultural identity for their traditional identity becomes more and more challenging. In order to seek a sense of belonging, the immigrants start to adjust to the traditions and the life-style norms of the white culture. Their association with the traditional Creole culture increasingly weakens. They begin to seek a new identity, not like their old identity, or like the local Londoners. And this change is inevitable. Cultural identity is not something fixed or stable, but a matter of becoming. In Homi Bhabha’s opinion, that is a negotiation between the immigrant culture and the host culture. During the process of the negotiation, a new different culture forms which is often described as “hybrid”. (Bhabha, 1994, p.100)

Trapped between the London culture and Creole culture, “the issue of multiculturalism is put on the agenda”. (Kalpakli, 2008, p.245) In order to survive physically and realize their dreams, these immigrants have formed a hybrid identity. On one hand, they keep accepting the assimilation of the host culture and changed their original identity positively. On the other hand, they have rebelled against Western culture when they are in dilemma. they won’t treat themselves as complete Londoners. Deep in their hearts, there flows the Creole blood. Their Creole identity is their source of power and comfort. As a result of a hybrid identity, they are both people of Creole and London. They speak English, live a Londonized life and are deeply influenced by western lifestyles, ideas and values. The two novels engage with “the construction of black identity as formed through the perspective of the dominant culture in Britain in the fifties”. (Bentley, 2003, p.42) Selvon provides a hybridized narrative that expresses “the human’s spirit for a cross-cultural relationship”. (Glissant, 1989, p.98)

First of all, the hybrid identity helps the Creole immigrants to construct their new cultural identity. On one hand, they accept the assimilation from the London culture. On the other hand, they struggle to keep the treasure of the Creole culture. As immigrant of hybrid identity, they are both London people and Creole people. They begin to live like Londoners. They begin to do some decent jobs. They begin to have relationships with white girls. They begin to have their own industry in London. They even begin to pursue their different rights just like ordinary local people. But at the same time, they are not totally Londonized because their inner resistance and their identification of their original identity. We can say that hybridity is a bridge between host culture and home culture.

Secondly, the construction of hybrid identity aims to get rid of the cultural barrier. It is inevitable. Although most of the immigrants coming to London want to keep their national tradition and cultural identity at first, they gradually find it too hard to stick to and finally give up. At the very beginning, in order to maintain their culture and identity, they live together as a community. They gather to have a meeting every week. They help each other to look for jobs and living place. They take care of those who just arrive in London to get familiar with this city. They are desperately attempting to maintain their origin language, habits, and values. They treasure their boyhood friendship and their hometown. This

kind of affection unites them. They form a kind of cultural circle apart from London culture. They differentiate themselves from the white people during the process of identification. But as time goes by, they find it impossible for them to stick to their Creole identity because London culture is the mainstream and the local Londoners belong to the ruling status. These immigrants feel the cultural alien and cultural isolation even the cultural threatening. They are kept away from the mainstream and experiencing the cultural discrimination by people in London. For the sake of living and pursuing a sense of belonging, they change their way. They begin to adjust to the traditions and life-style norms of the white London culture. Their attachment to the traditional Creole culture weakens simultaneously. Thus, we may say that cultural identity is not fixed and unchangeable. It is a matter of becoming. According to Homi Bhabha's view of identity, this is a negotiation between the immigrant culture and the host culture, during the process of negotiation, a new different culture forms which is the hybridity. Homi Bhabha regards the hybrid identity as a product of cultural translation. The transformation of cultural identities is inevitable. But these immigrants couldn't attach to one identity and reject another. And there is no need and no possibility for them to form such a stable and single identity.

Thirdly, the emergency of hybrid identity conforms to the contemporary cultural trend and has many kinds of strengths. Firstly, hybrid identity helps the immigrants rapidly adapt to life and customs in London. At the beginning, they are unwilling to be Londoners, living in small groups isolated from mainstream, which is negative for their own development. After they really accept this new pattern of identity, they assimilate into London society. They endeavor to build their own life. On many aspects of life, hybrid identity helps them experience a decisive transform. Secondly, hybrid identity helps them combine the strengths of two cultures, free from the control of the superiority of the white's culture. Hybrid identity is built on the basis of the original cultural identity. This is the intrinsic part any one of them could never give up. Immigrants who have experienced two kinds of cultures can be more reasonable to both Creole culture and London culture. Keeping the good and tossing the wrong from both sides help them improve themselves and step forward. Last but not least, hybrid identity endows them with a sense of belonging. Immigrants who leave their hometown and live in a new environment are always feeling insecure and homesick. They don't have an identity in London. Hybrid identity is a fixed certificate of identification. They are to some extent accepted. Hence they get the sense of belonging, taking London for their second hometown.

Nowadays, many former colonized countries are struggling to get decolonized. They want to get away from both political control and the control of colonial economy, history, culture and psychology. The colonial powers have not only built their political supremacy, but also brought their racial superiority into the colonized places. They disdained all the original things in colonized places and aimed to destroy them and replace them with their own culture. Their ultimate purpose is to establish the cultural superiority and implant their own values. The decolonization of culture and psychology is rather difficult. The centralized ideological culture and colonial rule have left a deep imprint on the colonized people. Although all the colonized countries have successfully got rid of the colonial rule, they haven't got the real independence. Because of the deep influence from the colonial power, they begin to lose their original traditions and national cultures. But the Creole immigrants in these two novels have given us confidence. They keep struggling against the negative effects from the colonial culture as well as accepting the positive aspects. They have launched on a series of hybrid activities. Based on their Creole traditions and culture, they keep forging on. They use their own experiences to make the process of hybridization more persuasive and feasible. They not only keep the traditional Creole identity but have some characteristic of London people. In a word, they are influenced by London culture as well as keeping their own culture and values. As an immigrant of hybridity, they are both London people and Creole people. But they are not totally Londonized because of their inner resistance and their sense of belonging to their original culture. Most colonized countries have walked a long way in the process of decolonization and achieved some preliminary results. But decolonization is an arduous task whether in politics, economy or in culture and psychology. And the trend of cultural globalization even makes decolonization more difficult. How to preserve their own culture as well as conform to the theme of cultural globalization is the way out for the former colonized people. Creole immigrants' example has turned out to be practicable. In Homi Bhabha's opinion, hybridity has coordinate function upon different culture. It makes cultural diversity possible and helps form a cultural prosperity nowadays in our world. Hybridity helps them find adequate room in London society both materially and mentally.

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Language and Power: The Use of Persuasive Techniques in Iran and U.S. President Speeches

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Abstract—The present article is about language and power, focuses on the speechmaking skills, and using persuasive techniques such as Simile and metaphor, Mixed metaphor or simile, Extended metaphor, Allusion, Lists of three, Repetition, Parallelism, Puzzled or redundant questions, Alliteration and Wordplay. For the sake of better analysis certain elements of this ability, a comparison between Iran President Mr. Rouhani and U. S. President Mr. Obama is made. Two speeches of two presidents are selected. The first two are in the same topic and the second two are in different topics. Each president is a strong personality in his own right, both leaders have manifested this ability and managed to persuade the masses about the correctness of their political steps; however their using of persuasive techniques differ dramatically, as it is attempted to support by analysis in this article. The results show that, usually they use the same techniques but Dr. Rouhani use more persuasive techniques than President Obama does. Dr. Rouhani uses Alliteration and President Obama uses Metaphor more than other techniques in their speeches. It can be said that using persuasive techniques is culture based.

Index Terms—political language, persuasive techniques, Iran President, Hassan Rouhani, U.S. President, Barack Obama

I. INTRODUCTION

Chilton (as cited in Rozina & Karapetjana, 2009) defined language “as the universal capacity of humans in all societies to communicate while by politics he means the art of governance”. Hay (1997) believed that power is the most fundamental and universal concept of political analysis Rozina and Karapetjana (2009) had taken it for granted that the strategy which one person takes to get the other person do what s/he intends to be done is linguistic strategy.

Politicians may archive their political goals through physical coercion but there is another way that is more tactful. Using persuasive techniques to persuade people to act in special way they intend (Jalilifar & Alavi, 2011). A speech can function as an effective weapon if it is effectively given and the person wants to give a speech is prepared to present arguments. How to make it, reflects his or her ability (Kasanova, 2013).

Fairclough (1996) considered discourse as social practice because he believed that language is a part of society, is a social practice and is a socially conditioned process. On the other hand, Murcia & O'Donnell (2011) defined “Power” as the ability of an entity such as company,

Individual, social group, etc. to make change or to keep things as they are. They also believed that two different uses of language should be considered when discussing the power of language, the first one is language as public discourse and the second one is language as interpersonal communication. The former refers to the language used in public print media, television and radio and the web. The latter refers to the language used for communication between people. Fairclough (2001) stated that there are two ways of exercise power – through physical force and manufacture of consent. The first one is time-consuming, but the other one “relates to convincing people to accept things as they are” is preferred for exercising power. The public media uses the manufacturing consent as the most important vehicle for exercising power because the media let contact with large numbers of people. A political leader’s idiolect as Kasanova (2013) stated encompasses his or her communication policies and strategies, metaphors, repetitive mechanisms, obfuscation methods, etc. This article is going to explore various persuasive techniques used in the speeches of the two presidents of Iran and United states.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Few studies have been down to show how power is used in conversation and other forms of talk between people, they have set out to explain important sociolinguistic conventions and how these conventions distributes power unequally (Fairclough, 1996). “The number of speech analysis is less than the total number generated” (Morand, 2000, 235). The

power of language means language in the service of power but it also means language can undermine power. On the other hand, language conveys power of domination and at the same time undermines it. The relation of language and power is ambivalent (Weib & Schwietring, 2015). As Bev (2008) stated language is a powerful tool in politics and politicians are its users for bad and good purposes. The study of language and power has advantages. It helps people to interact more effectively and if one be aware of power strategies cannot be influenced by them (Murcia, 2011). For understanding how power transfers through language, one should be aware of theoretical approach, which includes pragmatics and speech act theory, lexis and semantics, structures, forms of address and phatic tokens (Moore, 2003). Thompson (2005) believed that the more words are used to say something the less power those words have. For using lexis formal, informal are important, mood and tone can be very persuasive. In using grammar standard or non-standard can be powerful and persuasive in different contexts ("language and power", 2015). Thompson (2005) said that "I" is a super-charged word I have, I choose, I love, and when someone feels powerful employs these kinds of "I" and when s/he feels less powerful waters down his/her words by saying, "I do not know" or "I am not sure". Moore (2003) introduced ten persuasive techniques that include *Simile and metaphor, Mixed metaphor or simile, Extended metaphor, Allusion, Lists of three, Repetition, Parallelism, Puzzled or redundant questions, Alliteration and Wordplay*. Metaphor is a figure of speech that for rhetorical effect relates two unrelated things ("Metaphor", 2015). On the other hand simile is a figure of speech that directly compares two things through the use connecting words ("Simile". n.d.). Extended metaphor is developing a metaphor to make an argument. The powerful technique, which is referring to a phrase that the audience already knows, is called allusion. Lists of three refer to three- part structures that are memorable. Repeating a key idea is a useful technique, which is called repetition. When a sentence being divided into two parts is called parallelism, which may be synonymous or antithetic. It is a good idea to ask a question or series of questions to introduce a topic for speech this technique, which is a common technique, is called puzzled or redundant questions. When somebody uses the same initial consonant, it can be more effective and is called alliteration. The last technique using same words but with slight differences is called wordplay. (Moore, 2003). Kananova (2013) in his research selected two U.S. Presidents, George Walter Bush and Barack Obama, the mother tongue of them is English, therefore he had to consider specific style of the language that used by English- speaking politicians.

Speeches by George W. Bush set him apart from his opponents' postures and highlighted issues he deemed important. He frequently included in his speeches the American public and American citizens. He liberally used metaphors galore that subliminally impacts U.S. citizens, and used them for his selfish purpose. On the other hand, Obama does not attempt to manifest the correctness of his political moves by strictly sequestering himself from his opponents or partners; he is rather conciliatory in expressing his positions (Kasanova, 2013, p.72).

In another study, Horvath (2009) examines the persuasive strategies of President Obama in his speeches the results show that President Obama mostly uses pragmatism, liberalism, inclusiveness, acceptance of religious and ethnic diversity and unity. The most important words used by him are nation, new and America. He used personal pronoun we, which is an evidence of his perception of the American society and a need for unity, perceived in the time of national peril.

The characteristic of language that is used by politicians is different because its purpose is different. When they interact with society, their purposes may vary. Sometimes they want to persuade voters to vote, to make people accept their politics or they may use particular language when they are answering journalists. Parliamentary language also has some features such as special lexicon and forms of address, special structures, rules for taking and holding turns. But in some cases, parliamentary language violate maxims of conversation in this case other participants do not assume that speakers are telling the truth, speaking clearly or with relevance (Moore, 2003).

Dorcas (2011) in his research on stylistic analysis revealed that the specific choice of words, creative use of phonology and using correct structure together make meaning and communication. He introduced five levels of stylistic analysis: phonology that is the ways in which speech sounds are organized in English. The second one is graphology, which deals with word graphical process. Morphology is the third level and is concerned with forms. The fourth level is lexico-syntactic occurs along the syntagmatic axis. The last one is cohesion that is grammatical and lexical relationship within a text or sentence. Murcia (2011) believed that when one wants to study language and power, he should be able to distinguish public power and personal power. The former refers to the ability of shaping public opinion it means keep or changes the social reality, and controlled by institutions. The latter refers to change or keep one's local social reality.

Dennis (1996) defined language power as a measure of one's ability to communicate effectively in a given language, usually in a language rather than native one. Language power means ability to speak and be understood and to listen and understand ("language power", n.d.). Kroes (2012) believed that the power of rhetoric caused Barack Obama enter into White house. For American people, as Alimand Geneva (2012) stated, it did not matter how many times President Obama said that he was not a Muslim. Or how many times he showed his birth certificate. On the other hand, they did not want to know what he said they want to know how he said it, Loh (2012) stated that Obama in his speeches usually uses stories and personal anecdotes, gratitude and over-flowing humility, inspiration and amazing sense of intimacy, rallies for solidarity and empathy for diversity. Bev (2008) compared two US presidents' speech, President Barack Obama and president George W. Bush. He understood politicians' rhetoric might serve good and bad intentions. President Barack Obama was able to use hopeful rhetoric while rising political star, but Bush's rhetoric completely sounded self-righteous that placed the United States at its lowest points of popularity. Thompson (2005) believed that by understanding the power of language, we could make conscious, insightful choices about how we interpret others and express ourselves. Murcia (2011) stated that power in public discourse refers to the power of institutions within the society, and how these institutions keep their dominance using language. One of the important powers is to control the information. For example, one should decide on what gets into the press, how it should be presented. Public media shapes public opinion and personal power stems from personal language competence, social roles and social relationships. Moore (2003) introduced two kinds of power influential power such as advertising, politics, media, and culture and instrumental power such as law, education business, and management. Weib and Schwietering (2015) stated all power must finally use language. This understanding of language is defined as instrumental power, which means using language for applying power. In this sense, the command of language can become a means of power such as political rhetoric, ideology. This power may extend from large political context, from the style of speaking and thinking to the small senses of everyday life such as the arts of persuading through advertising.

Rozina and Karapetjana (2009) conducted a research to explore allusion, metonymy, and metaphor in political rhetoric. He concluded that linguistic manipulation can be regarded as an influential instrument of political rhetoric.

Moor (2003) believed that people should be able to refer to real examples when they want to know how power is exercised through language.

Andy Hamilton in an episode of a radio sitcom set in Hell said that one of the characters is "shaking like Millennium Bridge" which is a simile and the other has the "willpower of Bill Clinton at a cheerleaders convention" that is metaphor. Both examples were topical in 2000, which are assumed to know by audience. Sometimes speakers may mix metaphors intentionally. Shakespeare did this, when Hamlet suggested, "to take arms against a sea of troubles" the people may see it as a metaphor of an impossible struggle. In another example, John F. Kennedy used extended metaphor by saying, "The energy, the faith, the devotion which we bring to this endeavour will light our country and all who serve it, and the glow from that fire can truly light the world." Ronald Reagans used allusion when he borrowed an image from John Gillespie Magee's poem "surlly bonds of earth" to explain disaster in 1986. King James Version (as cited in Moor, 2003) used lists of three when he said "And now abide the faith, hope, charity, these three...". Harold Wilson (as cited in Moor, 2003) used Repetition technique when during the 1974 UK General Election Campaign, said "this election is not about the miners; not about the militants; not about the power of the unions..." The following is an example of synonymous parallelism from George W. Bush's speech about US history "...the story of a power that went into the world to protect but not possess, to defend but not to conquer". When it is read, it should have a pause after possess.

This question is example of puzzled or redundant questions "How can I get involved?" which is asked in the Welcome to the Labour party a booklet that gives information to a new member. Alliteration is the technique, which was used by Winston Cherrchill in his speech on Nazi party as "the grisly gang who work your wicked will." When Vladimir Nabokov in his essay on a book used this sentence "... is just low enough to provoke a past master's chuckle and just high enough not to make a post-master frawn." He uses word play technique.

III. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This article is going to show how power is communicated through language. To do so, the authors investigate two speeches given by each of presidents of Iran, U.S. one speech is in the same topic, and the other is in different one. Kasanova (2013) believed that although the strategies and the language of each president may differ widely, the goal of the political communication is the same; all of them try to gain public support for their views. "In the long run politicians crave for political power" (p. 62). By imposing laws, taxes, and bureaucratic systems, politicians use instrumental power, but by trying to influence people to vote for them, they use influential power. Rozina and Karapetjana (2009) proposed that in some social activities such as politics and law both kinds of power may be used at the same time.

Authors want to know:

- 1- Is there any difference between using the persuasive techniques between the two presidents?
- 2- Which persuasive techniques of language do the Iran president and U.S. president use?
- 3- Who uses more techniques that are persuasive in his speech?

4- Among the persuasive techniques, which of them is mostly used by Dr. Rouhani and which of them is mostly used by President Obama?

“Every human being’s personality, and thus also politics is unique, and the same holds true of every person’s language” (Kasanova, 2013, p.62).

IV. METHOD

Procedure

The theoretical framework has been derived from Moore (2003) and the methodology of this research has applied general principles of qualitative research, and it has been based on the discourse analysis. As this research intends to analyze selected persuasive techniques applied in political speeches, it focuses on Simile and metaphor, Mixed metaphor or simile, Extended metaphor, Allusion, Lists of three, Repetition, Parallelism, Puzzled or redundant questions, Alliteration and Wordplay. For the purposes of this study, the researcher has made use of speeches of two presidents. Two speeches of two presidents (Iran and United States) are selected. The first two speeches are in the same topic on Iran Nuclear Agreement and the second two are in the different topics, Dr. Rouhani’s speech on 27th book fair and President Obama’s speech on American hostages. The speeches are listened completely to choose the persuasive techniques precisely after that the transcribed version of each speech are investigated. The analysis is done to analyze the corpus. The findings compared to find that whether employing persuasive techniques differ by Iran’ president and United States’ president. For comparing the number and drawing chart Excel software has been used.

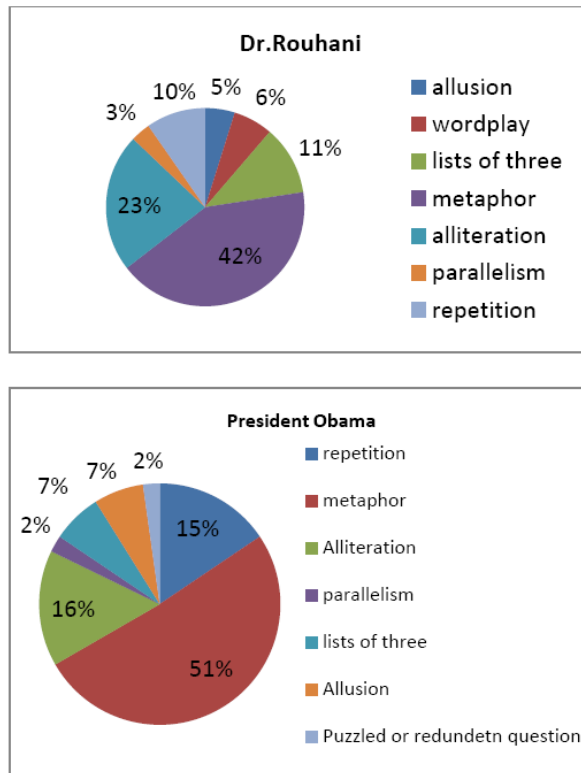


Figure 1: Dr. Rouhani’s speech and President Obama’s speech given in the same topic

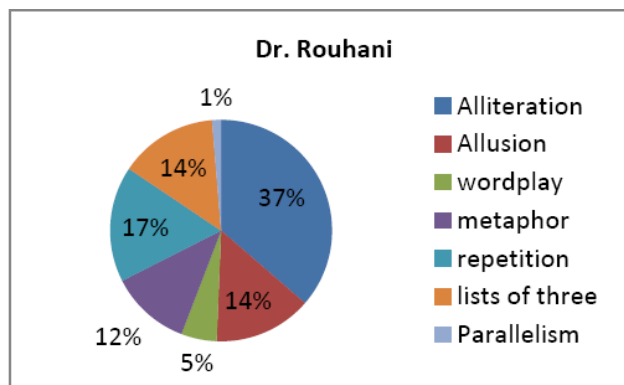


Figure 2: Dr. Rouhani’s speech on 27th book fair

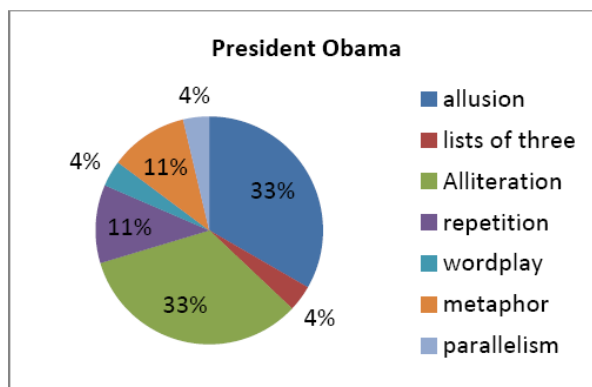


Figure 3: President Obama’s speech on American hostages

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Power in this research refers to the power of dominant institutions within society, and how they use this power through language. Persuasive techniques as Moore (2003) introduced are simile and metaphor, mixed metaphor or simile, extended metaphor, allusion, lists of three, repetition, parallelism, puzzled or redundant questions, alliteration and wordplay.

In order to answer the research questions, results obtained from the analysis are demonstrated as follows:

TABLE 1:
THE FREQUENCY OF MOST USED OF PERSUASIVE TECHNIQUES IN THE SAME TOPIC

tech	allu	wo	li	me	alli	pa	re	puz
Iran	3	4	7	26	14	2	6	
US	3		3	23	7	1	7	1

TABLE 2:
THE FREQUENCY OF MOST USED OF PERSUASIVE TECHNIQUES IN THE DIFFERENT TOPICS

tech	Allu	wo	li	me	alli	pa	re
Iran	11	4	11	9	28	1	13
US	9	9	1	3	9	1	3

TABLE 3:
THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TWO PRESIDENTS IN USING PERSUASIVE TECHNIQUES

tech	allu	wo	li	me	alli	pa	re	puz
Iran	14	8	18	35	42	3	19	
US	12	9	4	26	16	2	10	1

There is no significant difference between the two presidents in using persuasive techniques. Both of them used allusion, wordplay, lists of three, metaphor, alliteration, parallelism, repetition and none of them used simile and extended metaphor. The only difference is in the using of puzzled or redundant questions that president Obama used but Dr. Rouhani did not. On the same topic the Table 1 shows that they use almost the same technique with rather the same frequencies. Metaphor is the technique with the highest frequency for both of them. While on different topics Table 2 shows that although they employ same techniques, the frequencies are a bit different.

In order to answer the third question, the total numbers of using the techniques by two presidents are counted. The finding shows that Dr. Rouhani used them more in his speeches than president Obama did. Dr. Rouhani used 139 times while president Obama used 80 times. Alliteration is the technique, which Dr. Rouhani frequently uses on the other hand metaphor, is the technique, which President Obama mostly uses. The results show that using persuasive techniques are cultured based as Moore (2003) believed culture influences people's thinking and seeing the world which has direct impact on their language forms. For example, in this research the considerable differences between using the specific techniques is important and shows that culture affect languages. Dr. Rouhani used lists of three and alliteration more than that of president Obama did.

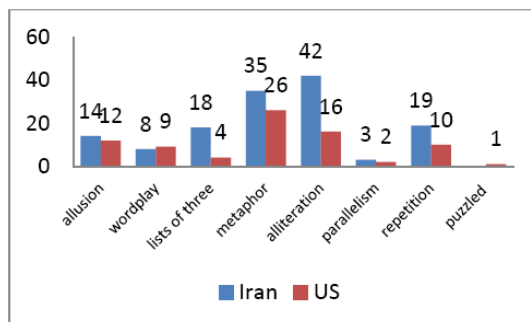


Figure 4: the comparison between two presidents in using persuasive techniques

VI. CONCLUSION

It is not surprising which the language applied in the political speech is rich in the use of persuasive technique. The two presidents, selected for the purpose of present article, are singular personalities capable of influencing developments on the national and international politics. “nothing else could be in place of a right and appropriate use of language in order to achieve the purpose of informing or stirring up the emotion of listeners or readers and making a striking impression on them” (Dorcas, 2011). The results show that both presidents use almost the same techniques when they are giving speech and Dr. Rouhani uses persuasive techniques more than president Obama does. The technique, which is mostly used by Dr. Rouhani is Alliteration and for president Obama is Metaphor. In addition, the results show that using persuasive techniques is to some extent culture based. It has to be said that to understand the political discourse the listener should have political background, to comprehend the situational context especially to find the meaning of Allusion that may use in speeches because no indication of the source is offered.

One cannot understand the political speeches without enough knowledge of metaphor when using a metaphor it is supposed that language user know how they are used in communication and what is intended to be understood (Rozina & Karapetjana, 2009).

The authors also found that the linguistic manipulation is considered as influential instrument of political speech because its primary goal is to persuade people to take political action. Today politics dominates in the mass media. The broad ranges of rhetorical devices such as textual levels, pragmatic, lexical, semantic, syntactic and phonological also are important. Language plays an important role in conveying ideology of the speakers.

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Analysis of Language Needs of English Literature Majors: A Non-native Context Study

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Abstract—The present research was conducted to investigate the language needs of English literature students in Iran. In this study two groups of participants filled in the related questionnaires which dealt with the investigation of their language needs. The first group (N=224) was junior and senior students of English literature from Shahid Bahonar University of Kerman, Razi University of Kermanshah, and Azad University of Kerman. The second group (N=52) was former English literature students who were teachers and/or translators in Kerman and Kermanshah at the time. The second group was chosen to verify if the expectations of the current students as regards their future needs were realistic. The results of the analysis of the data revealed that the current English literature students used English for academic purposes mostly. The most important future function of English language for current English literature students was for teaching purposes. Results revealed that the future expectations of the current English literature students were in accord with reality.

Index Terms—English for specific purposes, needs analysis, target situation analysis, English for academic purposes

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the greatest contributions of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) to language teaching has been its emphasis on careful and extensive needs analysis for course content (Johns, 1991). Needs analysis has figured notably in the literature of language teaching for 30 years. Richterich (1987) notes the difficulty of reaching an agreed definition of needs analysis in that the notion of language needs has never been clearly defined and remains at best ambiguous.

The diversity of needs of English language learners has long been acknowledged (Tarone and Yule, 1989). The analysis of these needs is instrumental in determining course content, materials selection, teaching/learning processes, assessment/evaluation in EAP, ESP (see Benesch, 1996; Fulcher, 1999; and Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998), and in GE (see Seedhouse, 1995). Also, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) suggest that learners' needs should be considered in the process of the content of a language program. This study, thus, aims at investigating the target needs of the English literature majors and specifically their views of their needs, that is, their language wants. English teachers and departments may have implicit views on what students need to know in order to function effectively in academic settings, but they know very little about the purposes English literature majors use the target language for outside the university.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The simplified conventional definition of needs is offered by Berwick (1989) as the “discrepancy between a current state of affairs and a desired future state” (p. 52). Other researchers to date have introduced various dichotomies on needs which appear to be complementary: perceived (prescribed)-felt needs (Berwick, 1989; Robinson, 1991), objective-subjective needs (Brindley, 1989; Quinn, 1985, quoted in Brindley, 1989; Robinson, 1991), target-learning needs (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Hutchinson and Waters' target needs is comprised of necessities, lacks, and wants. Learning needs, on the other hand, is an umbrella term for all factors connected to the process of learning like attitude, motivation, awareness, personality, learning styles and strategies, etc. (Kormos, 2002). Peck (1991) categorizes the concept of needs analysis in terms of academic, social, and emotional needs.

In an EAP setting students are expected to acquire receptive and perceptive skills in line with developing learning strategies and study skills (Jordan, 1997). Kormos (2002) states that a large body of materials have been written for specific fields of study such as business, science, technology, or English for academic purposes. However, English majors in non-native contexts are representative of a group unlike any of the others. Being an English student in a non-native context is usually a prerequisite for becoming an English teacher and being an authority in it; therefore, the language needs of English majors in non-native contexts are often neglected under the assumption that they have to know everything anyway (Kormos, 2002).

There are various models and approaches through which needs analysis can be considered. The oldest model was proposed by Munby (1978) in his book “Communicative Syllabus Design.” In this model, Munby presents a Communicative Needs Processor (CNP) which is composed of a set of parameters within which information on the

students' target situation can be plotted (Robinson, 1991). These parameters are: participant, purposive domain, setting, interaction, instrumentality, dialect, target level, communicative event, and communicative key. Munby has presented a thorough list of microfunctions in CNP; what he has not included is how to prioritize them or any affective factors which today we recognize as important (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998). The Munby model is a good example for Target Situation Analysis (TSA) type of needs analysis. Robinson (1991, p. 8) defines TSA as "A needs analysis which focuses on the students' needs at the end of a language course."

Tarone and Yule (1989) cover the same ground with a four level framework. These four levels are: i) global level (situations in which learners will need to use the language and language related activities which typically occur in those situations); ii) rhetorical level (the typical way in which information is organized in any language related activity); iii) grammatical-rhetorical level (those language forms which realize the information structure of the language activity); iv) and grammatical level (the frequency with which language forms are used in different communication situations).

Target-learning dichotomy, offered by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), is still another framework through which needs analysis can be conducted. Target situation needs are understood as "what the learner needs to do in the target situation" (p. 54). Target needs analysis framework has three parameters: necessities (what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation), lacks (the gap between target and existing proficiency of the learner), and wants (the learners' view on their needs) (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, pp. 55-57). Learning needs are what the learner needs to do in order to learn. Quite clearly, therefore, the analysis of target situations needs is concerned with the area of language use (Kavaliauskiene and Upaliene, 2003), that is, the use of language in those situations where learners are supposed to function and effectively. In this study Hutchinson and Waters' target needs analysis (1987) will be taken into account, and among its components wants will be specifically stressed. Richterich (1984, p. 29, quoted in Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) comments:

"...a needs does not exist independent of a person. It is people who build their images of their needs on the basis of data relating to themselves and their environment."

Learners' perceptions of their needs may be at odds with the needs perceived by curriculum developers, course designers, teachers, etc. Therefore, if these people and especially English departments have reliable data on the language use of English students during and after their studies, they can modify or restructure the curriculum or syllabus so as to fulfil the needs of these students during their studies and later in their job-related situations and professional life. The study, thus, attempts to find answers to the following questions:

1. What are the present language needs of English literature majors?
2. What are the future language needs of English literature majors?
3. What are the language needs of former English literature majors in their present private and professional life?

This last question is provided to verify if the expectations of students as regards their future needs are realistic.

III. METHOD

Participants

Participants of this study were from two groups. The first group was 250 male and female juniors and seniors of Shahid Bahonar University of Kerman, Razi University of Kermanshah, and Azad University of Kerman. The rationale for choosing junior and senior students was that these students had completed at least two years of study in the university and were relatively more aware of their needs and could indicate them more accurately. Three universities were selected for the purpose of this study so that the researcher could have a representative sample of the whole population, notwithstanding the fact that due to the constraints of time and expense, factors of accessibility, ease of questionnaire administration and data collection had also been taken into consideration.

Out of the 250 collected questionnaires, 224 had been properly completed which were included in data analysis. Other incomplete questionnaires were discarded.

The second group of participants was 60 former English students who were now working as English teachers and translators. These subjects were chosen from high school teachers, teachers in English language institutes, and translators. Like the previous group, out of 60 filled-in questionnaires, 52 were complete and other incomplete questionnaires were excluded in data analysis.

Instruments

The required data of this research was collected through a questionnaire. The questionnaire used in this study had originally been developed by Kormos (2003) to investigate the language wants of English majors in a non-native context. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire had been determined through the techniques of verbal reporting (thinking aloud interviews), test-retest reliability, and internal consistency analysis by a group of university professors in Eotvos Lorand University, Hungary. The questionnaire intended for current and the former students was adapted to meet the requirements of the present study.

The first questionnaire, which was intended for the current students, was composed of two parts. Part one asked questions related to students biographical data: their permanent/part-time job, the job they expected to take after graduation, the number of completed terms in the university, their age and gender. Part two, which was the main body of the questionnaire, consisted of three sections. The first section included 47 questions which asked students about the situations in which they used the English language. These questions had been divided into four domains: 1) private

domain (questions 1-18), 2) academic domain (questions 19-28), 3) teaching domain (questions 29-35), and 4) business domain (questions 36-47).

In the second section, students had to indicate their answers on a five-point Likert scale. On this scale value 1 represented 'never'; 2 stood for 'occasionally, once or a few times a year'; 3 came for 'sometimes, once or a few times a month'; 4 represented 'frequently once or a few times a week'; and 5 represented 'very frequently, on daily basis'. This column pertained to the answers to the present situations of English language use. The third section was like the second column except in the choice X 'don't know'. This choice was added to make sure that students are not forced to choose their answers from 1-5 and also to assure that they have answered carefully. This choice was not considered in the data analysis because it was considered a neutral answer which would not influence the results.

The questionnaire for the former English students (see appendix B) was also changed a little. The third section, that is, the answers for students' future use of English language was removed because this group was in their present private and professional life. Also, in the academic domain, three questions were excluded for the simple reason that they were graduated students and would almost never use English in those situations. The three excluded questions were items number 19, 20, and 24. Other questions in this domain remained because this group would use English in these situations in their present private and professional life.

Data Analysis

For the purpose of analyzing the data, the data were computer-coded and then, by the use of SPSS software, the data were analyzed. In the analysis, descriptive statistics was used and for each item in the questionnaire 'median', 'mode', 'frequency', and 'percentage' were computed. In order to compare the future situations of English language use by the current students with those of the former students' responses, nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test and Mann-Whitney U test were used. In the comparison, the significance level was assumed 0.05.

IV. RESULTS

1. Current Students' Biodata Analysis

In the first phase of the research, 224 completed questionnaires were collected from the students of English literature in three universities, namely, Shahid Bahonar University of Kerman (N=75), Razi University of Kermanshah (N=91), and Azad University of Kerman (N=58).

Of all the 224 subjects, 153 (68.3%) were females and 71 (31.7%) were males.

Almost all of the subjects were junior and senior students majoring in English literature. The age range of the subjects was from 20-40 years old. 89.3% of all the participants were 20-25 years old.

As for the students present permanent or part-time job, the analysis showed that 82.1% of the subjects did not have any jobs. 12.9% were teachers and 2.7% were translators. (Table 1.1)

TABLE 1.1

<i>Present Permanent or Part-Time Job</i>	Frequency	Percent
Teacher	29	12.9
Translator	6	2.7
Teacher and Translator	1	.4
Work in a Bank	1	.4
Shopkeeper	2	.9
Veterinarian	1	.4
Have No Job	184	82.1
Total	224	100.0

About their future job, 38.4% of the participants had no idea what job they were going to take after graduation. 34.8% of participants expected to become teachers and 4.9% of participants expected to work as translators. (Table 1.2)

TABLE 1.2

<i>Future Job</i>	Frequency	Percent
I Don't Know	86	38.4
Teacher	78	34.8
Translator	11	4.9
Teacher and Translator	13	5.8
Continue Studies	6	2.7
Become a University Professor	15	6.7
Tourist Guide	4	1.8
Work in a Bank	4	1.8
Work in a Company	7	3.1
Total	224	100.0

2. Present Situations of Language Use

After analyzing the students' answers to the questions related to their present situations of language use, it was found that the most frequent situations in which the subjects used English were related to their academic studies. This finding was in accord with the requirements of the university curriculum, in which these students are required to use the English

language mostly in their studies. In Table 2.1, the situations in which students currently use English are shown. In the table, all four domains have been shown separately.

TABLE 2.1

Questions	Ss' Present Situation of language use			Current Ss' future expectations			Former Ss' situation of English Use		
	N	Median	Mode	N	Median	Mode	N	Median	Mode
Private Domain									
1	224	1	1	160	3	2	52	2	2
2	224	3	3	172	4	4	52	3	2
3	224	2	2	192	4	3	52	3	3
4	224	3	3	197	4	4	52	3	3
5	224	2	1	177	4	5	52	3	4
6	224	1	1	153	2	2	52	2	2
7	224	2	1	173	3	5	52	2	1
8	224	3	3	194	4	4	52	3	3
9	224	3	3	179	3	3	52	3	3
10	224	3	3	196	4	5	52	4	4
11	224	3	2	187	4	4	52	3	3
12	224	2	2	181	3	4	52	3	3
13	224	3	3	183	4	4	52	3	2
14	224	3	3	169	3	3	52	3	4
15	224	2	1	173	3	2	52	3	4
16	224	3	3	190	4	4	52	3	4
17	224	3	3	188	4	4	52	3	3
18	224	2	1	151	3	2	52	3	3
Academic Domain									
1	224	5	5	143	4	5	52	3	5
2	224	4	4	138	4	4	52	3	2
3	224	3	4	167	4	5	52	5	5
4	224	2	2	167	3	4	52	3	2
5	224	4	5	184	5	5	52	4	4
6	224	4	5	145	4	5	52	3	4
7	224	3	3	154	3	3	52	2	2
8	224	3	3	180	4	5	52	5	3
9	224	3	3	145	3	4	52	3	3
10	224	2	2	149	3	2	52	2	2
Teaching Domain									
1	224	1	1	55	3	2	52	3	3
2	224	2	1	57	4	5	52	4	5
3	224	1	1	55	4	5	52	4	4
4	224	1	1	56	4	5	52	4	4
5	224	1	1	59	4	5	52	5	5
6	224	1	1	54	4	4	52	5	5
7	224	1	1	54	4	5	52	5	5
Business Domain									
1	224	1	1	128	4	5	52	4	4
2	224	1	1	115	3	4	52	3	1
3	224	1	1	111	3	1	52	2	1
4	224	1	1	107	3	1	52	1	1
5	224	1	1	96	2	1	52	2	1
6	224	1	1	98	2	1	52	2	1
7	224	1	1	92	3	1	52	2	1
8	224	1	1	91	2	1	52	2	1
9	224	1	1	86	2	1	52	2	1
10	224	1	1	87	2	1	52	2	1
11	224	1	1	87	2	1	52	2	1
12	224	1	1	83	1	1	52	1	1

Ss = Students

3. Current Students' Future Expectations

As stated before, participants' responses to their future situations of English language use were conjectural. Hence, they might underestimate or overestimate their frequency of English language use in some situations. In table 2.1, the situations of English language use in future have been shown.

4. Former English Students' Biodata Analysis

In the second phase of this research, 52 completed questionnaires were collected from the former English students. In table 4.1 the former English students' first job is presented.

TABLE 4.1

<i>Job</i>	Frequency	Percent
Teacher	50	96.2
Teacher and Translator	2	3.8
Total	52	100.0

In table 4.2, the information regarding the former students' second job is shown.

TABLE 4.2

<i>Another Job</i>	Frequency	Percent
Taxi Driver	1	1.9
Working in a company	1	1.9
Shopkeeper	1	1.9
No Job	49	94.2
Total	52	100.0

5. Situations of English Language Use by the Former Students

The analysis of the former English students' responses to their English use in different situations revealed that these participants used English most frequently in the field of teaching. This finding was quite normal because almost all the participants in this phase of the research were teachers. In table 2.1, the situations of language use by the former English students are shown.

6. Comparing Current Students' Expectations with the Actual Use of Language by the Former Students

In order to see if the current students' future expectations were in accord with what the former English students' responses showed, the data obtained from the current students and the former students were compared by means of nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test and Mann-Whitney U test. The significance level in this study was set for $P < 0.05$.

The comparison revealed that in the private domain, except for four items, the statistical difference was meaningful, i.e., P value for these items was lower than 0.05. Those four items whose answers were the same for both groups were: conversing with non-natives ($P=0.107$), writing e-mail messages ($P=0.340$), writing traditional letters ($P=0.134$), and using English in computer games ($P=0.428$).

As instances of those items for which P value was lower than 0.05, current students seemed to converse with natives more frequently than the former students ($P=0.000$). They seemed to read newspapers more frequently ($P=0.007$), and read stories more than the former students which sound ideal activities for the students in their future life. They also would listen to radio ($P=0.021$) and read texts on the Internet ($P=0.000$) more frequently than the former students. These again seem to be suitable activities to be done frequently by the students in their future life.

Regarding the academic domain, the comparison showed that in all the items the responses of both groups were the same, i.e., P value was higher than 0.05. For instance, significance level for reading professional books was 0.317, for using monolingual dictionaries, it was 0.504, and for expressing opinions, P value was 0.094.

Likewise, in the teaching domain the answers of both groups were the same. Instances of the items for which P value was higher than 0.05 are: correcting translations ($P=0.372$), writing tests ($P=0.690$), and giving explanations as a teacher ($P=0.159$). This sameness of the answers seems ideal except for one item, that is, writing tasks as a teacher. This may be some sort of over-estimation since writing tasks seems to be done rarely in our country and almost all the teachers use books in their teaching practice.

As for the business domain, for seven items the significance value was higher than 0.05. Instances are: conversing in job-related situations ($P=0.218$), reading business letters ($P=0.137$), reading business documents ($P=0.071$), writing business documents ($P=0.262$), translating business documents ($P=0.198$), reading public documents ($P=0.074$), and writing official letters ($P=0.347$). The items for which P value was lower than 0.05 are: interpreting orally in job-related meetings ($P=0.001$) which indicates students use English more frequently than the former students. This seems to be an over-estimation on the current students' part, because, to our knowledge, in our country and in the field of business there might be few meetings in business in which students interpret after graduation. There might be such meetings, but the chances for the students to interpret in those situations seem to be very rare. Students seem to use English at conferences ($P=0.004$), interpret at conferences ($P=0.000$), write business letters ($P=0.000$), and translate business letters ($P=0.006$) more frequently than the former English students. These also seem to be over-estimations on the current students' part due to the earlier stated fact that, in business, there might be few chances for the students to use their English knowledge.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study attempted to investigate the language needs of English literature students in Iran. Majoring in English in a non-native context is usually a means to becoming an English teacher; consequently, in such a context the language needs of English students are given little thought because the assumption is that they have to know everything anyway (Kormos, 2002). But carrying out needs analysis in language curriculum plays a crucial role (Brown, 1995; Seedhouse, 1995; Berwick, 1989), and the English language curriculum at universities is not exempt from needs analysis.

The results of the present study had several implications. The first implication was that of current English literature students' awareness of their present needs. The results showed that, at the present and due to the requirements of the

English language curriculum, students use English mainly for academic purposes (the field of EAP). This finding was quite normal because students need English for their academic studies. Therefore, study skills are the major areas in which students use their existing knowledge of English. What seems important to be stressed by English departments and English professors is mainly the skill of note taking while reading. On the one hand, students are required to read their professional books, and to some extent, English stories almost everyday, on the other hand, they take notes when reading on a monthly basis. As a result, this very important skill should be stressed.

In the business domain, participants' responses seemed to be normal. As stated earlier, job opportunities in the field of business are not many; therefore, participants did not see any need to use English in those situations.

Regarding the former English students, what seemed an over-estimation on their part was that they indicated that they wrote tasks as teachers (30.8%) on a weekly basis. In our country, teachers at school and in language institutes are bound to the existing books. To our knowledge, teachers almost always use books for teaching. Very few teachers may try their hands at writing tasks as teachers.

The comparison of the current students' responses with those of the former English students revealed that in 24 items (out of 44 items), responses were the same. This shows that the current students' views regarding their future situations of English language use are in accord with the reality, i.e., what the former English students do with their English knowledge.

All in all, emphasizing EAP at the universities seems very important. English departments, professors and students themselves should pay special attention to study skills such as, note taking, note making, using dictionaries, etc. because students indicated that they need and use study skills along with receptive and productive skills more frequently.

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Semantic Map and HBV in English, Chinese and Korean—A Case Study of *hand*, 手 and 手*

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Abstract—Semantic map is often used for semantic analysis in the research of grammatical forms and structures than lexical forms and meanings in linguistic typology. This paper, by means of Semantic Map Model, conducts the typological analysis of the lexical meanings of [+HAND] in English, Chinese and Korean, which typologically belong to three different types of languages, that is, English is inflectional, Chinese is isolating and Korean is agglutinative. From the conceptual space and the semantic map of *hand*, 手 and 手, we can find that their meanings are extended on the basis of their basic meanings of [+part of body], [+holding things] and [+doing things] from holding something with hands to controlling something or somebody with power, from a person who does something with hands to a person in general, from actions which are done with hands to actions in general, from skills done with hands to methods in general. The semantic map of [+HAND] also conveys the relationship and distance among the lexical meanings, and concludes and predicts the dynamic evolution of the lexical meanings.

Index Terms—semantic map model, conceptual space, lexical meanings, *hand*, 手 and 手, meaning extension path

I. INTRODUCTION

According to Nan (2012), the research of human body vocabulary (HBV) at home and abroad has experienced the change from macro to micro studies, and from static to dynamic studies. As one of the core HBV in English, Chinese and Korean, *hand*, 手 and 手 have been studied intra-lingually and inter-lingually from the semantic or pragmatic perspective in the early stage and then from the cultural and cognitive perspective in recent years. According to Zhong (2016), 22 books, dissertations or journal articles on the research of *hand* in English, Chinese, Japanese and Vietnamese have been published from 2010 to 2014. English *hand* has been mentioned or studied abroad only as examples in the books or articles on cognition or cognitive linguistics (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Lakoff, 1987; Johnson, 1987; Heine, 1997; Ungerer & Schmid, 2006). Some research of *hand* has been done in China and Korea intralingually (Xie, 1981; Xiao, 2000; Kim, 2005; Ahn, 2006), but more in a comparative way. Chinese 手 and its comparison with English *hand* have been studied in China from semantic perspective (Huang, 2010a; Huang, 2010b; Zhao, 2013), cognitive perspective (Gao, 2005; Si, 2008; Ma, 2010; Yin, 2014; Liu, 2015) and cultural perspective (Li, 2007; Wang, 2011). Korean HBV has been studied much earlier than that of English and Chinese (Nan, 2012). Korean 手 and its comparison with Chinese 手 or English *hand* have been studied by Korean scholars and Chinese scholars mainly on idioms from the morphological and lexical perspective (Kim, 1976; Jin, 1988; Lee, 1996; Kim, 2001;), syntactic perspective (Park, 2000), semantic perspective (Young, 1983; Lee, 1999; Bae, 2001; Jin, 2006; Wang, 2012), cognitive perspective (Kim, 2007; Jo, 2007; Zheng, 2014; Yoon, 2015), cultural perspective (Zheng, 2007; Xu, 2009; Pan, 2014). There are a few typological researches of *hand* and 手 (Huang, 2012; Wei, 2013), but these are confined to one or two functions of *hand* and 手.

II. SEMANTIC MAP

Semantic map is the key word of Semantic Map Model which has been used widely for semantic analysis in linguistic typology and cognitive semantics to represent the distance and relationship among different meanings or functions of a linguistic form by building conceptual space. Conceptual space, which was explained as mental map by Anderson (1982), is used in this model to represent grammatical multifunctionality, which refers to the phenomenon that one linguistic form, grammatical, lexical or structural, has more than one different but related functions. The basic hypothesis of the model is that there exist some restrictions and limitations as well as some similarities among

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polysemous forms or multifunctional categories among different languages. Therefore, the purpose of the model is to find out and explain these similarities and differences through cross-linguistic comparison. Semantic map was first studied by Anderson (1982, 1986) and then has been used in linguistic typological research since 1990s. Semantic Map Model was illustrated in details by Haspelmath (1997b) and was furthered by Croft (2001, 2003) who connected semantic map and conceptual space (Wu, 2011). Semantic map and conceptual space are constructed under Semantic Map Connectivity Hypothesis (Croft, 2001, 2003) or Contiguity/Adjacency Requirement (Haspelmath, 1997a, 1997b, 2003) which holds that any relevant language-specific and/or construction-specific category should map onto a *connected region* in conceptual space (Croft, 2003, p.134).

According to Wu (2011), Semantic Map Model has been used mainly by the scholars abroad and used in the research of grammatical forms and structures, such as aspect (Anderson, 1982; Janda, 2007), reflexive and middle voice (Kemmer, 1993), intransitive predication (Stassen, 1997), indefinite pronouns (Haspelmath, 1997b), temporal adverbial (Haspelmath, 1997a), adverbial subordination (Kortmann, 1997), modality (van der Auwera & Plungian, 1998; de Hann, 2006; van der Auwera, et al., 2009), semantic role (Haspelmath, 2003; Rice & Kabata, 2007), mood (van der Auwera, et al., 2004), coordinating constructions (Haspelmath, 2004), adversative and contrast marking (Malchukov, 2004), etc. Only in recent years, Semantic Map Model has been introduced to China and used to analyse the polysemous grammatical forms of Chinese (Zhang, 2009) and its comparison with other Asian languages (Wu, 2009). The model is also used to analyse the numeral classifiers of Chinese and English (Wei, 2013), of Chinese and Korean (Lee, 2011), Chinese conjunctions (Wang, 2012; Li, 2013), Chinese speculative markers (Wang, 2012), Chinese dialects (Wu, 2011; Guo, 2012; Fan, 2014), etc. Wei (2013) discussed the function of Chinese and English HBV, including *hand*, as numeral classifiers on the basis of semantic map model. But Semantic Map Model is seldom used in researching lexical forms and meanings at home and abroad.

This paper will conduct the semantic analysis of polysemous lexical word *hand*, 手 and 손 in English, Chinese and Korean under Semantic Map Model in three steps: construct conceptual space, draw semantic map and analyse and explain. Typologically, English, Chinese and Korean belong to three different types of language. English is inflectional, Chinese is isolating and Korean is agglutinative. This conforms to the requirement of Semantic Map Model which insists the variety of languages in kinship and geo-relationship (Wu, 2009).

III. SEMANTIC ANALYSIS OF *HAND*, 手 AND 손

A. Basic Meaning of [+HAND]

According to Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary (2005) and Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary (2011), Chinese Comprehensive Dictionary (2010) and Contemporary Chinese Dictionary (2012), Standard Korean Dictionary (1999) and Neungyule Korean-English Dictionary (2006), *hand*, 手 and 손 are defined as the part of the body at the end of the arm, including the fingers and thumb, that you use to hold things. They share the following semantic features:

[+HAND] (*hand*, 手 and 손): [+part of body] [+end of arm] [+holding things][+doing things]

B. Extended Meanings of [+HAND]

The meaning of *hand* is extended as follow:

1. [+influence/role]: strengthen her hand in politics
2. [+control/power]: in the hand of the military authorities
3. [+own/looking after]: in safe hands, change hands
4. [+help]: give me a hand in the garden...
5. [+person]: works as a farm hand, be short of hands
6. [+applaud]: give them a big hand
7. [+side/direction]: on one hand
8. [+source]: second-hand books
9. [+skill]: master's hand, a green hand
10. [+something like/of the size of hand]: a hand of banana, the hands of clock, hand-breadth
11. [+cards]: a winning hand
12. [+measurement for horse]:

The meaning of 手 is extended as follow:

1. [+hold]: 人手一册 (every one has a copy)
2. [+control/power]: 在我手上. (in my hands)
3. [+method/trick]: 手辣 (malicious means)
4. [+person doing or good at a certain job]: 选手 (player), 助手 (assistant)
5. [+source]: 第一手材料 (first hand material)

- 6. [+skill]: 眼高手低 (high ambition but low ability)
- 7. [+handle]: 扳手 (spanner)
- 8. [+unit of measuring skills]: 一手绝活 (a master of one's craft)
- 9. [+convenient]: 手册 (handbook)

The meaning of 손 is extended as follow:

- 1. [+control/power]: 그녀의 운명은 내 손에 달려 있다 (Her fate lies in my hands.)
- 2. [+influence/role]: 그의 손에 달린 일 (up to him)
- 3. [+own/looking after]: 손이 많이 가다 (need a lot of work)
- 4. [+help]: 손을 내 밀다 (ask for help)
- 5. [+person]: 손이 모자라다 (be short of hands)
- 6. [+skill]: 그 사람 손이 가야한다 (Her skill is needed.)
- 7. [+method]: 백방으로 손을 쓰고 있다 (try all means)
- 8. [+handle]: 맷손 (handle of millstone)
- 9. [+unit of measuring]: 고등어 한 손 (a handful of fish)

TABLE 1
MEANINGS OF [+HAND]

	meanings	hand	手	손
1	organ of body	+	+	+
2	influence/role	+		+
3	hold		+	
4	control/power	+	+	+
5	own/look after	+		+
6	help	+		+
7	person	+	+	+
8	skill	+	+	+
9	method/trick		+	+
10	source	+	+	
11	measurement	+	+	+
12	handle		+	+
13	sth. like/of size of hand	+		
14	convenient		+	
15	applaud	+		
16	side/direction	+		
17	cards	+		

IV. SEMANTIC MAP OF HAND, 手 AND 손

A. Conceptual Space of [+HAND]

Conceptual space is the universal semantic space, built on the basis of cross-linguistic comparison, to describe multidimensional distribution patterns of language-specific categories (Croft, 2003). It is composed of points, which represent different functions or meanings of a certain grammatical form in different languages, and links, which represent the direct connection between two functions or meanings. It constrains possible distribution patterns for the relevant language-specific constructions and the categories defined by those constructions (Croft, 2003).

According to the semantic analysis and the meaning extension of hand, 手 and 손, we can build the following conceptual spaces. Different meanings are represented as labeled points in the conceptual space with each point representing a region of conceptual space.

First, hand, 手 and 손 all have the same five meanings. They are (1) organ of body, (2) control/power, (3) person, (4) skill and (5) measurement. They are linked and distributed in Conceptual space I.

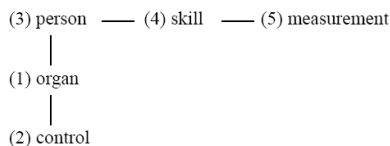


Figure 1 Conceptual space for hand, 手 and 손 I

Secondly, *hand* and 手 have three meanings in common: (6) influence/role, (7) own/look after and (8) help. They are linked with (2) control/power and distributed in Conceptual space II.

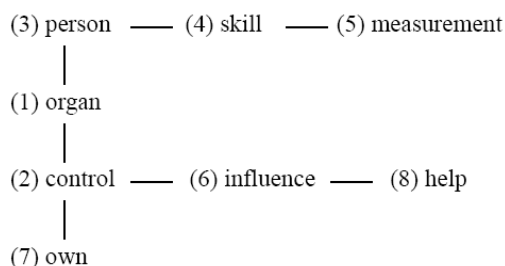


Figure 2 Conceptual space for *hand*, 手 and 手 II

Thirdly, 手 and 手 have the meanings of (9) method and (10) handle. They are linked with (1) organ and (4) skill respectively and distributed in Conceptual space III.

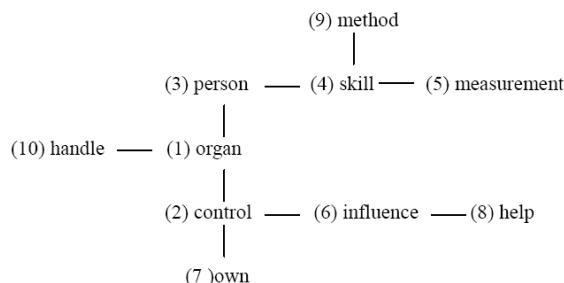


Figure 3 Conceptual space for *hand*, 手 and 手 III

Fourthly, *hand* and 手 have the meanings of (11) source. It is linked with (2) control/power and distributed in Conceptual space IV.

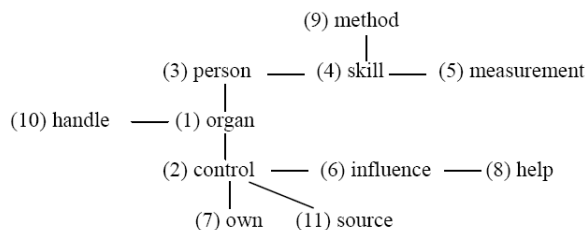


Figure 4 Conceptual space for *hand*, 手 and 手 IV

Fifthly, *hand* has the meaning of (12) something like/of size of hand and (13) side/direction, and 手 has the meaning of (14) hold and (15) convenient. They are all linked with (1) organ and distributed in Conceptual space V.

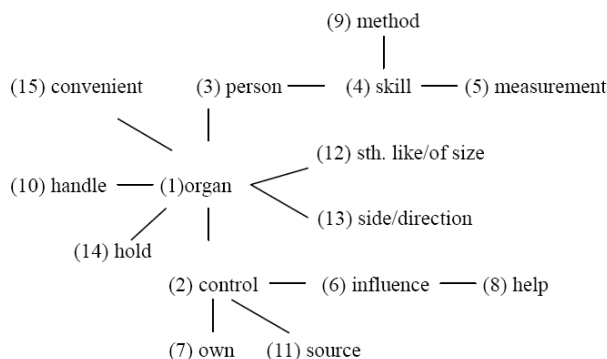


Figure 5 Conceptual space for [+HAND]

The conceptual space in Figure 5 conforms to the Semantic Map Connectivity hypothesis.

B. Semantic Map of [+HAND]

Figure 6 is the semantic map of [+HAND] drawn on the basis of the conceptual space in Figure 5. Different meanings of [+HAND] in each language of English, Chinese and Korean occupy a certain connected region in the figure. Therefore, the conceptual space in Figure 5 is universal.

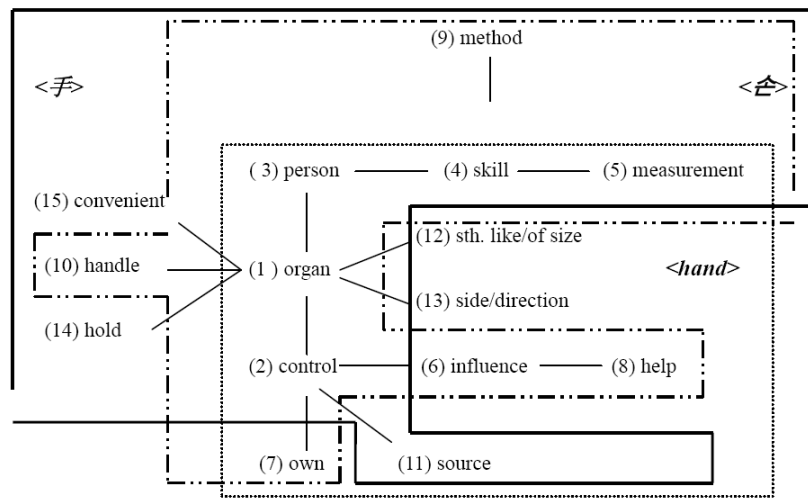


Figure 6 Semantic map for [+HAND] (..... for hand, ——— for 手, - - - - for 손)

The semantic map in figure 6 represents the similarities and differences among the meanings of *hand*, 手 and 손 in English, Chinese and Korean, which are stated in the process of constructing the conceptual space in Figure 1~5. It also conveys the relationship and distance among the meanings of *hand*, 手 and 손 respectively. The closer the distance is, the more direct relationship will be. For example, the meaning of person is positioned closer to the meaning of skill and organ, so it has direct relation with the two meanings, while it has indirect relation with the meaning of measurement since they are positioned far. We may also conclude and predict the dynamic evolution of the lexical meaning of the words. Take the case of *hand* for example. Its meaning of skill was extended before the meaning of method (skill > method) or the meaning of own came after the meaning of control (control > own). Therefore, we can predict that if [+HAND] in a certain language has the meaning of method, it must have the meaning of skill (e.g. Chinese, Korean, French, Japanese) but might not be vice versa (e.g. English), or if [+HAND] in a certain language has the meaning of own, it must have the meaning of control (e.g. English, Korean) but might not be vice versa (e.g. Chinese, French). More examples are control > source, control > influence, etc.

C. Meaning Extension Path of [+HAND]

From the conceptual space and the semantic map of [+HAND], we can find that the meanings of *hand*, 手 and 손 are extended on the basis of their basic meanings of [+part of body], [+holding things] and [+doing things] from holding something with hands to controlling something or somebody with power, from a person who does something with hands to a person in general, from actions which are done with hands to actions in general, from skills done with hands to methods in general. The directions of the meaning extension can be concluded as follows:

Shape of the hand enables hand to refer to something like the hand, e.g. *a hand of bananas*, or something of size or amount of the hand, e.g. *a hand of sweets*, 露一手 (show off), 고등어 한 손 (a handful of fish), or something which functions as a hand of some devices, e.g. 机械手 (manipulator), 맷손 (handle of millstone), while the symmetry of two hands results in the expressions like *on one hand*, or *on the other hand*, where *hand* means side or direction.

The fact that hands can hold things makes *hand* refer to the action of holding, e.g. 人手一册 (every one has a copy). When someone is holding something, he controls it and then owns it, which empowers him and then influences others. If others needs it, they should get it from him, which accounts for the meaning of [+source] of *hand*.

People do many things with hands, therefore *hand* is used to refer to a person whose work is related to hands, then a person in general, such as *a green hand*, 生手 (an inexperienced hand), 손이 모자라다 (be short of hands). The work done with hands needs some skills which can be expressed by *hand*, such as *show a master hand*, 妙手丹青 (a skillful painter), 그 사람 손이 가야한다 (Her skill is needed). This meaning is further extended to mean methods in 谋生手段 (means of living), 백방으로 손을 쓰고 있다 (try all means).

V. CONCLUSION

Semantic Map Model is used in this paper to carry out typological analysis of lexical forms and meanings of *hand*, 手 and 손 in three different types of languages, English, Chinese and Korean. According to the conceptual space and semantic map of *hand*, 手 and 손, we can find that their meanings are extended on the basis of their basic meanings of [+part of body], [+holding things] and [+doing things] from specific to general, from concrete to abstract, from inanimate to animate. More specifically, from holding or grasping with hands to controlling or owing something or somebody with power or influence, from a worker who does something with hands to a professional person in general, from actions or performances which are done with hands to actions or behaviors in general, from special skills done with hands to methods or tricks in general. The relationship and distance among the lexical meanings is conveyed and the dynamic evolution of the lexical meaning is predicted by means of the semantic map.

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Investigating the Role of Experience in Reflective Practice of Iranian Language Teachers

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Abstract—The emergence of reflective thinking in humanities touched the field of language teaching deeply. Language teaching in EFL contexts was not far from this effect, where reflection on teaching has gained a lot of attention and research in the last decade. To bring to light the different dimensions of reflective thinking in language teaching, the current study was an attempt to examine the effects of years of professional experience on practicing reflective teaching in Iranian context. To this aim, a five-point Likert scale questionnaire was adopted including 29 items investigating five different dimensions of reflective teaching including practical, cognitive, affective, meta-cognitive, and critical dimensions. As our subjects, 62 EFL teachers participated in this study with 1 to 26 years of professional experience who were classified in 5 different experience groups. The results of the study showed no significant difference among 5 experience groups of teachers in their commitment to reflective practice in language classrooms.

Index Terms—English teaching, EFL context, experience, reflective teaching, thinking

I. INTRODUCTION

Human beings have been involved in thinking, learning and teaching in all their lives. In this way science improved and societies developed. As a result, different schools of thought came on the scene and attracted a lot of attentions. Not unlike other fields of science, thinking and need for learning gave birth to new methods and approaches in the world of language teaching and language learning. However, nearly one hundred years ago the American author John Dewey (1859-1952) put forward reflective thinking which progressively was maneuvered by later scholars. In his famous books about mind and thinking (1933), Dewey criticized current approaches of teaching and introduced reflective teaching as an alternative. His animadversion (Schon, 1983) was toward mechanical skill learning processes in which there was no sound for the philosophy of teaching. The repetitive daily and routine style of teaching had made classrooms too mechanical and static. Considering the pendulum effect of methods and approaches towards language teaching, an appropriate remedy was reflective thinking through which teacher could enjoy their experiences and numerous reflective practices to make teaching advantageous and profitable. Therefore, the teacher's performance could be improved and consequently students' achievement could be increased. This is the same as what Schon (1983) refers to as appreciation, action, and re-appreciation. Avoiding bigotry and loyalty to critical thinking is a vital prerequisite to reflective teaching method. Critical thinking, a dimension of reflection, can affect all teachers' job. It can prepare pre-service teachers for entering educational environment and also helps in-service teachers to improve their teaching practice and care for actual outcomes. In the same line of the research, Griffiths (2000) demonstrated that reflection is in contrast with impulsive action as well as routine one in which the teacher acts based on trial and error or tradition and authority. Also, Dewey describes reflection as an activity which is based on "the active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the conclusion to which it tends." (1933, p. 9). However, reflection can be interpreted and classified into different types. Schon (1983) made a distinction between two types of reflection: reflection in action and reflection on action. Reflection in action, according to this scholar, involves doing the activity and after finishing the job looking back at the work to analyze the process of doing and the outcome. Through evaluation after the work, the job can be promoted for the next time. In other words, reflection on action can be done after each session or after the educational semester. Besides, reflection in action involves delving into the action and simultaneously thinking about how to do it and how to improve the process and the outcome. Schon (1983) believes that the start-point of reflection is some phenomenon which sounds like a problem or something interesting or puzzling that a person is trying to deal with and make sense of it. In this sense,

when individuals try to make sense of the phenomenon, simultaneously they reflect on understandings which are hidden in their own future action. Schon's notion of reflecting on understanding seems the same as what Dewey refers to as critical thinking. Killion and Todnem (1991) proposed another classification that is reflection for action. It is planning that one predicts for his/her future practice. Generally, we can say that reflection for action is a professional appellation for lesson plan that teachers are behooved to provide for their daily classroom teaching. According to Harwood and his co-workers (2006), Farrel (2007) and Tedick (2005), teachers' years of experience can be assumed as an effective factor in determining ones' viewpoint towards reflective teaching as well as strategies and philosophy of teaching.

According to Fuller (1970) and Korthagen and Lagerwerf (1996), as cited in Akbari (2010), there exist a model in which there are three stages for teacher development and taking reflective viewpoint towards teaching. Based on this model, a pre-service teacher who is supposed to enter educational system, goes through stage one in which a self-image is created with ideal features. He/she wants to be loved by students and is highly under the influence of images of an ideal teacher in his/her mind. In stage two, according to this model, the teacher considers managing the classroom in which integrates into educational environment takes place. Harwood, Hanson, and Lotter (2006) argue that teacher's practice is absolutely under the influence of beliefs. It's in stage three that teacher provides with enough confidence to deal with classroom effectiveness and enhances the expected outcome i.e. students' learning. In this way, the teacher is able to determine strategies and philosophy of his/her teaching. Furthermore, according to this model, teacher development is a process that is implemented in respected stages. As the time passes, the teacher goes through next levels of experience and shapes his/her method of teaching. It can be concluded that introducing reflective teaching as well as experience to novice teachers must be done with caution and in proper time. In other words, introducing them in early stages may not be constructive and even it may lead to negative outcomes. Although knowing reflective teaching method and its tools can be advantageous for teachers, early exposure may be defective. This paper tries to find out whether teachers with different years of professional experience know reflective teaching method and how much they use it in their teaching practice? Also, if there was a difference, the researcher probes the group who believe in reflective thinking while teaching.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The present study aimed to investigate the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' years of professional experience and their attitude toward reflective teaching. Therefore, in this part of the study, theoretical background of the study is reviewed. Also, this part reviews the related studies that were conducted in this area of the science. Farrel (2007) believes that the necessity of renewing teachers' knowledge in educational environment and teaching and learning activities has been felt. The widespread popularity of such an idea made the importance of teacher reflection more clear. Not unlike Farrel is Tedick (2005) who argues that training teachers to practice reflection, first was exercised for pre-service teachers and gradually became a part of teacher education programs. In training pre-service teachers, however, the theories are taught and it is needed to bridge them with practice. Besides, Pollard (2008) puts forward that reflecting on personal experiences provide such opportunities to practice reflection in real context. Therefore, unbalanced repertoire of experience between novice and experienced teachers may make a difference in practicing reflection. In the following lines, we refer to some practical studies that evaluate the effects of experience on practicing reflective teaching. Moradian and Ahamdi (2015) studied the role of experience in teachers' reflectivity and self-efficacy. They distributed a reflective teaching questionnaire adopted from Ghadampour, Moradian, & Shokri (2014) which included 27 five-point Likert items to 135 EFL teachers in Khoramabad, Lorestan province, in Iran. The teachers were used to teach in different private institutes with different years of professional experience in teaching and unequal proficiency levels. Also, the level of students' proficiency was different ranging from beginner to advanced level. The heterogeneity of sample continued in factors such as gender and academic degree. The results showed that there was a significant positive relationship between practicing reflective teaching and sense of self-efficacy in the group of experienced teachers. On the other hand, such a relationship was not significant in the second group of EFL teachers who were novice. In another study, Ansarian, Farrokhi, & Rahmani (2015) carried out a research to explore the effects of experience on reflection level of Iranian EFL teachers. 100 male and female teachers with different academic degrees from BA to PhD and with teaching experience of 1 to 22 participated in the study. A five-point Likert scale including 53 items developed by Larrivee (2008) was used. The results showed that there was a significant relationship between years of professional experience and pedagogical and critical reflection. Also, Ode, Kurt, & Atamturk (2010) studied the relationship between experience, gender, and level of education with application of reflective teaching among ESL teachers. The researchers themselves provided a five-point Likert scale which included 30 items. 9 male and 51 female ESL teachers participated in this study whose academic degrees BA and MA. The results of the study showed that all variables of the research including experience were not significantly differentiating among teachers who practice reflective teaching. Hence, in another study, Ghaslani (2015) examined demographic variables including gender and experience on the level of teachers' reflectivity. She used a five-point Likert scale developed by Akbari, Behzafpour, & Dadvand (2010) which was made of 29 items. 125 EFL teachers from both genders and aged between 20 and 47 were selected from 7 private institutes in Hamadan and Kurdistan provinces, Iran, through cluster sampling procedure. The participants were experienced between 1 and 24 years that were classified in three groups with 8 years

of distance. Regarding age and experience with reflectivity, the results showed no significant differences among teachers. Zafer Unal & Aslihan Unal (2012) examined the effects of instructor's years of professional experience on classroom management. They studied 268 primary school teachers a quarter of whom were female with ages between 22 to 49 years. Regarding their teaching experience, they were classified in five experience groups namely 1-5 as the first group, 6-10 the second group, 11-15 the third one, 16-20 the fourth one, and the fifth group was the teachers with 21 years of experience or more. BIMS inventory developed by Martin & Sass (2010) was translated into Turkish and then was used by the researchers. The results of the study showed that more experienced teachers had significantly different attitudes toward classroom management than less experienced individuals.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study attempted to investigate the effects of years of professional experience in EFL teaching on practicing reflective teaching among Iranian EFL teachers. To answer the research question, the researcher used an adopted questionnaire which distributed among the participant and the results reported descriptively.

Participants

62 EFL teachers in Chabahar and Konarak, Sistan-Va-Baluchistan province in Iran were selected through simple convenient sampling. They were 39 male teachers and 23 female ones whose native languages were Farsi and Baluchi. 6 of them had MA in TEFL, 42 of them had BA in TEFL or English language and literature, 12 of them had MA in TEFL, and 1 of them had PhD in TEFL. According to their years of experience in teaching, 22 participants enjoyed 1 to 5 years of experience, 19 participants 6 to 10 years of experience, 10 participants 11 to 15 years of experience, 6 participants 16 to 20 years of experience, and 5 of them enjoyed 21 to 30 years of experience. The least experienced teacher has just taught for one educational year and the most experienced one has taught for 26 years. Their ages were ranged between 22 and 53 years old.

Instrumentation

This study used a Likert scale questionnaire developed by Akbari et al (2010) including 29 items which covered different dimensions of reflective teaching. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire was already considered by the authors. Five dimensions of reflective teaching on which the questionnaire shed light would be explained respectively. Questions 1 to 6 of the questionnaire dealt with practical dimension in which tools and actual practices of reflection such as teacher's diary and observation are investigated. Besides, questions 7 to 12 dealt with cognitive dimension that surveys teacher's cognitive efforts for reflection such as conducting action research and delving into scientific articles, magazines, and books. Questions 13 to 15 dealt with affective dimension in which the teacher works on psychological aspect of students' behavior. Questions 16 to 22 deal with meta-cognitive dimension that the teacher reflects on his/her own beliefs and emotions. And finally, the last 7 questions dealt with critical dimension that investigates socio-political issues of teaching.

Procedure

The questionnaires were distributed among participants who were asked to check appropriate boxes of the Likert scale questionnaire, ranged from never to always. Then, the results were gathered and reported descriptively in frequencies and percentages. The results were reported descriptively then.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As it was stated above, our questionnaire was made up of 5 different dimensions of reflective teaching; therefore we had 5 different outputs respectively. Also, the participants were classified in 5 groups of experience and their answers were stipulated independently. Using descriptive statistics and frequency of each question, the data were analyzed.

Familiarity with Practical Dimension of Reflective Teaching

Practical dimension is concerned with the instruments teachers put to use for reflection practice. Several instruments such as 'portfolios', 'journals', 'audio and video recording', 'observation' can be employed for reflective practices. The results of this section for the first group (1-5 years of experience) brought to light the fact that 12 percent of this group of teachers has a file where they keep their accounts of teaching for reviewing purposes. Besides, only 10 percent of them talk about their classroom experiences with their colleagues and seek their advice/feedback. In addition, 16 percent of these teachers write about the accomplishments/failures of the lesson or talk about the lesson to a colleague, after each lesson. Besides, 24 percent of teachers discuss practical/theoretical issues with their colleagues. Furthermore, 11 percent of teachers observe other teacher's classrooms to learn about their efficient practices. And finally, 8 percent of teachers like their colleagues to observe their teaching and comment on their performance. Also, the results of this table shows that the second group (6-10) marked differently and 9 percent of this group of teachers have a file where they keep their accounts of teaching for reviewing purposes. Besides, 6 percent of them talk about their classroom experiences with their colleagues and seek their advice/feedback. In addition, 11 percent of these teachers write about the accomplishments/failures of the lesson or talk about the lesson to a colleague, after each lesson. Too, 14 percent of teachers discuss practical/theoretical issues with their colleagues. Furthermore, only 7 percent of teachers observe other teacher's classrooms to learn about their efficient practices. And finally, 5 percent of teachers like their colleagues to observe their teaching and comment on their performance. However, the results obtained from the third group (11-15)

indicated that 5 percent of this group of teachers has a file where they keep their accounts of teaching for reviewing purposes. Besides, 18 percent of them talk about their classroom experiences with their colleagues and seek their advice/feedback. In addition, 8 percent of these teachers write about the accomplishments/failures of the lesson or talk about the lesson to a colleague, after each lesson. Too, 14 percent of teachers discuss practical/theoretical issues with their colleagues. Furthermore, 4 percent of teachers observe other teacher's classrooms to learn about their efficient practices. And finally, 19 percent of teachers like their colleagues to observe their teaching and comment on their performance. The results of this section for the fourth group (16-20) shed light on the fact that only 16 percent of this group of teachers has a file where they keep their accounts of teaching for reviewing purposes. Besides, 6 percent of them talk about their classroom experiences with their colleagues and seek their advice/feedback. In addition, 8 percent of these teachers write about the accomplishments/failures of the lesson or talk about the lesson to a colleague, after each lesson. Too, 13 percent of teachers discuss practical/theoretical issues with their colleagues. Furthermore, 6 percent of teachers observe other teacher's classrooms to learn about their efficient practices. And finally, 27 percent of teachers like their colleagues to observe their teaching and comment on their performance. And finally, the results of this dimension for the last group (21-30) brought to light that 20 percent of this group of teachers has a file where they keep their accounts of teaching for reviewing purposes. Besides, only 11 percent of them talk about their classroom experiences with their colleagues and seek their advice/feedback. In addition, 5 percent of these teachers write about the accomplishments/failures of the lesson or talk about the lesson to a colleague, after each lesson. Too, 40 percent of teachers discuss practical/theoretical issues with their colleagues. Furthermore, 3 percent of teachers observe other teacher's classrooms to learn about their efficient practices. And finally, 29 percent of teachers like their colleagues to observe their teaching and comment on their performance.

No level of significant was less than .05 indicating that there was no significant difference among different groups of experienced teachers in practical dimension of reflective teaching. The results of the study are in line with Ansarian et al. (2015) who maintained years of professional experience will not significantly differentiate reflective teachers in their familiarity and commitment to reflective practice. These finding, however, stood firm against those by Zafer Unal & Aslihan Uhan (2012) who found significant differences between experienced teachers' attitude toward behavioral and instructional management of the classroom.

Familiarity with Cognitive Dimension of Reflective Teaching

The second dimension we dealt with in the questionnaire was cognitive aspect of reflective teaching which investigated issues including reading books or articles on language teaching, participation in workshops and conferences, carrying out research activities and so on. The results of this part for the first group of experienced teachers (1-5) showed that that 17 percent of teachers read books/articles related to effective teaching to improve their classroom performance. Furthermore, 14 percent of these teachers participate in workshops/conferences related to teaching/learning issues. Besides, only 17 percent of them think of writing articles based on their classroom experience. Too, 26 percent of teachers look at journal articles or search the internet to what the recent developments in teaching profession are. In addition, 11 percent of them carry out small scale research activities in their classes to become better informed of learning/teaching processes. Finally, 40 percent of teachers think of classroom events as potential research topics and think of finding a method for investigating them. The second group of experienced teachers (6-10) selected the items in the way that 21 percent of teachers read books/articles related to effective teaching to improve their classroom performance. In addition, 13 percent of these teachers participate in workshops/conferences related to teaching/learning issues. Too, only 42 percent of them think of writing articles based on their classroom experience. Besides, 28 percent of teachers look at journal articles or search the internet to what the recent developments in teaching profession are. Furthermore, 10 percent of them carry out small scale research activities in their classes to become better informed of learning/teaching processes. Finally, 42 percent of teachers think of classroom events as potential research topics and think of finding a method for investigating them. For the third group (11-15), however, the results showed that 19 percent of teachers read books/articles related to effective teaching to improve their classroom performance. Furthermore, 9 percent of these teachers participate in workshops/conferences related to teaching/learning issues. Besides, only 8 percent of them think of writing articles based on their classroom experience. Too, 11 percent of teachers look at journal articles or search the internet to what the recent developments in teaching profession are. In addition, 7 percent of them carry out small scale research activities in their classes to become better informed of learning/teaching processes. Finally, only 33 percent of teachers think of classroom events as potential research topics and think of finding a method for investigating them. Also, the results of this section for the fourth group (16-20) brought to light the fact that 6 percent of the teachers read books/articles related to effective teaching to improve their classroom performance. Too, 8 percent of these teachers participate in workshops/conferences related to teaching/learning issues. Furthermore, only 9 percent of them think of writing articles based on their classroom experience. Besides, 7 percent of teachers look at journal articles or search the internet to what the recent developments in teaching profession are. In addition, 6 percent of them carry out small scale research activities in their classes to become better informed of learning/teaching processes. Finally, 29 percent of teachers think of classroom events as potential research topics and think of finding a method for investigating them. Finally, the results of cognitive dimension showed that the fifth group of teachers (21-30) filled in the blanks with 5 percent of them reading books/articles related to effective teaching to improve their classroom performance. In addition, 6 percent of these

teachers participate in workshops/conferences related to teaching/learning issues. Too, only 11 percent of them think of writing articles based on their classroom experience. Besides, 10 percent of teachers look at journal articles or search the internet to what the recent developments in teaching profession are. Furthermore, only 6 percent of them carry out small scale research activities in their classes to become better informed of learning/teaching processes. Finally, 28 percent of teachers think of classroom events as potential research topics and think of finding a method for investigating them. The statistical analysis showed no significant difference among these 5 experience groups of teachers in practicing cognitive dimension of reflective teaching. The results of the study are contrary to Mahmoudi & Ozkan (2015) who found out that novice and experienced teachers differed in their preferences of development activities including factors touched in the above-studied dimension.

Familiarity with Affective Dimension of Reflective Teaching

The next dimension studied in this research was affective dimension. In this dimension the teacher searches through student's beliefs, cognitions, and personal styles of learning and backgrounds of their social living which may affect teaching method as well as its outcomes. The results showed that in the first group (1-5) of participants, 39 percent of the teachers talk to their students to learn about their learning styles and preferences. Also, 29 percent of them talk to their students to learn about their family backgrounds, hobbies, interests, and abilities. However, only 20 percent of these teachers ask their students whether they like a teaching task or not.

In addition, 19 percent of the second group of teachers (6-10) talk to their students to learn about their learning styles and preferences. Also, 26 percent of them talk to their students to learn about their family backgrounds, hobbies, interests, and abilities. Besides, only 17 percent of teachers ask their students whether they like a teaching task or not. Also, 19 percents of the teachers in the next group (11-15) talk to their students to learn about their learning styles and preferences. Too, 22 percent of them talk to their students to learn about their family backgrounds, hobbies, interests, and abilities. And again, 14 percent of these teachers ask their students whether they like a teaching task or not. The fourth group (16-20) answered differently to the items in the questionnaire with 83 percent of them talk to their students to learn about their learning styles and preferences. Furthermore, 22 percent of them talk to their students to learn about their family backgrounds, hobbies, interests, and abilities. Besides, 18 percent of these teachers ask their students whether they like a teaching task or not. In the last experience group (21-30) however, 13 percents of teachers talked to their students to learn about their learning styles and preferences. Also, 29 percent of them talk to their students to learn about their family backgrounds, hobbies, interests, and abilities. And last but not the least, only 12 percent of these teachers ask their students whether they like a teaching task or not. Again, the level of significant was not met by comparing 5 experience group of teachers in the third dimension of reflective teaching. These finding are not in congruence with Moradian & Ahamdi (2015) who argue that a positive relationship exists between years of professional experience and practicing reflective teaching as well as sense of self efficacy.

Familiarity with Meta-cognitive Dimension of Reflective Teaching

The fourth dimension of reflective teaching touched in the present questionnaire was meta-cognitive dimension including ideas such as philosophy of teaching, significance of teaching practice and finding out weaknesses and strengths of teaching by the teacher himself. Again, the same groups of experienced teachers were compared and the following details were obtained. In the first group (1-5), 35 percent of teachers think about their teaching philosophy and the way it is affecting their carrier. Too, 33 percent of them think of the ways their biography or their background affects the way they define themselves as a teacher. Besides, 55 percent of these teachers think of the meaning or significance of their job as a teacher. Furthermore, 43 percent of teachers try to find out which aspects of their teaching provide them with a sense of satisfaction. However, 31 percent of them think about their strengths and weaknesses as a teacher. In addition, 49 percent of teachers think of the positive/negative role they have had as a student and the way they have affected them in their practice. Finally, 28 percent of teachers think of inconsistencies and contradictions that occur in their classroom practice.

Also, 29 percent of the second group (6-10) think about their teaching philosophy and the way it is affecting their teaching. Too, 32 percent of them think of the ways their biography or their background affects the way they define themselves as a teacher. Besides, 48 percent of these teachers think of the meaning or significance of their job as a teacher. Furthermore, 50 percent of teachers try to find out which aspects of their teaching provide them with a sense of satisfaction. Also, 38 percent of them think about their strengths and weaknesses as a teacher. In addition, 42 percent of teachers think of the positive/negative role they have had as a student and the way they have affected them in their practice. Finally, only 29 percent of teachers think of inconsistencies and contradictions that occur in their classroom practice.

In the third group (11-15) of experience these result were 25, 29, 49, 48, 36, 41 and 24 percents respectively while these results in the fourth group were 27, 28, 49, 42, 39, 39 and 19 and in the last group were 26, 31, 45, 46 and 18, 27, 45, 39, 35, 32 and 17 respectively. The results, once more, showed no significant differences between groups of experience teachers in meta-cognitive dimension of reflective teaching. The results of the research are in line with Ghaslani (2015) who suggested that experience do not differentiate significantly the level of teachers' reflectivity.

Familiarity with Critical Dimension of Reflective Teaching

The last dimension of reflective teaching that was considered in the questionnaire was critical element including factors and variables such as finding out and discussing social injustice in the class, encouraging students to change the

surrounding environments and fighting against discriminating viewpoints, affecting aspects of teaching on students' political views, and so on. The results of this section for the first group (1-5) showed that 8 percent of teachers think about instances of social injustice in their own surroundings and try to discuss them in their classes. Besides, 8 percent of teachers think of ways to enable students to change their social lives in fighting poverty, discrimination, and gender bias. Furthermore, 12 percent of teachers include less discussed topics such as old age, AIDS, discrimination against women and minorities, and poverty in their teaching. In addition, only 8 percent of them think about the political aspects of their teaching and the way they may affect their students' political views. Too, 13 percent of them think of ways through which they can promote tolerance and democracy in their classes and in the society in general. Also, 10 percent of teachers think about the ways gender, social class, and race influence their students' achievements. Finally, only 31 percent of them think of outside social events that can influence their teaching inside the class. These results for other groups of teachers based on experience were pretty similar indicating unfamiliarity of Iranian teachers with this dimension of reflective thinking. The results of statistical analysis showed that there was no significant difference among different groups of experienced teachers in practicing critical dimension of reflective teaching. The findings are in sharp contrast with King Rice (2010) who argued that the impact of experience is higher at the beginning and start of teaching in educational environment and the ideology behind education.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study was an attempt to explore whether having different years of professional experience affects the level of reflection among Iranian EFL teachers. The results of this study brought to light two important facts. First, Iranian teachers are little familiar with different dimensions of reflective practice in their own carrier, if at all. Second, experience of teachers does not affect reflectivity among Iranian language teachers, although less experienced teachers; due to more recent in-service and pre-service training courses and educational content show more tendency and potential for doing reflective practice. The results of this study have implications for Language teachers, researchers and teacher trainers in Iran and abroad.

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From Classmates to Soulmates: Diary of an Educational Reincarnation in Critical Reflection-based Iranian EFL Classroom

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Abstract—The study narrated here is the diary of a community whose participants attended the class while they were going through critical reflection process, the process in which everyone experienced the same pathway of learning English. This Ethnographic project highlighted the life of five EFL Learners who were from the same ethnic background in Homa Town in Tehran. This was realized through observation and participation in learners' activities while the researchers were interviewing individuals on several occasions. In this paper the authors animate the steps they followed as every one of the learners developed as a whole instead of just academically. This happened when they were all treated as unique, important people whose spiritual growth, and self-knowledge in life were evolved.

Index Terms—critical reflection, diary study, cooperative competition, multi-sited ethnography

I. INTRODUCTION

On May 31st, at the bottom of the page sixteenth in the right corner of Iran Newspaper was a small item entitled "Critical Thinking, the Missing Link in Educational System" It entailed that in the formal educational system in Iran students are guided to the correct answers, and therefore participation, interaction, and proposing questions in particular are not the main concern. In this situation among wealth of information available, students have to only find the results and outcomes. In fact, they are not allowed to choose and be responsible for their own choices in solving problems. On the other hand, in order for the students to think critically and creatively to solve their problems, there should be a holistic approach to develop balanced individuals, (Latif, Ghafar, Libunao, Amin, and Peter, 2013).

To go into more detail, in Iranian educational system teachers do not engage learners in mutually active and responsive learning. Hence, Iranian EFL learners are always alienated from active and purposeful process of exploration and discovery which would give the opportunity for risk-taking, and adversarial views to be created. Then, critical reflection would pay further attention to this tenet for effective learning to take place. In this paper, we take a look at how learners drew meaning out of experiences while they were experiencing interpersonal relationships which played an important part in learning foreign language. To clarify the point, we would like to describe and document participants' differences in personality to deal with surroundings. Then, we intend to present our findings through stories of participants in the process while critical reflection makes any kind of difference in their personality in English processing information, in particular social issues.

In order to investigate the mechanism of transformation of classmates into soul mates, we would first narrate the story of how participants get together to contribute to the study, and how they consolidated themselves as an ethnic group. Then, we move to the main concern of this paper and tell a story of how the participants moved from diversity to university to create their own viewpoint toward social issues while they were in a democratic learning community where their participation, opinions and thoughts were all valued and respected.

II. BACKGROUND

Wishing to explain participants' world through stories, first we decided to have a clear meaning of just what Critical Reflection is, what it involves, and how it may be used. The reason behind this is when the idea is described and clarified from the perspective of a body of literature, these stories can be rationalized and legitimized.

From reading many of the works of literature, we chose to focus on the first major goal of our project-reflection. Reflection is a self-inquiry process which results in individuals' understandings of themselves in relation to the society (Panadit, 2011). It is considered as a form of individual development and Critical reflection is a route to collective action and a component of organizational learning and change (Gray, 2007). It actually leads to deeper understanding as well. Reflection occurs when a disorienting dilemma happens which requires individuals to question their previous

experience. Reflection happens when a concept is involved into personal knowledge structure or person's other forms of knowledge and experiences (Leung and Kember, 2003, as cited in Gray, 2007).

Moreover, individuals are different in styles of forming concepts, solving problems, and thinking specifically in relation to second language learning. These styles are a set of the information processing habits of an individual which is defined as personality dimension, a typical mode of thinking, remembering, and solving problems.

It is important to distinguish, however, between reflection and critical reflection. critical reflection was developed as central element in transformative learning theory. In transformative view in education, the acquisition of knowledge, skills, knowing, acting, even teaching are in holistic way which includes considering whole person as a human soul with mind, body, emotions, and spirit. The basis in this approach is to think in a complementary way. In fact, transformation is one of the aims of holistic education which refers to common process of encounter and investigating of life-based issues and challenges, (Schreiner, 2010). And, critical reflection, which focuses on whole person, actually involves revising interpretations of the meaning of an experience (frame of reference, habits of mind). It makes sense out of experiences which ends in learning. According to critical theory, critical reflection is a process which is different from day-to-day problem solving and concentrates on the evaluation of taken for granted social and political assumption which acts as a tool in learning process. Critical reflection inspires students to ask question, to explore, and to think and behave critically. In fact, problems involve critical thinking or creative thinking which needs team-based learning in which learners can learn more by experiences and active involvement rather than by observing. On the other hand, effective cooperation between the students positively makes them be reflective. It actually "leads to increased motivation, greater retention of knowledge, deeper understanding, and more positive attitude towards the subjects being taught" (Collins and O' Brien, 2003, as cited in Froyd and Simpson, 2008). Therefore, the use of critical reflection in cooperative education would increase the chances of learning (Lucas, 2012). The main point in learning process is acknowledgement and stimulation of student ideas and lack of criticism in the group. In this atmosphere there is a chance for the learners to learn independently and from one another effectively.

Through cooperation with others, learners are directly involved in the discovery of their own knowledge. Through the development of this discovery process, learners reflect on their thinking. They are actually encouraged to reflect on their own learning, share their insights with their peers. Accordingly, they can talk about more personal feelings or experiences while they are stimulated to apply new learning to real-life experiences. The end result would be meaningful performances in real-world contexts.

In this situation, "learners do not depend on their teachers all the time, waiting for instruction, words of approval, correction, advice, or praise" (Jones, 2007). As a matter of fact, the teacher supports learners to develop their language skills, while they are naturally considered a member of the class as a participant in the learning process. In fact, the teacher and students are a team working together in which a sense of belonging is grown in the members of the group.

Cooperatively taught students become autonomous and are not aspiring to please the teacher, or get a good mark. They make an effort to learn something. They are willing to cooperate with the teacher and others in the learning group and consciously monitor their own progress and make an effort to use opportunities to their benefit including classroom activities and homework, (Scharle & Szalso, 2000).

At last, the bulk of research that has been done in the process of critical reflection in cooperative education does not seem sufficient, and this area needs further transparency.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Characteristics of the Current Research Study*

The ability to convey meaning proficiently in written texts is a critical skill for academic and professional success. Hence, narration is recognized as an important and useful kind of composition for knowing and telling about the world. In fact, narrative inquiry stands up for deep understanding of experiences in a story-based form. It also can be in the form of autobiographies, diary studies, life history, and case studies. We position the work we are doing here as diary study, mainly because it is an inherent part of ethnographic research which has been developed in anthropological research. And, because studying people in their natural environment to understand their meaning and cultural practices would strongly support ethnography, we personally involved in the location and tried so hard to look at participants' world alongside them. "What are you thinking?" was the question mostly we used all through the sessions to make the participants have reflection on their own thoughts. Several intimate conversational interviews at the end of the sessions consisted our data collection procedures from which the stories were crafted. Meanwhile, we as the two observers watched, described, and kept a diary of events happening to collect the desired data for the work. Therefore, unexceptionally, at the end of each session, we recorded their stories as they happened. All the diaries went through individuals' experiences and how participants saw and interpreted themselves in different situations and time. Soon after, we both did our best to find private and noiseless place to get together to listen to the recorded voices, to discuss about the events, and finally to write about positive changes in participants' behaviors in detail. This narration also draws from variety of instruments including video and audio recording, and finally, surveys to help development of our project.

In this study, we were interested in the other much less common mode of ethnographic research which would be called multi-sited ethnography. The essence of this ethnography is to follow people, connections, and associations across space. According to Antony Falzon (2009), “It is about giving further contextual meaning to particular lives by demonstrating their integration within more inclusive social forms” (p. 5). Conventionally, ethnographers involve in a field site, but we intended to practice “variation on a theme”. Our observation for this work spanned over seven months. Four months of these time, we observed the participants when they had undergone treatment in fifteen sessions in an institute in autumn-winter 2012-2013 and the final seven sessions being when they were experiencing studying in Nahjolbalaghe Park for three months in summer 2013.

Our ethnography project started when we were detecting five of EFL students’ visages who looked to have come from the same culture and ethnic norms. They were actually living in the same geography (Homa Town) all of whom were teenagers ranging in age from 13 to 19. Having participants’ consents regarding using their real names in any kind of publication, we are allowed to use their names freely and with no limitation.

To commence the processes of information gathering, by the help of the secretary, we invited them to gather together and make an ethnic community in the Land of Progress institute. Subsequently, on November 22nd participants got down to the critical reflection process while we were carefully recording any progress in our diaries. Not long after starting the class, while watching students’ behaviors, they were consolidating their common cultural experiences (ethnic origin). Investigating different articles in sociology, we concluded the Figure 1 for peoples’ lifestyle model. This was actually inspired by Majidi, Nabavi, Behravan, and Hooshmandi s’ (2012) article.

Going through this model, we should start with people s’ values, opinions, and behaviors which would make their lifestyle in a way that their equal social status would be a great help to create these values, and opinions. Subsequently, equality in social status means having both the same financial investment and cultural heritage in ethnic communities which is all about having the same speaking manner and interests; in addition to, financial investments that directly is related to having real estate. Considering properties of community members, a kind of intra group concordance emerges in them which would result into having similar consuming patterns in that geography.

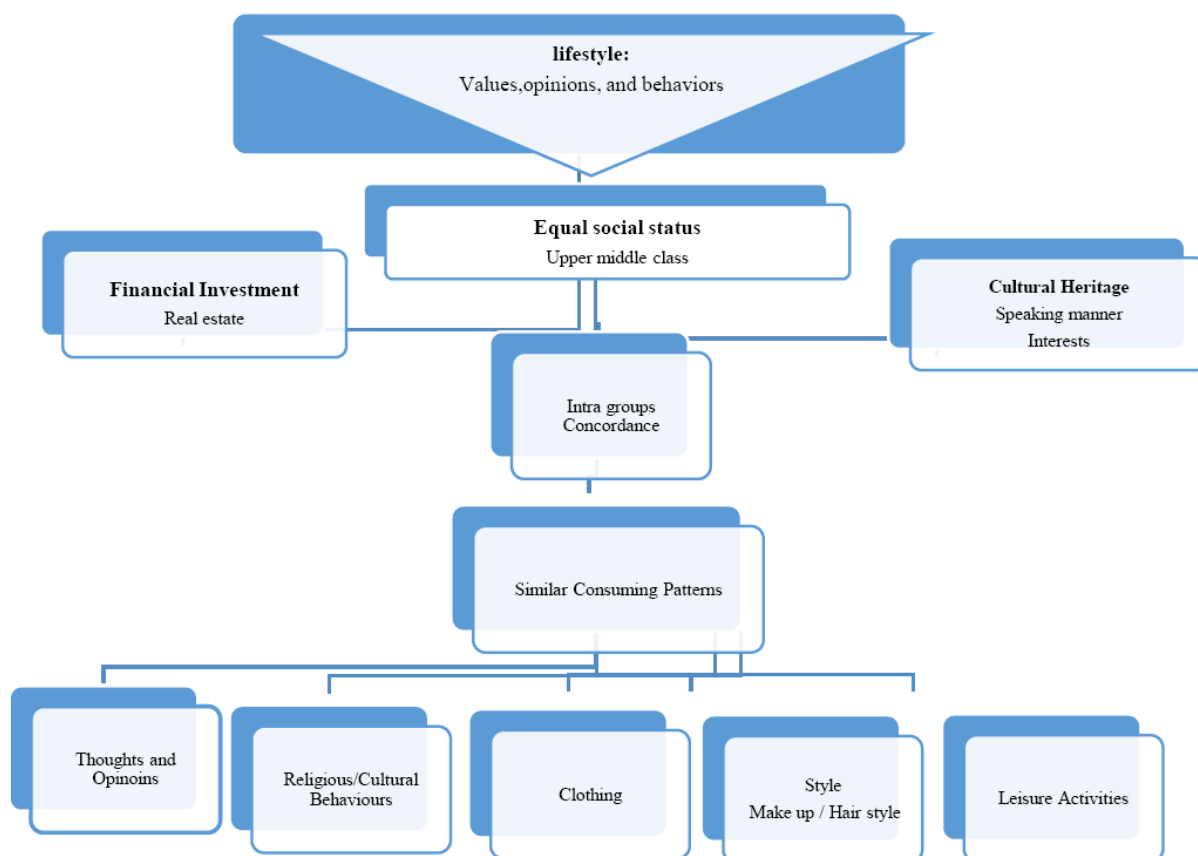


Figure 1. Participants’ Lifestyle model

Here are the examples of each one of the consuming patterns which perfectly demonstrate this ethnic community.

B. Thoughts and Opinions

On July 11th, students’ themselves realized how similar their parents’ attitude were regarding raising their kids. Sourena admitted that his father s’ way of thinking is very similar to Aidin’s father. Actually, their parents want them to behave as if they are older than their real age.

C. Religious and Cultural Behaviors

On December 20th, it became clear that Soheil and Sourena both, are coming from deeply religious families. Tapping Soheil's leg for getting his attention, he replied, "You are *namahram*, and you cannot touch me!" "Instead of tapping on his hand you are not allowed, you tap on his leg?" It was Sourena's reaction to this event. There is a huge gap in religious belief between these students and a student from Marzdarn, a place ten kilometers from Homa Town, named Ashkan who declared, "As far as you can tap his hand very easily, why are you tapping his leg?"

According to the findings, Homa Town is a place where there is a long-established mourning commission in which residents hold especial religious ceremonies for "*Moharam*" months every year.

On January 24th, Aidin was talking about the way he started his day. He said, "At five I woke up, and after prayer, I went out to get some bread for breakfast." The word *prayer* demonstrated that, he is also from religious family. This fact was manifested on sessions Thirteenth and Fourteenth for both Rojin and Hoorvash.

On December 4th, it was obvious that Rojin had trouble going back home in winter nights. Asking the reason, she declared that her family do not allow her to be out, due to probable dangers which threaten her at night. Talking to Aidin and Sourena on the way home, they confirmed whatever Rojin family believes.

D. Clothing

Throughout the process, and aside from the social status students possess, they did not have much variation in wearing clothes. In the writing course; for example, Soheil just wore one set of shoes, and carried just one bag; the exact situation both Aidin and Sourena were experiencing. Wearing just one scarf did happen for both Rojin and Hoorvash too.

E. Style: Make up / Hair

Not wearing much make up was an important fact in Rojin and Hoorvash's appearances. On March 6th, after Soheil's grandmother died, he shaved beard and moustache, and he got his hair cut too. Exactly the same thing happened to Sourena when his grandfather died.

F. Leisure Activities

On December 6th, when students were talking about spending time with their families in term-based class, Ashkan said, "I cannot have good time with my family, I mostly prefer to be with my friends." The way he was talking, was clear that he has not truly experienced family gathering. We turned to Aidin, Sourena, and Soheil, and they all preferred to spend most of their times, especially their leisure times with their families.

Even the way they go out is different. For example, Ashkan prefers to be with girls and go to different parties, but these three boys prefer to go to restaurant with their friends.

IV. DISCUSSION AND RESULT

Homa Ethnic Community's Life in EFL Classroom

In order to emphasize the importance of reflection in transformative learning in particular critical reflection, let us focus our attention on figure 2 which has to do with the general analysis of events that happened in the class. Simultaneously, we are going to discover the microscopic particles of reflection levels in the class by the help of figure 3 which is the result of detailed analysis of participants' transformation throughout their holistic learning process. It actually reviews the situations they coped with until they all converged on thinking. Considering participants' ethnic personalities, their linguistic performance, and finally critical reflection process, we would intend to narrate every step of these figures in detail.

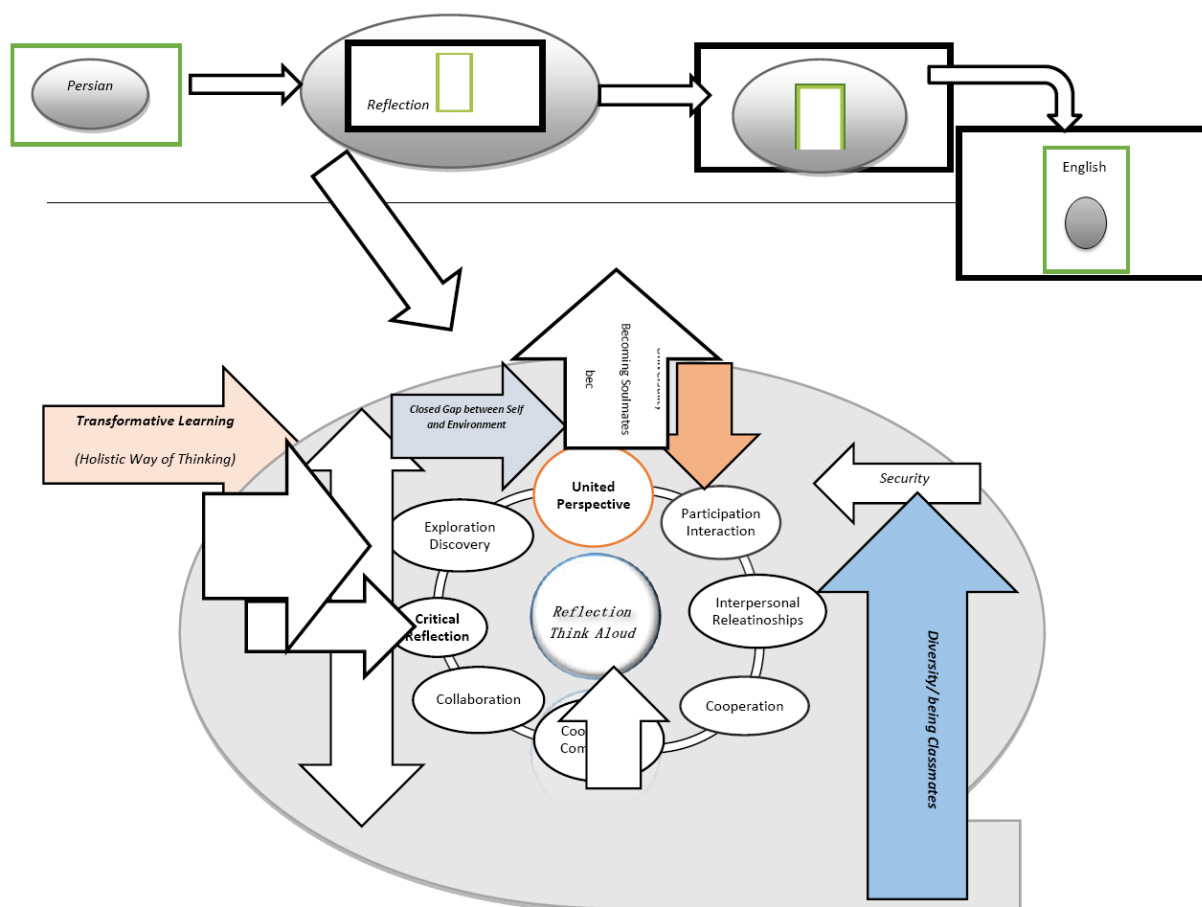


Figure 2. Reflection Level

In the beginning the first focus of ours, the two ethnographers/teachers, was to practice on reflection which would result in participants’ understanding of their own roles in a society (English Class). But, conducting the class time just in English officially stressed the participants in responding to events. The reaction to this atmosphere was their silence all the class time. Therefore, according to the figure, in the beginning participants showed no evidence of attempt to reflect. It was actually due to English domination in the class. Reflection in fact, provides the opportunity for participants to consider themselves as a member of the class, it makes them learn to talk and think clearly to discuss their thoughts and feelings. Nevertheless, ability to discuss thoughts is also important to have noticeable effect on critical reflection process.

For the purpose of reducing this stress resulted from very many English use, which became a kind of obstacle for us to achieve more (Reflection), we decided to switch to Persian (their Mother Tongue). Therefore, by the help of pictures, readings, and tasks we set a suitable opportunity for participants to talk both in English and Persian, mostly. To talk we mean making them tell the stories related to that specific topic in the text and think aloud what came to their mind the time they saw the pictures.

Concurrently, to build up good rapport between the participants, we both decided on commonalities. Based on the same geography they have been living and talking on locals, a kind of security feeling emerged in each one of them. From then on, there were interesting talks between the participants in the class time which was demonstrative of their inner thoughts and feelings.

Up to here, due to Persian domination in the class, non-reflection mode changed into understanding and reflective one. But, there was not very much evidence of participants’ interest in English use yet.

As a whole, it seemed like the more sessions passed, the more we were not the only authority in the class. Little by little, interpersonal relationships were developing among the whole class members including the teachers. We let them choose the order of events in the pictures, they all together were supposed to make a story out of them. The intention behind choosing this task was to let students themselves use their own creativity and imagination to deal with those pictures to have good reflection. Unfortunately, in Iranian educational system teachers are the only authority in the class and they decide for students’ thoughts, they actually control their minds. This task and Persian domination in it created an intimate, stress-free environment, in which participants were responsible for their own choices and learning which led the class to true cooperation, afterwards.

Working in a group, participants began to feel a sense cooperative competition. In this regard cooperation not competition was encouraged. Thus, stress-inducing competition was totally rejected by the participants themselves.

Generally speaking, there were not any scores students had earned for their performances all along the procedures. Bachman (1995) mentioned that due to not being able to measure individual's total performance in a given language, interpretations and uses made of scores may be invalid (p. 33). Frozen entity of numerical values attributed to the responses causes insalubrious competition among learners which introduces a long distance away from cooperative learning. As holistic education has put all its emphasis on collaboration, we tried our best to ignore scoring concept to compare students' progress with their own performance in order to put emphasis on collaboration, and not to underscore the noxious effect of competition on learners.

Consequently, the more sessions were passed, the more they realized that score did not have any play in the class. In their opinion, this was useful and unforgettable for the learning process they were engaged in. Due to this fact, whenever they felt they were going to be out of control in the class they notify each other about the situation they were in. They even felt more responsible for their classmates' learning. Or during the class time, whenever they had problems, one of the participants tried to make others understand as if they were taking teachers' place as their real teacher. In fact, they were making adorable effort to learn something. This was when the reflection became dominant in the class, but English was still in its marginal.

Therefore, working as a team, they began to feel a sense of community they all belonged to. The reason behind this was they were all important in each other's learning process, the process in which their total dedication to each other was so obvious. So, the result was collaboration which was perfectly seen in them. In fact, from many events had happened in that English class, one can see how these classmates became a kind of soulmates through holistic way of thinking. And, this resulted in creating viewpoint toward different issues, particularly social ones. Based on our scientifically documented analysis of viewpoint, there are two elements all of which are about giving the participants exposure to the social issues, and the products of attitude form some perceptions. Therefore, according to Deweyen notion of self we are convinced that a closed gap between oneself and one's environment would result in their self-realization (Ma,2009). The following plain procedure in figure 3 would perfectly explain the point.

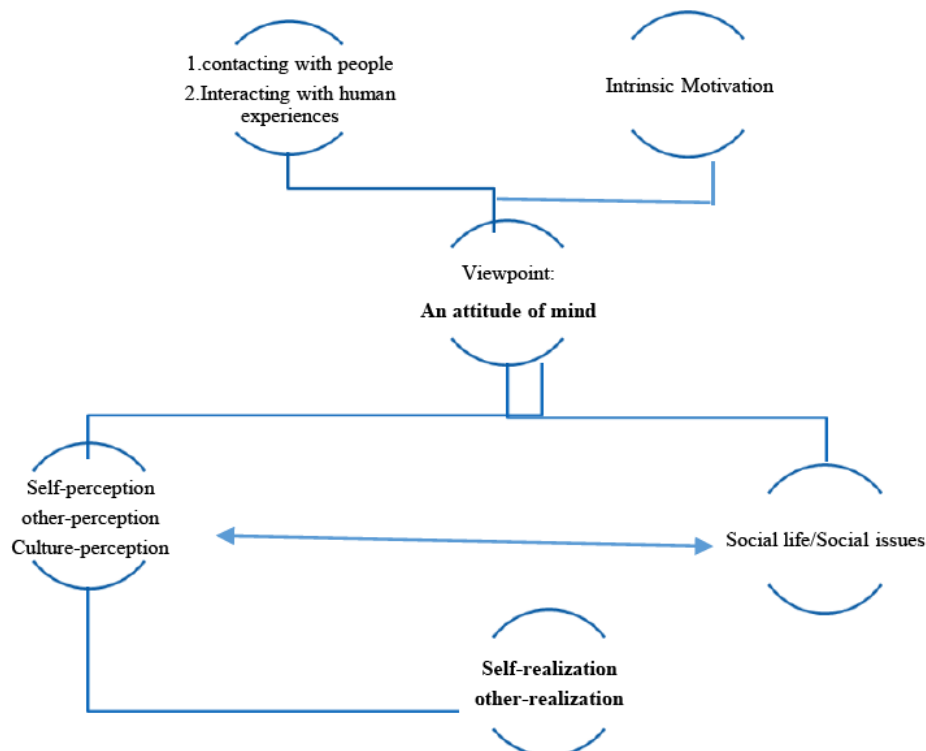


Figure 3. Viewpoint ingredients

Subsequently, after teaching English rules and providing rich input for the participants, and allowing them to choose English or Persian to use for the purpose of Critical Reflection, it seemed it was high time they were provided with the opportunity to improve their English speaking. We put this plan into practice, but they were supposed not to allow English to be an obstacle for them to express their thoughts. Therefore, when domination of reflection was so obvious, Persian was for the most part replaced by English.

Hence, with the help of mother tongue (Persian), participants felt secure and they could reflect their feelings, opinions, and ideas. When reflection became dominant in the class, the English language came into the scene. Therefore, Reflection became a motivation for them to learn English, and, even without any force, they went through English themselves to have reflection.

As we carried out this study, we encouraged cooperation, and after engaging participants in reflection, at around this time our project may have been entering a new phase. By adopting group discussion method based on different social subjects, we tried to involve these cooperatively taught participants in critical reflection process in order to discuss their thoughts and feelings for in-depth learning. In discussion times, whenever something would come to one's mind, they freely expressed it, and from our own side, in those situations we would prefer not to involve ourselves in their thoughts. Surprisingly, those thoughts resulted in challenging talks between them. Generally, the more we were going on, the more their thoughts become purposeful and critical.

V. CONCLUSION

As we carried out this project, we tried so hard to circulate around these participants to look at their social world alongside them all over those seven months. We as the two ethnographers/ teachers lived with these participants, through personal experiences we were involved in, to make it to the final.

We believe that engaging in Critical reflection would encourage active and purposeful process of exploration. On the one hand, this ethnographic study shows that the use of mother tongue would give rise to participants' feeling of security to take action confidently and effectively in the procedure of foreign language learning. On the other hand, what we have accomplished proves that facilitated, comfortable, and stress-free environment can develop caring relationships which would generate mutual understanding, empathy, trust, and respect between participants and the teachers. Thus, the end result would make learners work with each other not against each other in constructive cooperation in which participants could learn many things from each other to be empowered to provide their perspectives toward social issues. This happened when reflective talks in the classroom changed the participants' frame of reference which brought them new ways of defining their world and in particular themselves.

Through examination of our observations, we found that participants did not seek success in their peers' failure. The whole class was likened to a human body and the participants were compared with the organs of the body. For this body to survive, the participants worked in harmony with each other.

In this situation, although every participant attended the class with a different personality, conducting this ethnographic community holistically led everyone to experience the same pathway of learning English. All of them actually were developed as a whole instead of just academically. Thinking about the ways participants grew and learn, while they were all treated as unique, important people, spiritual growth, self-knowledge, and improvement in inner potentials for taking superior responsibilities in life were evolved. Surprisingly, the outcome was that all of the participants had united perspective toward social issues which resulted in actual learning.

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The Application of Projected Visuals in Teaching Collocations to Intermediate EFL Learners <i>Zohre Asgari Rad and Andisheh Saniei</i>	1136
Developing Communicative Competence for the Globalized Workplace in <i>English for Occupational Purposes</i> Course in China <i>Qing Xie</i>	1142
A Questionnaire and Model of Role Identity for Iranian English Language Teachers: A Structural Equation Modeling <i>Moslem Sadeghi and Rahman Sahragard</i>	1153
The Influence of Phonological and Grammatical Awareness on EFL Students' Reading Performance <i>Aliye Mohammad Jafari and Neda Fatehi Rad</i>	1164
A Study on Teaching Methods of Reading Comprehension Strategies by Comparison between TEM-4 Reading Comprehension and IELTS Academic Reading Comprehension <i>Qian Feng and Liping Chen</i>	1174
An Investigation of the Frequency of Occurrence of Passive Structures in Classical and Modern Persian Literature <i>Ahmad Sabouri Kashani, Marzie Taheri, Elham Fallah, Fatemeh Niknezhad, Saeideh Mansouri, Farzad Mahmoudi, Maryam Bagheri, and Fereshte Rahnavard</i>	1181
The Contribution of Word Webbing to Project-based Learning in Teaching Vocabulary: A Comparative Study in an EFL Context <i>Maryam Reisi and Andisheh Saniei</i>	1190
Construction of Hybrid Identity in Samuel Selvon's <i>The Lonely Londoners</i> and <i>Moses Ascending</i> <i>Tingxuan Liu</i>	1198
Language and Power: The Use of Persuasive Techniques in Iran and U.S. President Speeches <i>Sohrab Rezaei and Niloofar Nourali</i>	1203
Analysis of Language Needs of English Literature Majors: A Non-native Context Study <i>Ali Asghar Poorbehzadi and Mehdi Haseli Songhori</i>	1210
Semantic Map and HBV in English, Chinese and Korean—A Case Study of <i>hand</i> , 手 and 손 <i>Chengyu Nan</i>	1216
Investigating the Role of Experience in Reflective Practice of Iranian Language Teachers <i>Hooshang Khoshsima, Aminollah Shirnejad, Sajjad Farokhipour, and Jaseb Rezaei</i>	1224
From Classmates to Soulmates: Diary of an Educational Reincarnation in Critical Reflection-based Iranian EFL Classroom <i>Alireza Ameri and Fatemeh Mohammad Jafari</i>	1231
