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Contents

REGULAR PAPERS

- A Cross-linguistic Analysis of Interactive Metadiscourse Devices Employment in Native English and Arab ESL Academic Writings 1535
Ali Ayed S. Alshahrani
- Protest against Military Regime in Wole Soyinka's *King Baabu* 1543
Mashhoor Abdu Al-Moghales and Abdulrahman Mokbel Mahyoub Hezam
- Teacher Effectiveness, Educational Grade and English Achievement 1552
Ebrahim Khodadady and Beheshteh Shakhsi Dastgahian
- English in China: Foreignness, Consequences and Solutions 1563
Ping Tang
- The Pedagogical Influence of Interpersonal and Cognitive Discourse Markers on Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension 1570
Hossein Heidari Tabrizi and Ramin Vaezi
- Pronunciation as a Stumbling Block for the Saudi English Learners: An Analysis of the Problems and Some Remedies 1578
Paikar Fatima Mazhar Hameed and Mohammed Shariq Aslam
- An Experimental Study on the Impact(s) of Emotional Intelligence Enhancement on Answering Cloze Test among Iranian University Students 1586
Mohammad Reza Ebrahimi and Hooshang Khoshsima
- A Survey of the Status Quo of Business English Discipline in Universities in China: Take Universities in Shanxi Province as an Example 1594
Hailin Liu
- The Effects of Oral vs. Written Corrective Feedback on Iranian EFL Learners' Essay Writing 1601
Marjan Sobhani and Farhad Tayebipour
- Problems of English Language Acquisition in Saudi Arabia: An Exploratory-cum-remedial Study 1612
Ahmed Sulaiman Al-Nasser
- The Effects of Explicit and Implicit Instruction of Vocabulary through Reading on EFL Learners' Vocabulary Development 1620
Marzieh Khamesipour
-

Spelling Errors Analysis in College English Writing <i>Yanyan Liu</i>	1628
Analysing the Potential of Social Networking Sites on EFL Learners' Vocabulary Mastery: A Situated-learning Approach <i>Elham Nikbakht and Abbas Mehrabi Boshrabadi</i>	1635
On Grammatical Borrowing: The Case of Arabic Plurals in the Urdu Language <i>Anwar A. H. Al-Athwary</i>	1642
A Sociocultural Perspective on Everyday Interactions Stressing Grammatical vs. Communicative Competence: The Case of Iranian Taxi-discussions <i>Hamidreza Dowlatabadi and Leyli Jorfi</i>	1652
Power Struggle between the Adult and Child in <i>Alice's Adventures in Wonderland</i> <i>Aihong Ren</i>	1659
Challenges of Mediation Theory and Gender Differences in Iranian EFL Contexts <i>Morteza Mellati, Marzieh Khademi, and Parisa Etela</i>	1664
Let Them Toil to Learn: Implicit Feedback, Self-correction and Performance in EFL Writing <i>Salameh S. Mahmoud and Khaled K. Oraby</i>	1672
The Impact of Different Types of Tasks (Structured and Unstructured) on the Production of Relative Clauses and Lexical Diversity of Iranian EFL University Students <i>Maryam Miri</i>	1682
An Analysis of Pragmatic Functions of Hedging in American Presidential Inaugural Addresses <i>Yongqing Teng</i>	1688
An Investigation into the English Language Needs of Bank Employees of Saderat Bank in Mashhad <i>Sakineh Mohammadzadeh, Tahereh Barati, and Mohammad Ali Fatemi</i>	1695
Motivating Reluctant EFL Students to Talk in Class: Strategies and Tactics <i>Dawood Ahmed Mahdi</i>	1703
The Impact of Students Team Achievement Divisions (STAD) on Iranian EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension <i>Ali Akbar Khansir and Tahereh Alipour</i>	1710
The Application Study of Note-taking of Interpreting in College English Course <i>Yue Zhao</i>	1716
The Study of Learning Styles, Thinking Styles, and English Language Academic Self-efficacy among the Students of Islamic Azad University of Behbahan Considering Their Field of Study and Gender <i>Mohammadreza Negahi, Naser Nouri, and Alireza Khoram</i>	1722
The English Koranic Images in Some Literary Writings <i>Fahd Mohammed Taleb Saeed Al-Olaqi</i>	1730
EFL Practitioners' Perspectives on "The Prospect" Textbook: A Qualitative Study <i>Seyed Ali Ostovar-Namaghi and Marzieh Davari-Torshizi</i>	1741
An Analysis of the Causes and Countermeasures of Students' English Learning Weariness in Junior High School <i>Shuangshuang Wang</i>	1747
The Effect of Semantic Mapping Strategy Instruction on Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension <i>Touran Ahour and Sepideh Rafiei Sakhaei</i>	1754

A Cross-linguistic Analysis of Interactive Metadiscourse Devices Employment in Native English and Arab ESL Academic Writings

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Abstract—This study presents a qualitative, comparative study of interactive metadiscourse in the academic writing of two groups of Native speakers of English and Native speakers of Arabic doctorate students working in the field of linguistics. It investigates the writers' capability to deploy the propositional discourse and interpretations in a coherent and convincing way appropriate to the projected readers' comprehensive abilities. A small-scale sample of 80 'discussion' and 'conclusion' chapters constitutes this corpus. This small-size corpus aligns with the contemporary trends in corpus-based work in the fields of English where smaller, more focused corpora, which have been set up for a specific research or pedagogical purpose, are much more likely to yield insights that are directly relevant to teaching and learning for specific purposes. Using Hyland's (2005) interpersonal model of metadiscourse, the discussion and conclusion chapters have been compared to examine the influence of intercultural and local institute academic culture contexts on the writers' use of interactive metadiscourse devices. The findings revealed a significant influence of the local institute culture on the Arab academic writing in most of the interactive subcategories.

Index Terms—interactive metadiscourse, corpus-based approach, ESL writing, writer-reader interaction

I. INTRODUCTION

Academic writing is amongst the foremost concerns of postgraduate students (both native and non-native) throughout the world in their pursuit of an academic degree. Students in general strive to demonstrating their competence in conducting original research, presenting pertinent knowledge of research field literature and producing high-quality writing in the form of theses or dissertations to meet the demands of their departmental, institutional, and later, field micro-communities (Lee & Casal, 2014; Roberts & Cimasko, 2008; Li & Wharton, 2012). Theses and dissertations are distinctive genres due to their differing purpose, rhetorical structures, and immediate reader expectations (Thompson, 2013). Meeting these demands imposes a further burden on non-native English students who typically deploy the propositional content, as viewed from the writers' perspective, with little or no awareness of the audience presence (Tse & Hyland, 2009; Tardy, 2006).

Conversely, academic texts are not just lists of propositional content. They involve social and communicative engagement where the writer/author employs various linguistics devices to assist the reader in organizing, understanding, interpreting, evaluating and reacting to texts the way the author/writer intended (Crismore et al., 1993; Hyland, 2000; Vande & Kopple, 1985). These linguistic devices, which facilitate writer-reader interaction in negotiation of their meaning, are the meta-discourse markers. Metadiscourse markers do not add anything to the propositional content but are deployed to signal the writer's communicative intent by assisting the reader to organize, understand and assess the information presented (Crismore et al., 1993). They offer readers a way of understanding how a writer attempts to use certain language devices to direct a receiver's perception of the text and the writer's attitudes (Harris, 1991). They illuminate some aspects of how we project ourselves into our discourses by signaling our attitude towards both the content and the audience of the text (Hyland, 2005). Metadiscourse markers are viewed as the interpersonal resources used to organize coherently a discourse and convey its personality and credibility towards either its content or that of the reader (Hyland, 2005). Moreover, this meaning relays on integration of its component elements - both propositional discourse/content and metadiscoursal - which do not work independently of each other (Hyland, 2005).

Therefore, in order to gain a better understanding of the use of meta-discourse markers in the same genre of academic writings of graduate students with different mother tongue background within the same discipline (linguistics), this corpus-based study reports on a comparative analysis of metadiscourse use in doctorate thesis discussion and conclusion chapters written in English by Arab and American apprentice scholars.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A review of the literature pertaining to the use of meta-discourse markers in ESL/EFL writing reveals a large number of studies that have been conducted on the English language essays writing of Asian students. Most of these studies examine the employment of metadiscourse markers in Chinese ESL students' English essay writing such as (Deng,

2006 ; Li & Wharton, 2012; Jin, 2004; Liu, 2007; Luo, 2003; Wu, 2007; Xiong, 2007; Zhao, 2003); and in the essays written by Iranian ESL students (Crismore & Abdollezadeh, 2010; Simin & Tavangar 2009; Pooresfahani & Khajavy, 2012). Fewer studies have been conducted to investigate the broad use of metadiscourse markers in the academic writing of Arab ESL students. These studies include those of Al-Qahtani (2006), Btoosh & Taweel (2011), Hinkel (2005) and Sultan (2011).

Most of these Arab ESL writing studies concentrate on features of textual organization (contrastive rhetoric). For instance, Al-Qahtani's (2006) study investigates the differences and/or similarities between research article introductions written by Arab scholars who obtained their postgraduate degrees from the USA and their native English speaking counterparts. He builds a small corpus of 15 research article introductions written by Arab and American scholars in peer-reviewed professional journals in the field of educational psychology. The findings revealed broad differences in terms of textual section organization and the use of meta-discourse markers. Al-Qahtani notices the use of a milder tone to claim the importance of the topic by native English speakers, compared to the use of over-assertion devices to express a much more assertive tone by the Arab scholars. He also notices the use of repetition and parallelism patterns in the Arab scholars' texts. He refers their usage to first language interference being that Arab writers rely very heavily on circularity and repetitions to ensure clarity and prove persuasive to the reader.

The use of rhetorical features (specifically, inflation and over-assertion devices, verbal voices and polyphonic visibility) in Arab ESL learners and native speakers' academic writing is explored by Btoosh and Taweel (2011). This study attempts to uncover the differences between L1 Arabic English essay writings and native English speakers in terms of intensifiers related to inflation and hedges, casting light on the reasons underlying divergence in the Arab ESL learners' use of the target language features. The database for the study consists of two corpora; namely, the Interlanguage Corpus of Arab Students of English and the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays. Corpus data was tagged and analyzed digitally by using the *WordSmith* tool. Findings indicate that Arab ESL learners use more intensifiers and inflation devices than native speakers. Hedges and downtoners are used more frequently in native speakers' corpora than in Arab student corpora. The authors mainly attribute this fact to the manifested persuasive rhetorical functions that such devices play in Arabic discourse. The findings also revealed Arab learners' overuse of intensifiers, their underuse of the passive voice, and strong visibility in the text in comparison with their native English writers.

The employment of hedges and intensifiers in Arabic ESL academic writings was investigated by Hinkel amongst a diverse sample of 745 American and ESL students enrolled in four American universities in 2005. The participating ESL students spent at least three years on academic preparations to meet the English language proficiency level requirements for joining their academic programs. The corpus consisted of placement and diagnostic tests in class essays. The findings indicate that academic texts written by Arab students contain fewer epistemic and lexical hedging devices in comparison to the native speakers' writing. On the contrary, there is a higher possibility that hedges are present than with their counterpart American students. Hinkel attributes the lower use of hedge to the interference of the Arabic language which does not place a high value on hedges as a means of persuasion. The study also indicates that the use of downtoners in Arabic students' essays was similar to those encountered in native speakers' text, and a higher level of assertive pronouns and frequency adverbs were used in the texts in question.

Sultan's (2011) study examines the metadiscourse function of English and Arabic research articles on linguistics in order to identify culture differences. Sultan (2011) studies attempts to analyze interactive and interpersonal metadiscourse markers to establish points of similarities and differences between the English and Arabic languages and cultures. He focuses on identifying the cultural differences between English and Arabic-speaking researchers. He examines a small corpus of approximately 50,000 words from seventy 'discussion' sections of linguistics research articles written by different contemporary native speakers of English and Arabic between 2002 and 2009 period in Arabic and English refereed linguistics journals. The researcher uses Hyland's (2005) meta-discourse model to identify the different metadiscourse markers. The study results indicate that Arab linguists use most interactive and interpersonal metadiscourse markers more frequently than their English counterparts. Endophoric, evidential and self-mention markers are used more frequently in the English linguists' writing than those of the Arab authors. Sultan attributes this fact to the Arabic tendency to go to greater lengths to establish coherence in the text in order to assist the reader in comprehending the purpose of the text (2011).

To date, comparatively few studies have addressed Arab ESL students' use of some metalinguistic functions and devices; precisely, the use of textual conjunctions and transitions in Arab ESL academic texts from a rhetorical contrastive prospective. None of these studies has looked at how trained Arab ESL postgraduate students (PhD students) employ the full range of interactive and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in presenting their opinions and interpretations of the finding of their research through the discussion sections of their dissertations for developing a better L2 writing instruction. The current study is a corpus-based approach to analysis the Arabic postgraduate PhD's discussion sections. Hyland's (2005) interpersonal model of metadiscourse is used to portray a holistic picture of the Arab postgraduate writers' presence in their academic texts via the use of meta-discourse markers.

III. RESEARCH AIMS AND QUESTIONS

This paper aims to investigate the presence of interactive and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in the ‘discussion’ sections of academic writing by Arab postgraduate ESL students’. The present study has been conducted in order to add to the emerging literature about the use of meta-discourse markers in an ESL writing context. It is therefore an attempt to bridge these gaps in Arab ESL writing research. In order to achieve these aims, the study sought to answer the following research questions:

1- What were the similarities and differences in the use of interactive meta-discourse by Arab graduate writers and by equivalent native English writers?

2- Within each interactive subcategory, what were the differences in metadiscoursal elements use between Arab graduate writers and their native English counterpart?

Together, these questions not only furnish us with a detailed picture of how metadiscourse markers are used by these two groups of writers, but also cast light upon the areas of weakness in Arab ESL writings that should be taken in consideration while teaching advanced writing courses.

IV. MODEL OF ANALYSIS

This research adopts Hyland’s model of meta-discourse markers as the basis for identifying the similarities and differences of use by Arab and English writers. The model is divided into two main categories of interactive and interpersonal metadiscourse markers. Each category consists of five sub-group sets.

Interactive Metadiscourse Markers

Interactive markers empower the writer to deploy propositional discourse and writers’ interpretations in a coherent and convincing way appropriate to that of the projected readers’ comprehensive abilities. They are grouped into five sub-types:

1. Transitions Markers

These markers are used to show different semantic relations with the text. Their main function is to draw the reader’s attention to steps of argument in the discourse and so help in shaping his or her understanding of the text. Transitions include three sub-categories: additive (additionally, also), comparative (although, however) and consequence (as a result, nonetheless) markers. Some examples of these subcategories from the data are:

(1) Her criterion relies on the presence or absence of an equivalent in the other variety. *Additionally*, I take into consideration the phrasal and sociolinguistic/semantic context of the term.

(2) The terminology that we generally use to describe the structure of a building is very limited. *Although* it is difficult to claim that the nature of the source...

(3) ... the communicative value of the utterance at the expense of the semantic form. *Nonetheless*, this optimistic assumption instantly clashes with his rendition of the Arabic phrase.

2. Frame Markers

Frame markers function as an indicator of the change in the writer’s order of discourse or steps of arguments. They help the reader to identify textual boundaries and the shift of arguments which successively make the discourse clear for the target reader. This category includes sequencers (in chapter x); stage labels (all in all); announce goals (aim/goal); and topic shifters (back to). The following are examples of these subcategories:

(1) ...the situational analysis *in Chapter 6* illustrated, a great deal of variation exists as to the various sections...

(2) ...capture or to relay the intended or the desired message to his TL audience. *All in all*, Davies has used many strategies while rendering...

(3) One major *aim* of this work has been to consider the impact of hegemonic structures...

(4) Going *back to* Figure 9.4 in Chapter 9, we see that Dimension 2 is actually a very strong descriptor of qualitative...

3. Endophoric Markers

Endophoric markers act to provide guidance for the reader’s understanding of the text by signifying a relation to other parts of the text. Their aim is to facilitate comprehension and support the reader’s interpretations of the text. Endophoric markers include two main sub-categories: non-linear (Figure X), linear (in section). Some examples of these sub-categories drawn from the data are:

(1) These comparisons are summarized in *Figure 4.2*

(2) This technique was applied in *Section 10.2.2* above in the interpretation of the characteristic features of theoretical articles

4. Evidentials

These are metalinguistic resources to cite an idea within the discourse community-based literature. These resources are essential in supporting the writer’s command of the course of argument and consequently enables the reader to understand the discourse. Evidential markers are categorized into integral and non-integral citation markers, represented in the following examples from the data:

(1) This corroborated the findings reported by previous studies on the acoustic correlates of emphasis (Card, 1983; Al-Masri and Jongman, 2004)...

(2) ... they should be removed from instructional content according to Clark and Mayer (2003)

5. Code Glosses

Code glosses briefly represent previous propositional information in a new format with further explanation to ensure reader's attainment of the writer's proposed meaning. These elaborations help to contribute to the creation of coherent, reader-friendly prose, while conveying the writer's audience-sensitivity and relationship to the discourse (Hyland, 2007). Code glosses include reformulation and exemplification markers, as illustrated in these two examples:

(1) Several factors that promoted agency *such as* reaching milestones, using literacy tools, life experiences, and forging strong identities...

(2) Almost all of the stimuli sounded more Southern than they did rural. *In other words*, Stacy is identified as being more or less Southern in the stimuli...

V. RESEARCH METHODS

A. Building the Corpus

The study aims to investigate the similarities and differences of meta-discourse (interactive and interpersonal) markers by analyzing a specific textual corpus that can reveal connections between linguistic features (interactive and interpersonal metadiscourse markers) and contexts of use (presenting the writers' interpretations and attitudes to the target community-based readers). The discussion and conclusion chapters of a doctorate dissertation are appropriate pieces of academic writing for constructing the corpus as they represent the writer's interpretation of the findings and link them with the current literature in a logical and clear form. Therefore, the corpus consists of 80 discussion and conclusion chapters randomly selected from recent linguistics dissertations written in English by Arab and Native English graduate students (henceforth, ArbWDCs and NEWDCs) between 2011 and 2014, taken from the ProQuest Dissertations & Theses (PQDT) database. It is to be presumed that these dissertations followed the academic conventions. Authors' family names were the indicator used to determine the linguists' mother tongue background for these selected dissertations. They are organized into two sub-corpora: Arabic Writers' Discussion and Conclusion chapters (ArbWDCs) and Native English Writers' Discussion and Conclusion chapters (NEWDCs) to form an electronic corpus of almost half a million (471554) words. The corpus description is provided in Table 1.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTION OF THE CORPUS

	NEWDCS	ArbWDCs
Number of chapters	40	40
Length of texts (Range)	4313 - 16488	2958 - 11687
Average Length of chapters	6220	5570
Total number of words	248784	222770

The dissertations were electronically downloaded, labeled and saved as TXT files. The next step was to select the discussion and conclusion chapters, while the remaining chapters, references, and appendixes in both subcorpora were removed. Chapter titles, section headers, and graphics were removed from each of the selected chapters. The small-scale of this corpus aligns with the contemporary trends in corpus-based work in the fields of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) where smaller, more focused corpora, which have been set up for a specific research or pedagogical purpose, are much more likely to yield insights directly relevant to teaching and learning for specific purposes. The corpus assembled satisfies Moreno's (2008) criteria of corpus comparison by drawing upon similar contextual factors such as genre, discipline, the writers' level of expertise and other dimensions.

B. Data Coding and Analysis

Wordsmith (v. 6.0.0.186, Scott, 2012), a text analysis and concordance tool, was used to examine the data for potential metadiscoursal items and labels within the chosen chunks of text. The concordances were then meticulously analyzed in their context to endorse that they serve specific functions as metadiscourse markers. For instance, the topic shifter marker *back to* acts as metadiscourse in Example 7 and as part of the content in Example 14.

(1) This issue dates *back to* the age of Pan-Arabism era six decades ago.

The identified metadiscoursal instances were normalized to occurrences per 10,000 words to facilitate statistical treatment. Chi-square statistical analysis tests were performed to compare the use of metadiscoursal categories and subcategories in these two sub corpora to determine whether the differences in the occurrences were significant. The significance level was established at <0.05.

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 2 illustrates the vital role of meta-discourse markers in empowering the writer to deploy the propositional discourse and its interpretations in a coherent and convincing way appropriate to that of the projected discourse. It also indicates that both corpora contain more interactive metadiscourse (50.83%; 57.57%) than interpersonal markers (49.17%; 42.43%) respectively, which is consistent with previous studies investigating met discourse use in theses and dissertations (see Hyland, 2004; Lee & Casal, 2014).

TABLE 2
METADISDISCOURSE USE BY THE TWO GROUPS

	NEWDCs	ArbWDCs
Number of words	248784	222770
Number of Metadiscourse Markers	25914	19142
Number of Interactive Markers per 10,000 words	529.75	484.54
Proportion of total met discourse	50.83%	57.57%
Number of Interpersonal Markers per 10,000 words	513.22	358.07
Proportion of total metadiscourse	49.2%	42.5%

A. *Similarities and Differences in Interactive Metadiscourse Use between Arab Graduate Writers and Native English Writers*

TABLE 3
COMPARISON OF INTERACTIVE METADISDISCOURSE IN THE TWO CORPORA

	NEWDCs			ArbWDCs		
	Tokens	per 10,000 words	%	Tokens	per 10,000 words	%
Interactive Markers	13186	529.57	50.83%	10978	484.54	57.57%
Transition	7296	293.03	28.10%	6299	279.33	33.15%
Frame Markers	2035	81.73	07.84%	1640	71.93	08.54%
Evidential	1640	65.86	06.32%	882	38.68	04.60%
Endophoric Markers	1031	41.39	03.97%	1033	45.3	05.38%
Code Glosses	1184	47.55	04.60%	1124	49.3	05.90%

The results of the analysis of the two corpora indicate that writers in both the groups are similar in using transition markers and Frame Markers in both corpora as shown in Table 3. Transitions are obviously the most commonly used interactive linguistic device. Transition markers constitute nearly one-third of the interactive met discourse markers in both corpora (33.15% of ArbWDCs and 28.1% of the NEWDCs). The use of these high frequencies in transitions pinpoint the writer's concern in guiding readers through these dense chapters to areas of argument in the discourse, so helping to shape his or her understanding of the text. Framework markers are the second most used category in Native English and Arab PhD writing corpora with less than one tenth of the total interactive devices (7.84% and 8.54% respectively). These small frequency levels of frame markers use in both groups signpost the text boundaries and the shift of arguments, which successively make the discourse clear for the target reader. Table 3 also shows differences between writers in these two groups in using the remaining three discourse groups of evidentials, code glosses and endophoric markers. Evidential interactive devices should be understood as the third interactive category used in the English native group with 6.32%, followed by code glosses and finally by endophoric markers as highly uncommon interactive devices with 4.6% and 3.97 respectively. The Arab writers' group has a different order. Code glosses form the third category of interactive devices used in graduate students' academic writings, with a 5.9% proportion of the total metadiscourse. Endophoric markers follow with about 5.4%, while evidential devices are the least used discourse devices with 4.6% of the total metadiscoursal markers in the ArbWDCs corpus.

The high frequency use of transition markers by NE and Arab ESL writers in this study echoes with the findings of interactive metadiscourse markers used by Hong Kong Chinese academic dissertations (Hyland, 2004) and with Spanish language theses (Lee & Casal, 2014). However, the remaining interactive categories vary in the frequency of their use in these three studies of graduate students' dissertations, as shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4
COMPARISON OF METADISDISCOURSE FINDINGS WITH SIMILAR STUDIES

	The study Findings		HYLAND (2004)	LEE & CASAL (2014)
Sample Size	471554 WORDS		4,000,000 WORDS	670463 WORDS
Writers LI	ENGLISH	ARABIC	HONG KONG CHINESE	ENGLISH & SPANISH
disciplines	Soft (Linguistics)		Soft & Hard	Hard (Engineering)
Graduate Level	PhD		PhD & MA	MA
Frequent use High ↓ Low	Transition	Transition	Transitions	Transitions
	Frame Markers	Frame Markers	Evidentials	Endophorics
	Evidential	Code glosses	Code glosses	Code glosses
	Endophorics	Endophorics	Frame markers	Frame markers
	Code glosses	Evidentials	Endophorics	Evidentials

These differences in the frequency of level of use of these four interactive categories are related to disciplinary variation between soft (e.g. linguistics, public Administration,) and hard disciplines (e.g. Engineering, Computer Science, Biology), and substantial differences between the length and format of theses and dissertations.

B. *Within Each Interactive Subcategory, What Were the Differences in the Use of Metadiscoursal Elements between Arab Graduate Writers and Their Native English Counterpart?*

A further analysis of the data was conducted to provide a holistic image of which of these interactive devices within each subcategory portray the difference in use between these two corpora.

1. Transition Markers

TABLE 5
COMPARISON OF TRANSITION TYPES USE IN THE TWO CORPORA

Transition Type	NEWDCs			ArbWDCs		
	Tokens	per 10,000 words	%	Tokens	per 10,000 words	%
Addition	4515	181.33	61.9%	3902	174.2	62.3%
Comparison	1748	70.3	24%	1372	60.17	21.6%
Consequence	1033	41.3	14%	1025	44.96	16.1%

The NEWDCs corpus comprises of higher occurrences of transitions than the ArbWDCs corpus, consistent with the literature on English writers' rhetorical features providing explicit guidance to the reader in her navigation through the discourse. Table 5 shows marginally more frequent use of the transition additive and comparative devices than the Arab writers' corpus. These findings also show English writers' preference for a progressive style over the retrogressive style previously used, one that employs more additive devices than comparative and consequence devices. Arab writers also employed the same progressive style over the retrogressive style with approximately the same ratio (2:1) as a result of using the same writing genre to meet the demands of their departmental, institutional, field micro-communities (Lee & Casal, 2014; Roberts & Cimasko, 2008; Li & Wharton, 2012). Differences in the frequency use of these transition devices in these three sub-categories are to be attributed to divergent degrees of experience in composing research genres between the writers in the two corpora and between novice and expert L2 writers in the ArbWDCs group (Hyland, 2008).

2. Frame Markers

Frame marker devices are the second most common used interactive categories in both groups. As shown in Table 6, the Native English writers used the frame markers more frequently in the four subcategories than in the Arabic writers' corpus. Sequences are the most frequently used devices with almost half of the share of the frame markers used in both groups, followed by topic shifters constituting more than two-third of the frame markers total portions (71.17% and 79.8%) respectively. These findings suggest that writers in both groups employ these linguistic devices to signpost internal organization, text boundaries and the shift of arguments, all of which make the discourse clear for the target reader. Findings indicate a large difference (2:1) in the use of stage labeling devices in the NEWDCs corpus in comparison with that within the ArbWDCs corpus. Announcing goal is the least used frame marker devices in both groups.

TABLE 6
COMPARISON OF FRAME MARKERS SUB-CATEGORIES USE IN THE TWO CORPORA

Frame Marker Sub-categories	NEWDCs			ArbWDCs		
	Tokens	Per 10,000 words	%	Tokens	Per 10,000 words	%
Sequences	939	37.7	46.13%	847	37.15	51.7%
Announce goals	281	11.3	13.83%	173	7.59	10.5%
Stage Labeling	305	12.25	15%	159	6.97	9.7%
Topic Shifters	510	20.48	25.04	461	20.22	28.1%

3. Evidentials

Evidentials are amongst the least represented interactive met discourse devices in the English (6.32%) and the Arabic subcorpora (4.6%). This is due to only the the discussion and conclusion chapters being included in this corpus. In these two chapters, writers vary in using evidential devices to establish credentials (i.e. support their stances). The findings indicate a difference in evidential use by writers in both corpora. As shown in Table 7, the English corpora used twice as many evidentials as the Arabic writers (65.86 to 38.68 per 10,000 words), in explaining the findings and in justifying their claims and conclusions by establishing more rigorous intertextual support with previous research represented in the previous chapters of their dissertations and theses (Hyland, 2004; Lee & Casal, 2014).

TABLE 7
COMPARISON OF EVIDENTIAL SUBCATEGORIES USE IN THE TWO CORPORA

Evidential Types	NEWDCs			ArbWDCs		
	Tokens	Per 10,000 words	%	Tokens	Per 10,000 words	%
Integral citation	103	4.14	6.3%	94	4.12	10.8%
Non-integral citation	1537	61.72	93.7%	788	34.56	89.2%

4. Endophoric Markers

Despite endophorics' essential role in guiding readers' understanding of the text and signifying to other parts of the text in order to facilitate comprehension and support the writers' interpretations of the text, they are very infrequently used interactive metadiscourse in both corpora (less than 5.5%). The Arabic corpus used slightly more endophoric devices than the English Corpus, as illustrated in Table 8. The non-linear and linear low reflexivity endophoric subcategories are mostly used in the Arabic corpus, while the linear devices at the sentence level and linear low reflexivity are the most frequently used in the English corpus.

TABLE 8
COMPARISON OF ENDOPHORIC MARKER SUB-CATEGORIES IN THE ENGLISH AND ARABIC CORPORA.

Endophoric Markers Types	NEWDCs			ArbWDCs		
	Tokens	Per 10,000 words	%	Tokens	Per 10,000 words	%
Non-linear	348	13.97	33.7%	283	12.41	27.4%
Linear chapter/section level	211	8.47	20.5%	133	5.83	12.9%
linear sentence level	207	8.31	20.1%	315	13.82	30.5%
linear low-reflexivity	265	10.64	25.7%	302	13.24	29.2%

5. Code Gloss Markers

Code glosses are the least frequent interactive metadiscourse category found in the English Category (4%). On the contrary, the Arabic writers' corpus is constituted of more gloss subcategories (6%). The findings presented in Table 9 reveal much more frequent use of exemplifications devices than reformulations in English and Arabic corpora (64% and 57% respectively). Hyland (2007) elucidates that soft fields, such as linguistics, use more examples to reconstruct contexts for a broader readership with less of a shared background. Although reformulation devices serve a paramount function in explaining, elaborating and rephrasing the statement to help the readers understand the main ideas of a text, as devices they are less frequently used. Lee & Casal (2014) attribute this trend to a lingua-culture influence.

TABLE 9
COMPARISON OF ENDOPHORIC MARKER SUB-CATEGORIES IN BOTH CORPORA

Code Glosses Types	NEWDCs			ArbWDCs		
	Tokens	Per 10,000 words	%	Tokens	Per 10,000 words	%
Reformulation	429	17.23	36.24%	481	21.1	42.8%
Exemplification	755	30.32	63.76%	643	28.2	57.2%

VII. CONCLUSION

The findings of this study indicate that, in terms of academic writing, Arab graduate writings appear to be influenced by the discipline of particular genres and the expectations of the institute and examiners of producing successful dissertations. However, Arab writers' L1 interference view of the writer's role is reflected in their use of limited number of transitions, frame markers and evidentials. The native English writers, on the contrary, employ greater transitions, frame markers and evidential devices to assist the reader to navigate through the texts. These results are in line with the previous studies that compared theses and dissertations written both by Native English and non-native writers such as Hyland (2004) and Lee and Casal (2014).

VIII. RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

The findings of the analysis here show a variation in the Arab writers' use of interactive devices, one that should be taken into considerations by teachers during the English Learning/preparation programs (ELP). Students should be provided with extensive training and detailed feedback in reference to their use of these devices in their academic writing courses at ELP advanced levels.

Limitations and Possibilities for Further Research

The present study investigated the use of interactive metadiscourse markers in a specific-genre context (linguistics) by examining small-size sample corpora. These findings therefore serve as a trigger for an ambitious researcher to pursue further projects examining large corpora covering whole chapters of dissertations. Further research could investigate the use of these met discourse markers by Arab writers in two different institutional culture contexts (Home country vs English-speaking community) and between different disciplines (soft vs hard disciplines).

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Protest against Military Regime in Wole Soyinka's *King Baabu*

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Abstract—This paper identifies some issues related to military regime in Nigeria and Wole Soyinka's protest against them, as dramatized in *King Baabu* (2001). Soyinka evokes his people to revolt against the antidemocratic tendencies and the manipulation of army leaders who attempt to control and contain the public through various means in order to remain in power. The paper discusses Soyinka's revolt and protest against the authoritative power which have become explicit, direct, and continuous as the only means to bring about a positive change and to curb the corruption of the military dictatorship or to make this phenomenon controllable. Protest has assisted Nigeria to turn to democracy after the death of Sani Abacha (b. 1943) in 1998, mainly because of the opposition activists and the protesting voices. Soyinka has emphasized that the end of a tyrant like *King Baabu* is miserable and disgusting, which is contrasted to the strength of the rebels, a message that Soyinka wants his audience to understand in order to establish civilian rule and democracy. The paper concludes on Soyinka's note of victory of the protesters against their tyrant, a revolutionary spirit to call people to bring back what belongs to them and drive away what threatens their peace.

Index Terms—protest, military rule, Nigeria, Wole Soyinka, *King Baabu*

I. BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Politics has been a central theme in literature right from the Greek literature, through medieval age and up till modern times. It has been of great significance and occupied a central position in all forms of literary production. Writers cannot escape from the political, social and intellectual realities of their society. "A writer has no choice", Ngugi Wa Thiong'o wrote in his preface to *Writers in Politics*, "whether or not he is aware of it, his works reflect one or more aspects of the intense economic, political, cultural and ideological struggles in society" (Thiong'o, 1981, p. xi). The writer must meet the challenge of his time and strive to tell the people the truth of the time, and reflect in his works the sense and spirit of the time that shaped his sensibility. He must give articulation to "a consciousness of his time that he shares with the group of which historical circumstances (class, period, perspective) makes him a part" (Said, 2002, pp. 42-3). As far as drama is concerned, political themes have attracted the attention of generations of dramatists. From Aristophanes's *Lysistrata* which was performed in Athens in 411 BC to Bertolt Brecht's *Mother Courage and her Children* (1939), politics has been a major theme in many plays. Writers of the Third World are more influenced by politics because of several reasons. Therefore, when one studies a Third World writer, one must see him as a social being conditioned by the politico-economic circumstances of his times. Some critics have referred to what they call "the political dimension" in the literatures of the Third World. Fredric Jameson, for example, says that, "the story of the private individual destiny is always an allegory of the embattled situation of the public third-world culture and society" (Jameson, 1986, p. 69) This is clearly found in the works of Soyinka which he used to voice his political and social views.

Protest is a kind of objection through action, words or texts to certain undesirable forces and practices that might be dominant or imposed on the public. Protest has been a common mean of opposition to inhumanities, injustices, inequality and indecent living. The purpose of protest is to reform the ills of any particular society because "it engages social issues immediate to the moment ... in order to reshape the audience's consciousness" (RUBIN-WILLS, 2005). Many protests have prevailed in many countries against tyranny, dictatorship and unjust political systems and tyrants especially in the Third world countries. Writers use their works as a platform for political protest. In addition to many Nigerian and African writers, Wole Soyinka has written a huge bulk of protest dramas such as *Madmen and Specialists* (1970), *Death and the King's Horseman* (1975), *Opera Wonyosi* (1977), *A Play of Giants* (1984), *The Beatification of Area Boy* (1996), and recently *King Baabu* (2001). Soyinka is a political activist and an ardent writer who has led many protest campaigns against colonial powers and the African and Nigerian military dictators. He has been against the abuse of power and corrupt political regimes which caused havoc to the Nigerian society. Through his writings, he tried to incite his people to question the prevailing issues in his country in order to unite them against their common cause. It

is true that “there is no power without potential refusal or revolt” (Death, 2010, p. 238). But to what extent can refusal and revolt be effective to produce profitable results? The answer to this question and other related issues will be elaborated below.

Many totalitarian regimes use many tricks to repress the opposing voices. Yet, those regimes do not last for long and collapse at the end as dramatized in *King Baabu*. Abacha, the recent Nigerian military dictator, whom Soyinka criticizes in the play is an example. He exercised power on his nation, tortured human right activists, exiled and sentenced active writers to death, as stated in Soyinka’s famous works:

Soyinka was able to skip the country, and he further infuriated Abacha with essay *The open Sore of a Continent: A personal narrative of the Nigerian Crisis* (1996) and the play *The Beatification of the Area Boy* (1996), an enactment of Abacha’s bloody slum clearance operation in Lagos. He added to his anti-Abacha repertoire the play *King Baabu* (2000), also a satire on the dictator’s ignominious rule. The grotesquely inhuman General Basha Bash of Guatu seizes power in a coup and gives himself the title King Baabu (Owomoyela, 2008, pp. 167-68)

Soyinka has been unhappy with Nigeria after independence because of its African leaders who are supposed to help their nations overcome the evils of colonialism and contribute to their present malaise (Owomoyela, 2008, p. 169). In a meeting with African leaders in Britain, Soyinka says more on this crucial issue by which he encourages his nation to fight and to be aware of:

It was clear they were more concerned with the mechanisms for stepping into the shoes of the departing colonial masters, enjoying the same privileges, inserting themselves in that axial position toward the rest of the community. I saw the most naked and brutal signs of alienation of the ruler from the ruled, from the very first crop. And I realized the enemy within was going to be far more problematic than the external, easily recognized enemy. (Jaggi, 94/95, p. 55)

The ‘recognized enemy’ of the people according to Soyinka are the military generals who have caused a halt to Nigeria in all levels and have increased the gap between the ruler and the ruled, between democracy and dictatorship. Abuses of power and corruption have become so common for many decades. Majority of military generals have not stood a trial for their tyranny, corruption or abuse of power in some African countries. If a trial takes place against any military tyrant, he is acquitted either due to lack of evidence or any other reasons. Nigeria has witnessed many human rights violations by military rulers, but no one of them is convicted or found guilty. Abacha, the last military tyrant, was supposed to stand a trial for killing innocent people, but he was declared dead of natural causes, probably of a heart attack.

Many civilian and military leaders have ruled Nigeria alternatively till the reign of Sani Abacha. This demonstrates that the Nigerian nation has attempted several times to establish a democratic state based on equality and social justice. Unlike many African countries where the military rule has continued for a long time, Nigeria has managed to turn to democracy in 1999 after several military coups. The reason could be attributed to such great writers and humanists such as Soyinka, who exerted their efforts to weaken, reduce and, if possible, eliminate the power of authoritative regimes. Soyinka protests against the evils of power and its immediate effect on different walks of life. He has been committed to promote democracy by opposing the military regime. He has always been in trouble and has been exiled for many years. It is only when Nigeria turns to democracy after the death of Sani Abacha in 1998; Soyinka is back again to his homeland. The opposition activists and the protest voices have succeeded to keep the civilian rule for at least a decade till this moment.

William Over also points out some of the human rights violations, during the reign of Abacha, when “the Ogoni Nine, including Ken Saro Wiwa, were publically hanged before the world media” (2010, p. 174). This action has been taken to hold back the activists and crush the massive demonstrations organized against the government. Seldak also shows how activists and political writers react to this unjust murder of innocent people and how the authority deals with their opposition in return:

After the judicial murder of Ken Saro-Wiwa and eight other Ogoni activists, Wole Soyinka renews his appeals to international institutions (eg, the Commonwealth Conference) to boycott the Nigerian regime, this at the cost of his having his house near Lagos devastated by soldiers and secret police. (2001, p. 54)

People during the rule of Sani Abacha have been severely punished so that people have started to feel that the colonialists were better as pointed below by Jauhari and Seldak:

The pinnacle of this authoritarianism was observed during the military rule of Abacha (1993-1998) with the public execution of Ken Saro Wiwa and other eight non-violent human rights activist from Ogoni on trumped up charges. The colonial system of law was relatively less authoritarian. (Jauhari, 2011, p. 54)

Following a series of arson attacks on military and police installations. Wole Soyinka, along with fourteen other pro-democracy activists, is accused of terrorism and treason and put on trial before a Lagos High Court. (Seldak, 2001, p. 54)

Soyinka has been obsessed with this gruesome event that has shocked the nation. Ken Saro-Wiwa’s final questioning to his nation before he was hanged blames the nation for being the cause of this unspeakable crime: “Why are you people doing this to me? ... What sort of a nation is this? What sort of a nation is it that permits this? What sort of a nation is this, within which I take my definition” (Soyinka, 1996, p. 149)?

Soyinka in “King Baabu and the Renaissance Vision” presented at the university of Cape Town focuses on African condition in general and Nigeria in particular. He criticizes the power manifested through the reign of many military

tyrants who ruled Nigeria for many decades. Some of the leaders who have been nationals have turned to be lustful for power. Soyinka in his talk has shown his loathe for those leaders who have been the cause of deterioration in Nigeria in all spheres of life. This stance has been present through many of his works, for example, in *Madmen and Specialists* (1974), he attacks the system of 'As' which refers to the corrupt power that dominates and exploits people and blocks the way for any change. His endless strive to provoke people's aversion against their corrupt leaders can be traced in *A Play of Giants* (1984) and *The Jero Brothers* (1969) as well.

In real situations of protests and rebellions, Soyinka suffers as he struggles against oppression, tyranny and abhorrent practices of Sani Abacha. Soyinka gets arrested and tried for an action he has been involved in (JEYIFO, 2003, p. 7). The action above refers to the famous radio station 'happening' of 1965 when a young man managed to make his way into the studios for live broadcasts at the Ibadan buildings of Nigerian Broadcasting Service to force broadcast a pre-recorded message on behalf of 'free Nigeria' (JEYIFO, 2003, pp. 6-7). Another situation which shows Soyinka's political activism is the General Strike, which led to the collapse of the first post-independence civilian regime in Nigeria and entailed a call for a popular uprising, totally endorsed by Soyinka, to institute a workers' social-democratic order to replace the government of Abubakar Tafawa Balewa (JEYIFO, 2003, p. 9).

Soyinka has not been happy since the inception of the African independence due to the succession of one military leader after another. He has not noticed any progression or any remarkable transformation to democracy. Therefore, Soyinka has continued to voice his protest against military rule which controls the public with an iron fist. This tyranny, represented by King Baabu and his previous archetypes, has killed many people. Abacha has killed thinkers, writers and activists such as Ken Saro-Wiwa so that he keeps the state safe against any attempt threatening his reign. Biodun Jeyifo describes Soyinka's political activism against Abacha and the charges with treason against Soyinka and other external opposition leaders (JEYIFO, 2003, p. 9).

Since the era of African independence, as Soyinka stresses in his paper delivered at the university of Cape Town, the succession of one King Baabu after another has marked the political landscape of the continent (Soyinka, 2004, p. 13). Such kind of political regimes has proliferated in many African and Asian countries after the end of the colonial powers. The main reason behind political unrest, economic deterioration and poverty is colonialism which could be regarded as an external cause for the failure of the colonized states. But, what agonizes writers and activists such as Soyinka is the blunder of its native leaders who might be worse than their masters.

What Soyinka has kept criticizing is not only confined to Nigeria, but to many nations in different parts of the African continent. In this regard, Soyinka proves himself a universal writer who protests against tyranny of military rule. His play *King Baabu* deals with a common issue prevailing in countries like Tunisia, Egypt, Libya and Yemen. During the Arab World Spring, people have started protesting against their leaders who have been army generals like Abacha, whom Soyinka portrays in his play. The same political regimes have produced the same military leaders who have ruled their nations for many decades with the same tools and means. People have attempted to overthrow the military regime and establish a state based on democracy, but their struggle has been wasted and failed to attain their desired goals. The old regime is back to power again. This is what has happened in Nigeria, as well, when Sani Abacha has succeeded to get to power thwarting people's hope for a democratic state. Thus, Soyinka protests against King Baabu and calls for resistance as long as King Baabu looms around. His words are worth quoting in this regard:

The African resistance remains a chimera as long as one King Baabu remains among us, his existence rationalized, indeed condoned and consolidated through silence – thus enshrining the cynicism of power either in the management of resources or of political alienation. (Soyinka, 2004, p. 13)

It is true that "satirists all over the world have been accused of exposing, lampooning and ridiculing the societal ills without exorcising them" (Patrick, 1997, p. 31). This is also true of Soyinka to some extent due to the rigidity of the postcolonial regime he protests against. He begins as a satirist in the early stages of his writing. But, when he has not observed any change of any kind in the right direction, the intensity of his protest has increased and has started attacking prominent dictators in his late writings. If the expected change happens, it is temporary and swiftly goes back to its old state. This is because the post-colonial countries are dominated with social and political evils and it is difficult to defeat due to the colonial legacy. Soyinka, therefore, believes that a writer has to be an active politician for a swift change in society, "the real solution to dictatorship will only be achieved when artists become politicians" (Willough, 2002, p. para 16). This means that a writer has to expect censorship, jails and accusation as a counterattack to silence the voices of protest as happened to Soyinka. Contradictory to this, Ebewo states that "satire's results, if any, come through a slow and gradual process" (Patrick, 1997, p. 33) which is true in the Nigerian context. The fruitful results have taken place after many decades of satirical writings, protests that have provoked the public against the masters of tyranny. It is around fifty years of continuous struggle to curb corruption and establish democracy in Nigeria.

The struggle against the dictators within Nigeria needs profound intellectual talents to formulate the right directions for their native nations. This struggle has to be beyond personal interests or any political promises. This is what one notices in Soyinka's career as a writer and an activist. He has never surrendered and has always been against what is called 'internal colonialism'. These words express the attitude of Soyinka in his struggle against the dictators, "Africans ... had only exchanged monkeys for baboons. What made the situation galling was that in most cases, yesterday's celebrated freedom fighter had become today's remarkable tyrant" (Williams, 1998, p. 289).

II. PROTEST IN *KING BAABU*

King Baabu can be described as a talk for the nation of Nigeria and the African continent to protest against the evils of military rule. Soyinka's love for his nation has been with him since his early stages of his life. He is concerned with his nation as a whole. In *The Open Sore of A Continent*, Soyinka narrates how Nigeria declined to military dictatorship after independence from the colonial powers. Under such a military despot, i.e., Sani Abacha, the nation has undergone hideous crimes against humanity.

Replicating an important period of the Nigerian history, Soyinka parodies the Nigerian condition during the atrocities of Sani Abacha as reflected in *King Baabu* through the military leaders in the play like Potipoo and Basha who resemble Ernest Shonekan and Sani Abacha respectively. Shonekan was appointed as temporary president of Nigeria by Gen. Ibrahim Babangida in 1993. A reference to this dictator is the portrait that has been thrown into rubbish by the shrewd wife of Gen. Basha, Maariya. This portrait belongs to Gen. Babangida who legalized political parties and elections which were annulled by him later and allowed only two political parties to participate. Due to protests and strikes which deteriorated economic activities, Babangida stepped aside and handed the government to Ernest Shonekan. His presidency lasted only for three months because Gen. Sani Abacha led a coup putting an end to a democratic state bringing it back to control under military administration.

A. *Military Corruption and Conspiracy*

The dialogue of Potipoo with the civilians on democracy reflects Soyinka's satirist view of those dictators. It shows how these leaders have been running the country through coups and counter coups and how these leaders deal with each other. Potipoo seems to be optimistic when he takes over the power thinking that he can establish the first step for democracy. He believes that the military rule will disappear:

Potipoo: Now the Devine Ruler has seen fit to place the reins of this nation in our hands, we must move to earn the trust of the people, and of God... by the way that the word Military is missing in that title for the first time in the history of coups d'état in this nation. (Soyinka, 2002, p. 11)

Potipoo continues to speak to the civilians that the military leaders are affected by the democratic virus and that democracy has become the language of the world (Soyinka, 2002, p. 12). He promises to eradicate the wrong practices and the corruption prevailing in the Nigerian society. It seems from the context of the play, which is a parody of the Nigerian society, that Potipoo faces political and economic crises due to the corruption of the ex-presidents. He begins to fight corruption from within:

We must take the lead. I propose therefore that all officers assigned to political and administrative duties must begin with a public declaration of their assets. (*Deafening silence.*) you do understand what I mean – bank accounts local and foreign, business interests, property, stocks and shares etc. (Soyinka, 2002, pp. 12-13)

This is the leader who can lead the country in the right direction, which Soyinka dreams of. But, as the play progresses, the reverse takes place. This is what the wife of Basha confirms earlier, "fair is foul and foul is fair" (Soyinka, 2002, p. 10). This president will not live long since many looters and power-hungry people are looming around. The conspiracy against the constituted authority begins when the meeting is going on with Potipoo. The new leader as well as the civilians insist that the military institution needs an audit. They are thinking of planting vast lands to fulfil the orders 'fill the stomach campaign'. A palace coup has been already planned by Maariya through a forged intelligence report about mutiny to "derail the military transition program to democracy" (Soyinka, 2002, p. 20). It is a recurrent event in Nigeria as well as in the developing nations. Although Nigeria has tried to overthrow the military rule to turn to democracy, conspiracy has halted this transition and brings it back to the old regime.

As a part of his protest, Soyinka focuses on important issues that can make his community better if they transform and fertilize the vast lands and use it to grow crops, fruits and vegetables. His social and economic vision is manifested in Scene II where he deals with issues to economy and agriculture. He draws the attention of the audience to the human power which also could be transformed towards land and its natural resources instead of wasting money and oil revenues on army. This proves Soyinka's protest against the misuse of natural resources in Nigeria. He knows that Nigeria suffers from what economists refer to as the 'resources curse' as Uwem Affiah points out (Uwem, 2012, p. 285). Soyinka criticizes this in *King Baabu* through contrasting the corrupt officials, army generals and their close associates with the poor public who are starved to death living in straitened circumstances. The 'resources curse' is when the majority of people are living in utter poverty while the leaders enjoy and spend the enormous wealth which comes from different natural resources of the country. Controlling the country resources under the power of military leaders means subjugating and weakening the public, as *King Baabu* does. He claims to reform the economy of the country by taking advantage of the banks and the income institution.

King Baabu attempts to resolve the economic sabotage by reforming the polices of some banks. With this, Soyinka has introduced to his audience how leaders can corrupt and can immediately influence the economy. A banker offers a cheque of "fifty million dollars ... payable in hard currency" (Soyinka, 2002, p. 55), to which *King Baabu* replies, "just signature at the bottom if you don't mind. We will fill the rest later" (Soyinka, 2002, p. 55).

B. *Lust for Power & Tyranny vs. Democracy*

The third Scene of the play is dramatic and provoking because it exposes Maariya's determination and shrewdness to persuade her husband to act according to the forged intelligence report to crush the claimed mutiny. She plays the role of Lady Macbeth who plans how her husband should act. Her husband hesitates because of his loyalty to Gen. Potipoo.

An important issue which appears in this scene is Soyinka's satirical view of the military generals who don't care for their family as they do for promotions and military ranks. Although no one seems to sympathize with Maariya for her evil desires and the dirty games she is pushing her husband to, Soyinka reveals the cruel nature of the army man when they think about demotion or military disgrace. Basha tells her that he will reveal the plot to Gen. Potipoo before he discovers it.

Basha: I tell him you send me the note to get me to cause rebellion and unrest and I strangle you myself. I carry your dead body to cabinet meeting in my strong arms with tears dripping down my face and drenching my ribbons and medals and I say to Potipoo, look, I love my wife but I love my commander-in-Chief more. (Soyinka, 2002, p. 22)

Soyinka explores how military generals act to ensure their security when they topple the rule. After Basha's wife ignites his desire with these words, "when the Council resumes its meetings, guess who'll be presiding" (Soyinka, 2002, p. 23), Basha gets worried about the next step after deposing Gen. Potipoo since he has many loyalists. If Basha succeeds, he has to silence the opposing voices as Macbeth did exactly with the loyalists of King Duncan. Soyinka also makes a reference to the crimes that Sani Abacha has committed during and before he takes over the rule. His wife states that he has led many coups and has killed around nine people under the orders of others. She explicitly justifies the killing of Potipoo since it is for the sake of her husband, Basha, the future King.

Protest and sarcasm against military leaders are conveyed through Maariya. Through her, Soyinka criticizes the military regime. She reveals one of the tricks practiced by military leaders against each other in the name of democracy. Basha and his wife mobilize the masses to protest for army audit and in this case Potipoo cannot stand against the voice of the masses as Maariya states, "When the labour sneezes, watch even the army catch cold" (Soyinka, 2002, p. 27). Since masses can easily change and reverse the common affairs of a nation, Maariya exploits them to support her husband. She knows their needs; therefore, she distributes envelopes containing money to influential leaders to arrange for a coup against the former president. Gen. Basha arranges the preparations for the coup and announces that Gen. Potipoo has placed him in charge of all troops to put down the insurrection. Till this moment no one knows what is the fate of Potipoo except that he is forced away to safety. Basha is preparing to broadcast "the news of an attempted mutiny [which] is dangerous for our programme of transition to democracy" (Soyinka, 2002, p. 34). The speech, the technicians and the station are ready. He reassures the nation that he is fighting the dangers against democracy because he knows that the nation is looking for a real transition to democracy. Basha and his close associates control the scene through forcing their brothers-in-arms to accept what they propose. They use Gen. Potipoo, who is under home detention, to pass forced decrees and promotions which support their situation:

... those who disagree with authority are mutineers and only one answer to mutineer. ... It get signature of General Potipoo himself at bottom, so everything is, as saying goes, very legitimate. We promise that there will be no more coups in the nation, and there is no coup, only a change of command. (Soyinka, 2002, p. 34)

Soyinka has been a relentless protester against military rule. He has joined street demonstrations demanding democratic rule and social justice. He knows the fake promises and tricks of military rulers who get to power. They turn their promises to mirage and they become more tyrannical than before. He wants them to understand that leaders such as Abacha makes a revolution by claiming to fight the fake insurrection plotted by his wife in order to establish a Kingdom based on dictatorship, as Georg Orwell points out, "We know that no one ever seizes power with the intention of relinquishing it. Power is not a means, it is an end. One does not establish a dictatorship in order to safeguard a revolution; one makes the revolution in order to establish the dictatorship" (Orwell, 1954, p. 217).

People have suffered from the dictatorship of the military rulers and revolted against this regime to turn it to democracy. Baabu promised them to be a democratic leader at the end of Act I. Soyinka in Act II again satirizes Army leaders. General Basha, who transforms his name to King Baabu, establishes an open court to resolve the complaints of the people and to minimize the distance between the ruler and the ruled, as he states in the beginning of Scene I. This kind of mockery is exposed to the audience in the subsequent scenes of the drama. Will King Baabu establish justice to his people or will he be worse than earlier leaders? Or is he going to make the people pay for their attempted revolution?

Soyinka introduces King Baabu in the second Act to ridicule the leaders who cannot do away with their old habits and their lust for power. They cannot be accountable to their people because they feel that it is accountability which reduces their power. That is why King Baabu has broken his promise to be a civilian ruler and begins to exercise his power instead. He uses various remedies to continue in his throne for a long time. He makes the conflicts more visible to the people so that they can believe him easily. He creates fake mutinies and unrest in some parts of the country in order to justify his mission against his foes. This appears as a threat against social peace and harmony. With these steps, Baabu attempts to be an authorized power to resolve the conflicts that appear "more essential than mere clashes of interest or mere institutional blockages" (Death, 2010, p. 248). He continues through his reign to create unrest and violence so that he keeps people busy with their own problems. This is a common practice of tyrannical leaders throughout history. Like many rulers such as Mohammad bin Tughlaq (1290-1351), a Muslim ruler of Indian and Al-Hakim bi-Amr Allah (985-1021), a Fatimi ruler of Egypt, King Baabu uses similar remedies to protect himself

against the threats of the public, as described by Soyinka, “What are the remedies most readily applied by King Baabu whenever he feels threatened? We are all familiar with them. He resorts to religion, ethnic, or racial incitement, mouthing a rhetorical commitment to the goals of social transformation” (Soyinka, 2004, p. 13).

Soyinka blames the leaders who once have been liberation fighters and National leaders, but later have become aspirant to the crown of King Baabu (Soyinka, 2004, p. 12). Soyinka is certain that it is the sense of irresponsibility and hunt for power of the Nigerian leaders which are behind the miserable situation of his nation. He considers the elected leader of a nation to be the principal custodian of its laws (Soyinka, 2004, p. 13). But, what happens when a leader “evokes racial animosities simply in order to incite his followers to take the law into their hands over any issue” (Soyinka, 2004, p. 13)? Baabu has taken the law into his hand thinking that he can control the rest of the nation. He makes laws which do not apply to him. He claims to have an open court, yet it is he who passes judgments based on his whims and personal interests. This leads to hostile actions against him due to the endless suffering of the people as expressed in the dialogue of the people who feel guilty of being on his side in the past:

Rent: Our people are groaning.

Dope: The heavens are weeping.

Rent: The earth is wailing.

Dope: The very stones are bleeding.

Rent: Our ancestors have spoken. Their anger is in the thunder.

Dope: Their lamentations are rains of fire.

Rent: Our shrines are desecrated.

Dope: Our women violated (*They exchange glances.*) Indeed, why hide it? (Soyinka, 2002, pp. 88-89)

C. *Language of the Protesters vs. Language of the Tyrant*

Through the words of the crowds in Scene V, Soyinka reflects the attitude and apprehensions of the commoners toward the army generals. Maariya is clever and knows that people won't accept Generals, therefore, she tells her husband to change his military dress as a welcome note to democracy. She wants him to fool the people and show his readiness for a transition for democracy. But, these people have had enough of the army generals and are ready to continue their protest. The words of the crowd truthfully expresses Soyinka's detest and hatred for such military regime as the crowd shout before Gen. Basha appears:

Crowd: Enough of Army rascals.

Down with Rajinda

Down with Potipoo

Away with Basha Bash

Down with the Army

Long live Democracy (Soyinka, 2002, p. 41)

The language of the masses above reflects their protest against the army but their attitude begin to decline in front of the tactics and the language of Basha, his officials and his agents. Tutor who has a PhD in popular psychology attempts to persuade them to listen to Gen. Basha who is introduced to them as “the champion of the oppressed” (Soyinka, 2002, p. 41). He dances in front of the public without his military uniform to make them feel that he is open and democratic so that they accept him as their new leader and not a coup maker. He speaks to them that he is the voice of “the new democracy ... and regent of the new democratic order” (Soyinka, 2002, pp. 43-44). But the masses are not satisfied with Gen. Basha's plan to take over the rule because of his military background. They suspect his intention to be to a civilian leader, “the Army again on the threshold of power. You are bringing in the military through the backdoor. ... It is another military wolf in sheep's clothing” (Soyinka, 2002, p. 42). Although the crowd feel that it is a trick of the military in a new robe of democracy, they succumb and King Baabu continues to rule.

Towards the end of Scene V, the language of control defeats the language of protest. Instead of shouting ‘enough with army rascals’, protesters proclaim “Long live Pa Baabu. Long live Baabu the Bountiful” (Soyinka, 2002, p. 48). It appears that the crowd has succeeded in changing the ‘physical appearance’ of General Basha who affirms that he is an ordinary person like them and as poor as a church mouse. He also changes his name to Baabu which means nothing to please the crowd to trick them that he is ready for a positive change. He can accept any kind of humiliation at this stage for the sake of power, but he will make them pay for this later, as he states.

He who has the language of control and the tactics of manipulation often wins the battle as Basha does many times. Basha has won the crowd not because of his language but because of his tricks and forged banknotes. Soyinka warns his audience of the distorted language of leaders which will lead to a corrupt power and then a collapse of the society. Leaders such as Basha, as Soyinka stresses at the end of Scene V, twist and change the tone of their language in order to mislead and distort the public so that they will not be able to understand the real intention behind their words:

Basha: Basha bash is dead!

...

Basha: Speaking to you is the voice of the new democracy.

...

Basha: Who am I? Me, I think I beginning not to know myself. I common man like grass roots. Like humble grass, I village, but good goatherd, know how to look after goats. But also good Army record. Get nothing of my own to boast of. Look. (*Proceeds to turn out his pockets.*) See for yourself. Empty. Nothing. Baabu. (Soyinka, 2002, pp. 43-44)

To obstruct this kind of distortion which may creep into the public as happened with the protesters, audience has to remain solid and unified against any attempt to break their solidarity or to distort their minds. Soyinka, therefore, drives his audience to think that if the crowd remains strong and consistent in the face of Basha, they won't suffer another reign of tyranny.

D. *Dehumanizing Effect of Power and the End of the Dictator*

In the manner of Shakespeare's *Macbeth*, Soyinka portrays King Baabu as Macbeth who feels insecure due to his tyrannical rule and the killings of innocent people. King Baabu speaks to the people about "much dissenting and opposition and complaining and demonstration and so forth spite of democracy" (Soyinka, 2002, p. 58). Baabu's insecurity appears when he listens attentively to the words of the spiritual advisors, Oriental and Marabout, who are similar in their role to the witches in *Macbeth*. They warn him, "you must beware woman ... Avoid female impurities ... you need to make pilgrimage to the shrine of Kali" (Soyinka, 2002, pp. 58-59).

These predictions of the spiritual advisors prepare and encourage King Baabu to be firm and resolute to deal a knock to the opposition. The predictions also pose a warning to him because they are difficult for him to fulfil. If he wants to succeed in his mission and his rule to continue, he must "sit on the skin of a freshly sacrificed spotless white he-goat for forty days and forty nights. A new one will be scarified each day and Baabu must consume its testicles" (Soyinka, 2002, p. 60). He also must give up human kindness as Macbeth did in order to kill the king. Marabout keeps on putting more difficult prescriptions for Baabu to follow if he wants his dynasty to last forever without a break, "Send out you foragers far to a field to find forty hunchbacks and forty albinos. The albinos will be buried alive, with padlocks through their lips. That guarantees that no voices shall be raised in protest at anything you do" (Soyinka, 2002, p. 62).

According to Marabout, the hunchbacks contain elixir of power. He suggests to King Baabu to chain them to wall and starve them till they become bones and skin. After that they will reduce the core to ashes and then Baabu can use a spoonful of the powder in his stew every day. This powder will give him the power to rule and the power to bend others to his will. This is the result of the dehumanizing effects of power which Soyinka opposes in many of his writings and in his campaigns after the Nigerian independence. Baabu, a developed copy of General Basha in Act I who promised people to be democratic, promotes himself to a king who thinks of conquering the whole continent. Power of these leaders cannot be reduced or contained easily by the public as Soyinka depicts through the character of King Baabu.

Dr Bero in *Madmen and Specialists* (1974) derives his power from bending nature to his will and from dehumanizing others. He feeds on the flesh of human beings and eats their human guts and testicles and tricks others to eat them as well. He gets rid of the last human tie ,i.e., his father. Similarly, King Baabu in Act II is derailed of his humanity and enjoys the suffering of his fellow human beings as he watches the amputations of the prisoners with ecstasy, "Get more fun hearing groans of pleasure" (Soyinka, 2002, p. 101). Soyinka describes the scene while Baabu watches, "The amputations continue, rhythmically, ritualistically. As a basket fills up, it is replaced" (Soyinka, 2002, p. 101). Baabu has also been using children, women, hostages and priests as human shields in his battle against his opposition to deter his enemies from achieving the targets. These dehumanizing activities have given King Baabu a chance to win the battle several times. It is a dirty game that can be played against the opposition.

Soyinka describes the rule of Abacha as the worst period in the Nigerian history. He is not happy with it and warns the people, "When Abacha took over from the interim government in November 1993, I warned that he would prove more ruthless than any dictator we have endured the nation till now" (Soyinka, 1996, p. 15). In the second Act of King Baabu, Soyinka portrays the crisis and the degeneration of human values on the part of Baabu. He has become more savage than before. Using the language of Shakespeare's *Macbeth*,

Double double toil and trouble
fire burn and cauldron bubble
by the prickling of the thumb

Something wicked comes this way (Soyinka, 2002, p. 66),

Soyinka foreshadows the events during the rule of King Baabu. As seen above, he has been cruel and revengeful which will bring his downfall, the end of every dictator. Soyinka uses similar atmosphere to that of Macbeth's when he is surrounded by the rebels tightening the hold around him. Baabu is in the same dilemma as a result of his unnatural deeds; his dynasty is falling apart and it will not last forever, which refutes the predictions of his spiritual advisors.

Soyinka emphasizes that the end of a tyrant who has been ruling his country with an iron grip is miserable and disgusting. Baabu falls down after a shot rings, and as a result, he gets covered with mud and twigs. Nobody seems to be with him in the field as the stage directions explain (Soyinka, 2002, p. 71), which is similar to the state of Macbeth towards the end of his rule. The fall of the king and the fall of his royal crown are symbolic as they convey the core of Soyinka's protest against military rule and its various facets that have come to its end. Baabu's long speech after his fall reflects the psychological condition and his hallucination for the impending loss of power remembering his 'suffering ancestors' of the past.

The weakness of King Baabu is contrasted with the strength of the rebels in Scene V. King Baabu seems also confused and exhausted due to the continuous uprising of the people in many places and finds it difficult to control

them. The public leaders appear more organized and determined to uproot the military dictatorship as Rout states, “The people are ready. The workers are on the move. The petroleum workers will blow up the pipes and provide a wall of fire to consume Baabu’s forces. You shall witness a popular uprising that will go down history” (Soyinka, 2002, p. 86).

Rout continues:

I have mobilized the proletariat for the final onslaught on the monster. This alliance between the suffering masses, workers, and peasants and the progressive intellectuals will lead to a definitive installation of the proletariat and the end of militarist interventionism. (Soyinka, 2004, p. 87)

The wrath of the suffering masses has produced its result on the tyrant. The last appearance of King Baabu shows that he is powerless and not even able to pull himself together. He appears half naked dragging his feet and rounding his eyes. His tongue hangs while he clutches his throat. While Tikim tries to help him sit on the chair, the robe slips revealing him naked. This is the end that Soyinka puts for a tyrant like King Baabu, a message that he intends to spread for his nation and dictators. Soyinka portrays the King naked which is a symbol for humiliation, shame, and punishment. It is also a symbol for victory for the public that the King is stripped out of his power by the power of the people.

Shortly after his naked appearance, King Baabu dies mysteriously. It is perhaps, as Tikim says, he is overdosed. A similar end to that of Sani Abacha’s who has been declared dead in his presidential villa. It was not clear whether he died because of a heart attack or poison. Whatever the cause is, the people desire his end in order to stop their turmoil under such a military dictatorship. The celebration of the people and the shots heard after the death show the overwhelming ecstasy of the people on the death of ‘the devil incarnate’ (Soyinka, 2002, p. 86). Although the people’s struggle to overthrow this tyrant is fruitful, a divine power is required to intervene so that a nation can start a new era of social justice, equality and decent living. No doubt that Soyinka has done his best to fight dictatorship in Nigeria and played a major role in the returning of democracy with the support of the rebels and the protesters who have also a major contribution in this regard.

III. CONCLUSION

Although this play has been written after the death of Sani Abacha, Soyinka aims at warning people of such military leaders who appear to be prodemocracy in the beginning but they continue to be dictators if they are given a chance to rule. He encourages the public to rise against them and not to be fooled by their tricks and their distorting language. As seen through the play, protesters have suffered a lot, but have not lost hope despite the wicked tricks of the tyrant. Soyinka ends his play with a note of victory, a message which Soyinka wants to convey to his audience. Through this end, he emphasizes that continuous struggle and protest must be crowned with the victory of the oppressed over the oppressor.

Soyinka has adopted various means such as protest, activism and political campaigns to force the desired change in his society. As conscientious writer, he cannot ignore the appalling conditions of his nation which he attempts to unify through his political writings. His belief that a protest is an effective mean for survival has fruitful results as seen at the end of King Baabu’s rule. His revolt and protest against the authoritative power have become explicit, direct, and continuous as the only means to bring about a positive change and to curb the corruption of the military dictatorship or to make this phenomenon manageable.

Soyinka’s protest writings have proved to be effective and vital which can be noticed in Nigeria in recent years following the fall of the military dynasty. Military rule continued for several decades till the end of the twentieth century, but ultimately people have won the battle to bring Nigeria to democracy. Elections and democracy have been a great success in this regard which the public have been struggling for.

Soyinka’s *King Baabu* can be considered a historical document which clearly manifests a turning point of Nigeria’s democracy and civil rule. As parodied in the play, violence was at its peak during the reign of Sani Abacha (King Baabu), who has been known as the worst human rights violator. This artistic representation of political life in Nigeria sheds light on the tyrannical rule of the dictator and how the people react towards it. The victory of the masses who got frustrated in some stages of their struggle crowns the play. With this pessimistic note, Soyinka gives hope for his audience that protest and struggle against dictators always succeed at the end even if it is long or slow. The will of the public wins at the end.

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Teacher Effectiveness, Educational Grade and English Achievement

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Abstract—This study aimed to explore the relationship between the characteristics of teachers and grade four senior high school (G4SHS) students' achievement in English as a foreign language (EFL). To this end, the 102-item English Language Teachers' Attribute Scale (ELTAS) designed by Khodadady, Fakhrebadi, and Azar (2012) was administered to 1483 G4SHS students and the collected data were submitted to Principal Axis Factoring and Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. The results showed that the scale consists of eleven factors, i.e., Qualified, Social, Proficient, Humanistic, Stimulating, Organized, Pragmatic, Systematic, Prompt, Exam-Wise, and Lenient. When the ELTAS and its underlying factors were correlated with the students' self-reported scores on their grade three final English examination (G3FEE) held nationally in Iran, not only the scale itself but also its constituting factors showed significant relationships with the G3FEE as a measure of EFL achievement. The results of the study are discussed and suggestions are made for future research.

Index Terms—teacher effectiveness, English achievement, secondary education, construct validation

I. INTRODUCTION

The focus of studies in educational effectiveness has been mainly on observable behaviors of teachers until recently (Lowyck, 1994). According to Brok, Brekelmans, and Wubbels (2004), however, during the last decade teacher and student questionnaires were used in order to measure "teachers' and students' perceptions of teacher behavior" (p. 408). It has been demonstrated that students at primary, secondary and higher education levels are able to judge classroom environments and provide sufficiently stable, reliable, valid, and predictive ratings of teacher behaviors, evaluations, and effective characteristics (Driscoll et al., 1985; Mak, 2001; Peterson & Stevens, 1988; Scriven, 1994; Taba, Tylor, & Smith, 1998). Basic dimensions of effective teaching which have been identified in different groups, from primary classrooms to post-secondary classrooms, have, therefore, been determined through developing and investigating different questionnaires (Irby, 1978).

Brok, Brekelmans, and Wubbels (2004), for example, investigated the interpersonal behavior of secondary education teachers as a factor of teacher effectiveness, and the information needed were collected through a questionnaire called Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction (QTI). The QTI consisted of 77 items which were answered on a 5-point Likert scale, and its main version was in Dutch. For determining the reliability and validity of the QTI, several studies were done in Germany (e.g., Brekelmans, Wubbels, & Creton, 1990; Den Brok, 2001; Wubbels, Creton, & Hooymayers, 1985), America (e.g., Wubbels & Levy, 1991), and Australia (e.g., Fisher, Fraser, & Wubbels, 1992). These studies confirmed the satisfying reliability and validity of the questionnaire (Brok, Brekelmans, & Wubbels, 2004).

Moafian and Pishghadam (2008) were the first researchers who employed Suwandee's (1995) study and their own personal experiences with learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) to develop and validate a 47-item questionnaire dealing with the characteristics of successful English language teachers. They administered the questionnaire to 250 Iranian EFL learners and extracted 12 factors, i.e., teaching accountability, interpersonal relationship, paying attention to all students, examinations, commitment, learning boosters, creating sense of competence, teaching boosters, physical and emotional acceptance, empathy, class attendance, and dynamism.

In a separate study, Khodadady (2010) renamed Moafian and Pishghadam's (2008) questionnaire as Characteristics of Effective English Language Teachers (CEELT) and administered it to 1469 Iranian EFL learners in different private and state schools in Mashhad, Iran. In contrast to Moafian and Pishghadam's findings, he extracted five factors, i.e., rapport, fairness, qualification, facilitation, and examination. Khodadady, Fakhrebadi, and Azar (2012) [henceforth KF&A] scrutinized the CEELT carefully and concluded that it was not comprehensive enough in terms of subject matter. Their analysis, for example, showed that it did not deal with syntactic and semantic schema domains involved in teaching EFL. To fill the gap KF&A developed the English Language Teachers' Attributes Scale (ELTAS).

The 107 indicators comprising the original ELTAS were selected from a pool of 147 items collected from the evaluation forms employed by some universities and schools such as Azad University, Brock University, Khayyam University, Danesh Primary school and Nassrabad High School in Torbat, Samand Guidance School, Mottahari High School, and Tabaran Higher Education Institute. It also included some characteristics specified and compiled by other

researchers (e.g., Brosh, 1996; Elizabeth, May, & Chee, 2008; Moafian & Pishghadam, 2008; Park & Lee, 2006; Suwandee, 1995). And finally KF&A added six indicators to the final version of the ELTAS by resorting to their own personal experiences.

The ELTAS indicators selected from English sources were translated into Persian by resorting to schema theory (Khodadady, 2001, 2008, 2013; Khodadady & Golparvar, 2011; Seif & Khodadady, 2003). For administering and validating the 107-indicator ELTAS with grade three high school (G3SHS) students, it was taken to the Bureau of Education in Mashhad, Iran. There, five indicators were identified irrelevant by the committee responsible for the development of English teaching materials and suggested to be removed by the designers, i.e., 1) collecting students' English writings and reports for exhibitions, 2) employing appropriate teaching methods based on lesson objectives, 3) generating intellectual excitement in students, 4) incorporating various learning styles, e.g., intravertiveness and extravertiveness, and 5) being familiar with new teaching methods and strategies.

To comply with the suggestion of the committee responsible for material development in the Education Bureau in Mashhad, KF&A removed the five indicators specified above and administered the 102-item ELTAS to 1328 female grade 3 senior high school (G3SHS) students in the same city. They applied the Principal Axis Factoring method to their collected data, rotated their latent variables (LVs) via Varimax with Kaiser Normalization and extracted eight factors, i.e., Qualified, Social, Stimulating, Organized, Proficient, Humanistic, Self-Confident, and Lenient. The present study has employed the ELTAS in order to find out whether its underlying factors change when it is administered to grade four senior high school (G4SHS) students who can take part in University Entrance Examination upon successful completion of the grade.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

One thousand four hundred eighty three, 932 (62.8%) female and 551 (37.2%) male, G4SHS students took part in the study voluntarily. They had registered in Hekmat, Imam Ali, Kharazmi, Kiyani, Malek Ashtar, Meftah, Mobin, Nassr Novin, Nokhbeghan Toos, and Rangraz boys' schools and Allameh, Allameh Amini, Allameh Tabatabaai, Azadegan, Essmat, Farzan, Farzanegan, Imam Reza, Saadi, Sadoogi, and Zeinabiyeh girls' schools in educational districts of 1, 2, 3, 4, 7 and 9 in 2013. Their age ranged from 16 to 21 ($M = 17.76$, $SD = .59$). They were speaking Persian ($n = 1437$, 96.9%), English ($n = 18$, 1.2%), Kurdish ($n = 12$, 0.8%), Lori ($n = 1$, 1%), Turkish ($n = 10$, 0.7%) and unspecified languages ($n = 5$, 0.3%) as their mother tongue.

B. Instruments

A Demographic Scale and English Language Teachers' Attributes Scale were used in the study. The students' self-reported scores on Grade Three Final English Examination were also employed to investigate their relationships with teacher effectiveness.

Demographic Scale

The Demographic Scale (DS) consisted of four questions dealing with the participants' age, gender, and mother language. They were also asked to report the score they had obtained on the final English examination held at the end of school year at grade three.

English Language Teachers' Attributes Scale

The English Language Teachers' Attributes Scale (ELTAS) designed in Persian by Khodadady, Fakhrabadi, and Azar (2012) [KF&A] was used. It consists of 102 items dealing with English teachers' attributes. (The Persian ELTAS is given in Appendix. Interested readers can, however, contact the corresponding author for its English version.) The students are required to read items such as "my English teacher grades tests and assignments fairly and based on some rules" and indicate whether they "completely agree", "agree", "have no idea", "disagree" or "completely disagree" with the content of items. The administration of the ELTAS to 1328 female grade 3 high school (G3SHS) students showed that eight factors underlie their English teachers' attributes at this grade, i.e., Qualified, Social, Stimulating, Organized, Proficient, Humanistic, Self-Confident, and Lenient. KF & A reported the alpha reliability coefficient of .95, .94, .90, .89, .89, .89, .44, .47, for these factors, respectively.

Grade Three Final English Examination

On May 27, 2013 the participants of this study sat for the Grade Three Final English Examination (G3FEE) held nationally. It consisted of 14 sections. The first section comprised eight sentences in each of which one letter of two words had been removed from their middles. The test takers had to restore the missing letters, e.g., "there are two kinds of illness, ph_sical and m_ntal". The second section had nine words eight of which had to be chosen to be inserted in the eight sentences according to their meaning. Section three required changing the syntactic function of six words such as "hot" to complete six sentences such as "the ... of the sun makes the earth warm". In section four the test takers had to restore a missing word by themselves in order to complete six sentences such as "a lab is a suitable place to do some ... on acid". Section five required choosing one of the four syntactic alternatives such as "a. go, b. going, c. to go and d. goes" to complete six sentences such as "I didn't want to take my brother to work, but he insisted on ... with me". Section six called for making two complete sentences with scrambled words while section seven required changing two direct sentences to their indirect forms.

Two black and white drawings were given in section eight to provide the context necessary for answering two open ended questions dealing with the drawings. Section nine required matching eight answers with eight numbered questions whereas two sets of four words were given in section 10 to find out whether the test takers could identify a word with a meaning different from the other three. Similarly, they had to identify two words in a set of four whose stress was different. Section 11 consisted of four sentences whose meanings were raised as four choices from which the correct one had to be chosen. Section 12 was a six-item cloze multiple choice item test developed on a paragraph and the last section consisted of one passage upon which two open ended questions, one multiple choice item and three true and false item had been made. The G3FEE was marked by two teachers and the total score was reported out of 20. The cut off score of 10 and higher determined whether the test takers had passed the English course successfully. The participants were asked to report their G3FEE in the DS.

C. Procedure

As an officially employed English teacher at Education Department of Mashhad, the second researcher contacted her female colleagues in as many schools as she could and secured their approval to administer the ELTAS in their classes. She also attended a Workshop on teaching English offered in district two of Education Organization in January, 2013. After she explained the purpose of the study, ten of her male colleagues accepted to administer the ELTAS to their male students. The contact numbers of these teachers were used to make the necessary arrangements for the administration and collection of ELTAS after its content was explained in details and the questions dealing with the two sections of the questionnaire were answered. They were reminded in particular to check the answers when the students handed in the completed scales so that no section would remain unanswered. The teachers followed the instructions and administered the ELTAS as part of class activity. They were also contacted regularly to receive their feedback. The researcher collected the completed scales in person as soon as they were held under standard conditions.

D. Data Analysis

The descriptive statistics of the five-choice items comprising the ELTAS was calculated to examine their functioning. The responses given to the choices were then subjected to Principal Axis Factoring based on the assumption that they “are driven by just a few underlying structures called factors” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p. 26). The initial eigenvalues of one and higher were adopted as the only criterion to determine the number of factors underlying the ELTAS. The extracted factors were then rotated via Varimax with Kaiser Normalization to have a clearer picture of their structure. The choices “completely agree” and “agree” were then collapsed as were “disagree” and “completely disagree” to form the two choices of “agree” and “disagree”, respectively, to render the presentation and discussion of items easier. The reliability of the ELTAS and its underlying factors was estimated via Cronbach’s alpha. Pearson correlations were also used to explore the relationships between the factors and English language achievement. All the statistical analyses were conducted via IBM SPSS Statistics 20 to investigate the following research questions.

Q1. What is the factorial structure of the ELTAS when it is administered to G4SHS students?

Q2. How reliable is the ELTAS and its underlying factors?

Q3. Do ELTAS and its underlying factors relate significantly to G4SHS students’ scores on *Grade Three Final English Examination*?

III. RESULTS

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of items comprising the ELTAS. As can be seen, their mean score ranges from 2.46 (item 5) to 4.47 (Item 14). As it can also be seen, responding to item 5, only 21% of G4SHS students have agreed that their English teacher ignores cheating (see Appendix for the percentage of responses). Eighty one percent of these students have, however, agreed that their teachers are self-confident. For these very reasons, items 5 and 14 have the lowest and highest mean scores among the attributes, respectively. These results somewhat contrast with those of KF&A. The lowest mean score in their study belongs to item 10 (1.81) showing that only 12% of 1317 female G3SHS students agreed that their English teachers employed multimedia materials such as CDs and tapes in their classes. Similar to G4SHS students’ responses, the highest mean score (4.25), however, belongs to item 14 showing that 81% of G3SHS students agreed that their English teachers had self-confidence.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF ITEMS COMPRISING THE ELTAS (N=1483)

Item	Mean	SD	Skew	Kurt	Item	Mean	SD	Skew	Kurt	Item	Mean	SD	Skew	Kurt
1	4.21	.915	-1.197	1.382	35	3.87	1.058	-.720	-.043	69	4.04	.993	-.963	.544
2	2.80	1.123	.220	-.862	36	3.71	1.041	-.465	-.367	70	3.78	.973	-.438	-.244
3	4.06	1.069	-1.092	.608	37	3.47	1.095	-.261	-.527	71	4.31	.837	-1.23	1.402
4	3.86	1.050	-.573	-.259	38	3.97	.985	-.801	.271	72	4.11	.927	-.978	.700
5	2.46	1.289	.514	-.777	39	3.56	1.217	-.386	-.833	73	4.13	1.040	-1.18	.806
6	3.75	1.180	-.721	-.281	40	4.24	.857	-.895	.289	74	4.09	1.017	-.985	.333
7	3.65	1.012	-.398	-.301	41	4.35	.869	-1.43	1.987	75	4.01	1.084	-.933	.152
8	3.04	1.121	.032	-.635	42	4.43	.787	-1.48	2.412	76	3.82	1.022	-.522	-.176
9	3.21	1.170	-.153	-.699	43	4.32	.920	-1.49	2.059	77	3.88	1.058	-.792	.084
10	2.48	1.359	.580	-.869	44	4.29	.956	-1.44	1.680	78	3.85	1.066	-.725	-.038
11	3.63	1.004	-.483	-.054	45	3.93	1.019	-.825	.289	79	4.42	.866	-1.67	2.838
12	3.65	1.183	-.555	-.569	46	3.75	1.038	-.486	-.406	80	4.36	.886	-1.43	1.750
13	3.75	1.127	-.697	-.304	47	3.75	.990	-.329	-.353	81	3.73	1.071	-.536	-.359
14	4.47	.814	-1.678	2.841	48	3.83	1.119	-.814	-.007	82	3.26	1.179	-1.49	-.716
15	3.84	1.100	-.729	-.088	49	3.76	1.096	-.698	-.067	83	3.63	1.102	-.509	-.374
16	3.85	1.053	-.716	-.069	50	3.71	1.038	-.544	-.131	84	3.55	1.069	-.389	-.436
17	3.54	1.285	-.569	-.782	51	3.08	1.300	-.050	-1.03	85	3.51	1.093	-.261	-.638
18	4.29	.916	-1.363	1.586	52	3.46	1.083	-.317	-.438	86	3.49	1.138	-.272	-.670
19	4.07	.977	-.838	.252	53	3.03	1.175	.021	-.684	87	3.99	1.052	-.904	.265
20	4.14	.916	-1.108	1.079	54	3.44	1.099	-.227	-.455	88	3.83	1.070	-.817	.209
21	4.32	.878	-1.400	1.909	55	4.08	1.024	-1.02	.549	89	3.89	1.015	-.720	.160
22	3.28	1.143	-.111	-.669	56	3.81	1.041	-.552	-.295	90	3.99	.986	-.864	.460
23	3.42	1.053	-.245	-.380	57	4.27	.958	-1.41	1.752	91	3.77	1.033	-.597	-.110
24	3.78	1.144	-.770	-.133	58	4.10	1.010	-1.02	.510	92	3.76	1.039	-.554	-.217
25	4.05	.982	-1.036	.723	59	4.30	.865	-1.29	1.711	93	3.75	1.131	-.694	-.181
26	3.82	1.043	-.636	-.137	60	4.13	.943	-.938	.496	94	3.86	.971	-.424	-.424
27	4.03	1.046	-.979	.327	61	3.61	1.182	-.483	-.613	95	3.84	1.017	-.595	-.191
28	3.74	.983	-.316	-.215	62	4.14	.879	-.779	.196	96	3.55	1.010	-.244	-.251
29	3.70	.957	-.383	-.143	63	3.79	1.040	-.700	.087	97	3.54	1.031	-.232	-.380
30	3.99	.980	-.910	.449	64	3.61	1.123	-.425	-.494	98	3.82	1.091	-.705	-.099
31	4.09	.964	-1.031	.675	65	3.91	1.099	-.863	.106	99	3.83	1.006	-.529	-.249
32	3.64	1.150	-.603	-.379	66	2.91	1.323	.023	-1.09	1100	3.76	.978	-.356	-.349
33	3.76	1.094	-.672	-.027	67	3.92	1.060	-.835	.168	1101	3.67	1.039	-.421	-.276
34	4.28	.922	-1.326	1.509	68	3.61	1.125	-.460	-.403	1102	3.82	1.108	-.805	.021

Table 2 presents KMO and Bartlett's test results of the present study and those of KF&A. As can be seen, the KMO statistic of both studies is .98. Since it is in the .90s considered as “marvelous” by Kaiser and Rice (1974 as cited in DiLalla & Dollinger, 2006, p. 250), the sample selected in this study is marvelously adequate to run factor analysis. As it can also be seen, the value obtained by Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity, i.e., $X^2 = 79658.195$, is significant ($p < .001$), indicating that the correlation matrix was not an identity matrix.

TABLE 2
KMO AND BARTLETT'S TEST

		This study	KG&A
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.980	.984
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	79658.195	71142.467
	df	5151	5151
	Sig.	.000	0.000

Table 3 presents the initial (I) and extraction communalities (EC) of items comprising the ELTAS. As can be seen, the ECs range from .15 (item 5) to .67 (item 58). In spite of having the lowest EC, item five, “my English teacher (henceforth ...) ignores cheating,” loads acceptably on the last factor called *Lenient*. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) argued that communality values lower than .2 indicate “considerable heterogeneity among the variables” (p. 660). This argument does not, however, hold true for item two, “... designs simple and easy tests”, and item 66, “... gives good grades and does not take it hard” because they load acceptably with item five on the *Lenient* factor. Based on students’ evaluation of their teachers' effectiveness, the *Lenient* factor consists of homogenous schema types of “having easy tests”, “cheating” and “receiving good grades”.

TABLE 3
THE INITIAL (I) AND EXTRACTION COMMUNALITIES (EC) OF ITEMS COMPRISING THE ELTAS

Item	IC	EC	Item	IC	EC	Item	IC	EC	Item	IC	EC	Item	IC	EC
I001	.350	.343	I022	.634	.647	I043	.499	.511	I064	.575	.572	I085	.577	.571
I002	.222	.223	I023	.553	.530	I044	.519	.504	I065	.386	.399	I086	.436	.410
I003	.372	.356	I024	.515	.486	I045	.584	.592	I066	.280	.284	I087	.386	.375
I004	.280	.272	I025	.518	.500	I046	.520	.499	I067	.596	.559	I088	.596	.619
I005	.179	.149	I026	.453	.399	I047	.376	.376	I068	.649	.629	I089	.572	.573
I006	.254	.247	I027	.581	.554	I048	.435	.391	I069	.642	.651	I090	.544	.522
I007	.391	.376	I028	.430	.383	I049	.550	.534	I070	.487	.442	I091	.615	.592
I008	.330	.317	I029	.418	.372	I050	.546	.534	I071	.528	.526	I092	.533	.476
I009	.478	.493	I030	.483	.475	I051	.371	.410	I072	.574	.583	I093	.512	.600
I010	.345	.390	I031	.525	.535	I052	.511	.488	I073	.666	.660	I094	.498	.466
I011	.437	.420	I032	.306	.283	I053	.490	.495	I074	.557	.549	I095	.471	.456
I012	.453	.422	I033	.561	.569	I054	.399	.345	I075	.644	.616	I096	.478	.457
I013	.510	.518	I034	.559	.540	I055	.406	.387	I076	.512	.533	I097	.536	.508
I014	.353	.365	I035	.593	.607	I056	.518	.495	I077	.558	.523	I098	.504	.580
I015	.538	.560	I036	.490	.471	I057	.642	.647	I078	.507	.458	I099	.416	.409
I016	.536	.543	I037	.501	.497	I058	.650	.671	I079	.500	.445	I100	.521	.491
I017	.332	.321	I038	.516	.488	I059	.616	.614	I080	.599	.585	I101	.459	.390
I018	.588	.625	I039	.411	.396	I060	.535	.532	I081	.584	.542	I102	.507	.466
I019	.535	.527	I040	.459	.450	I061	.591	.599	I082	.447	.438			
I020	.516	.486	I041	.592	.586	I062	.488	.479	I083	.510	.487			
I021	.566	.543	I042	.583	.573	I063	.434	.391	I084	.576	.566			

Table 4 presents the number of factors extracted on the basis of initial eigenvalues of one and higher. Since the adoption of .32 as the minimum loading showed that none of the 102 items loaded acceptably on factors 13, 14 and 15, they were removed as noncontributory to the construct under investigation in this study. As can be seen, the remaining 12 factors explain 46.16% of variance in the ELTAS. This percentage is larger than 44.2% explaining the eight factors extracted in KF&A’s study. Similarly, compared to the four factors explaining 43.12% of variance in the construct underlying the 20-item Persian Cultural Capital Scale (CQS) validated by Khodadady and Ghahari (2011), the 12 factors underlying the ELTAS explain higher percentage of variance in the construct they underlie, i.e., teacher effectiveness.

TABLE 4
TOTAL CUMULATIVE (C) VARIANCE (V) EXPLAINED BY FACTORS

F	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of V	CV %	Total	% of V	CV %	Total	% of V	CV %
1	33.492	32.836	32.836	33.001	32.354	32.354	8.383	8.219	8.219
2	3.289	3.225	36.060	2.800	2.745	35.099	7.379	7.234	15.453
3	2.631	2.580	38.640	2.152	2.110	37.209	7.252	7.110	22.563
4	2.429	2.382	41.022	1.948	1.910	39.119	5.474	5.367	27.930
5	2.277	2.232	43.254	1.766	1.732	40.851	4.169	4.087	32.017
6	1.881	1.844	45.098	1.347	1.321	42.172	2.942	2.885	34.901
7	1.511	1.481	46.579	1.012	.993	43.164	2.876	2.819	37.721
8	1.430	1.402	47.981	.897	.879	44.043	2.215	2.171	39.892
9	1.356	1.330	49.311	.799	.783	44.827	2.137	2.095	41.987
10	1.286	1.261	50.571	.742	.727	45.554	1.821	1.785	43.772
11	1.209	1.185	51.757	.664	.651	46.205	1.267	1.242	45.014
12	1.165	1.142	52.899	.634	.621	46.826	1.166	1.143	46.158
13	1.120	1.098	53.996	.556	.545	47.371	1.033	1.013	47.170
14	1.067	1.047	55.043	.520	.510	47.881	.668	.655	47.826
15	1.018	.998	56.041	.503	.493	48.374	.560	.549	48.374

In order to determine the structure of extracted factors underlying the ELTAS, the rotated factor matrix was scrutinized closely. (The matrix is not given to save space.) The analysis showed that 10 items, i.e., item 1, “... grades tests and assignments fairly and based on some rules”, item 4, “... is ethical”, item 6, “... employs methods of evaluation consistent with course outline as initially presented”, item 8, “... has high ability learners help low ability classmates” item 26, “...manages the class well”, item 29, “... provides helpful feedback on tests and/or assignments”, item 30, “... gives enough and clear examples to clarify the subject matter”, item 55, “...values and checks class attendance”, item 94, “... creates confidence in his knowledge of course content”, and item 99, “...has high expectations of both students and himself/herself”, did not load acceptably on any of the 12 remaining factors.

Out of 92 items which had loaded acceptably on 12 rotated factors, 21 items cross loaded on another factor (F), i.e., 11 (F5), 16 (F6), 20 (F3), 27 (F3), 36 (F1), 37 (F5), 41 (F10), 43 (F3), 44 (F3), 46 (F1), 49 (F10), 50(F10), 53 (F1), 56 (F2), 60 (F10), 64 (F1), 80 (F11), 81 (F1), 88 (F1) and 90 (F7) and 91 (F1). Only two items had cross loaded on two factors, i.e., 61 (F1 and F2) and 85 (F1 and F7). These items were removed from the structure of factors upon which they had cross loaded. The removal of cross loadings resulted in the removal of factor 10 upon which four items, i.e., 41,

49, 50 and 80, had lower acceptable cross loadings. This procedure reduced the number of actors to 11, i.e., Qualified, Social, Proficient, Humanistic, Stimulating, Organized, Pragmatic, Systematic, Prompt, Exam-Wise, and Lenient. (The items along with the factors upon which they loaded acceptably are given in Appendix).

Table 5 presents the descriptive statistics and reliability estimates of ELTAS and its underlying factors. As can be seen, the number of items comprising the factors ranges from three (Lenient) to 24 (Qualified). The ELTAS itself provides researchers and educators with a highly reliable measure of teacher effectiveness ($\alpha=.98$). The alpha reliability coefficient of its factors ranges from .39 (*Lenient*) to .93 (*Qualified*). Among the factors, *Lenient* is the only schema genus or statistical factor of teacher effectiveness whose constituting items are the same for both G3SHS and G4SHS students. It does, however, vary in its reliability level for teachers offering English to these two grades. Since its alpha reaches .47 for G3SHS students in KF&A's study, it provides a less reliable measure of leniency for English teachers at grade four, i.e., .39.

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND RELIABILITY ESTIMATES OF ELTAS AND ITS UNDERLYING FACTORS

No	Factor	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Alpha
1	Qualified	1483	24	120	87.39	15.912	-.279	.315	.928
2	Social	1483	14	70	55.55	10.480	-.676	.186	.930
3	Proficient	1483	15	75	62.76	9.056	-1.092	1.704	.901
4	Humanistic	1483	9	45	34.51	6.832	-.591	.303	.883
5	Stimulating	1483	7	35	22.55	5.890	-.147	-.287	.844
6	Organized	1483	6	30	22.88	4.381	-.590	.306	.782
7	Pragmatic	1483	5	25	18.97	3.969	-.558	.179	.802
8	Systematic	1483	5	25	20.53	3.716	-.960	.853	.801
9	Prompt	1483	2	10	7.57	2.005	-.678	.007	.772
10	Exam-Wise	1483	2	10	8.42	1.569	-1.011	.976	.732
11	Lenient	1483	3	15	8.16	2.514	.197	-.343	.391
	ELTAS	1483	96	460	349.31	54.345	-.497	.478	.976

Table 6 presents the correlation coefficients obtained between the factors underlying the ELTAS. As can be seen, all the factors correlate significantly not only with the ELTAS itself but also with each other. In KF&A's study, however, the *Lenient* factor did not relate significantly to Self-Confident factor. Among the 11 factors extracted in this study, the Qualified and Social factors show the strongest relationship ($r=.77, p<.01$) with each other as they did in KF&A's study ($r=.79, p<.01$). The *Lenient* factor, however, correlates the lowest with the new Systematic factor ($r=.15, p<.01$) found in this study but shows the highest relationships with the Social and Humanistic factors ($r=.29$ and $.26, p<.01$), respectively.

TABLE 6
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS OBTAINED BETWEEN THE FACTORS UNDERLYING THE ELTAS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
ELTAS	.929*	.883*	.830*	.836*	.768*	.800*	.799*	.765*	.537*	.689*	.317*
1 Qualified	1	.770*	.675*	.750*	.709*	.692*	.739*	.691*	.498*	.628*	.255*
2 Social	.770*	1	.715*	.736*	.639*	.640*	.664*	.613*	.447*	.602*	.285*
3 Proficient	.675*	.715*	1	.619*	.571*	.650*	.665*	.667*	.440*	.621*	.168*
4 Humanistic	.750*	.736*	.619*	1	.564*	.674*	.607*	.634*	.384*	.557*	.264*
5 Stimulating	.709*	.639*	.571*	.564*	1	.650*	.602*	.511*	.340*	.406*	.244*
6 Organized	.692*	.640*	.650*	.674*	.650*	1	.624*	.602*	.353*	.522*	.262*
7 Pragmatic	.739*	.664*	.665*	.607*	.602*	.624*	1	.564*	.437*	.604*	.189*
8 Systematic	.691*	.613*	.667*	.634*	.511*	.602*	.564*	1	.410*	.533*	.147*
9 Prompt	.498*	.447*	.440*	.384*	.340*	.353*	.437*	.410*	1	.383*	.168*
10 Exam-Wise	.628*	.602*	.621*	.557*	.406*	.522*	.604*	.533*	.383*	1	.151*
11 Lenient	.255*	.285*	.168*	.264*	.244*	.262*	.189*	.147*	.168*	.151*	1

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

Table 7 presents the correlations between G4SHS students' self-reported scores on their G3FEE and the ELTAS as well as its 11 underlying factors. As can be seen, not only the ELTAS but also its underlying factors correlate significantly with the G3FEE. The correlation coefficient obtained between the G3FEE and ELTAS in this study ($r=.15, p<.01$) is noticeably higher than the correlation coefficient between English achievement and ELTAS reported by KF&A ($r=.11, p<.01$), indicating that English teachers attributes explain more variance in the students' English achievement when they are specified at grade four than grade three. While the *Lenient* factor best predicts the students' English achievement at grade three by having the highest correlation coefficient with the achievement score in KF&A's study ($r=.16, p<.01$), the *Qualified* factor assumes the same role for G4SHS students ($r=.17, p<.01$).

TABLE 7
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE ENGLISH ACHIEVEMENT AND ELTAS AS WELL AS ITS FACTORS

No	Factors	G3FEE	No	Factors	G3FEE	No	Factors	G3FEE
1	Qualified	.172**	5	Stimulating	.064*	9	Prompt	.080**
2	Social	.092**	6	Organized	.194**	10	Exam-Wise	.135**
3	Proficient	.084**	7	Pragmatic	.137**	11	Lenient	.095**
4	Humanistic	.113**	8	Systematic	.111**		ELTAS	.154**

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

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

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

A noticeable number of textbooks have been written on teaching English in recent decades. None of these sources has, however, discussed what attributes teachers should have as if they were irrelevant in effective teaching. Doff (1988), for example, focused only on developing “practical skills in teaching English as a foreign language ... which do not require lengthy preparation of materials, elaborate use of aids or equipment, or complex forms of classroom organization” (p. 1). Similarly, Cook (1991) designed her own textbook because of “the complaints of language teachers that books on L2 learning were too academic and insufficiently linked to the classroom” (p. Acknowledgements). Neither Doff nor Cook did, however, provide their readers with any list, let alone explanations, of factors underlying English teachers’ attributes such as those measured by the items comprising the ELTAS employed in this study.

The results of the present study are, therefore, of great importance not only to teachers who offer English in high schools but also to the trainers of the would-be teachers to prepare them as effective instructors within specific contexts. The first and foremost important factor underlying teachers’ attributes is their qualification. G4SHS students’ responses to the ELTAS show that *Qualified* teachers can be described in 24 statements in Mashhad, Iran, i.e., 32, 37, 39, 47, 49, 50, 51, 52, 54, 56, 63, 65, 70, 78, 82, 83, 84, 92, 95, 96, 97, 100, 101 and 102. Their evaluation of *Qualified* teachers, however, differs from those of female G3SHS students whose responses rested on 28 statements, i.e., 49, 50, 63, 65, 70, 71, 72, 78, 79, 81, 82, 83, 84, 87, 88, 89, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100, 101 and 102. These findings reveal the fact that moving to grade four in Iranian senior high schools entails refining the factors underlying the ELTAS and yielding previously unidentified dimensions in the same attributes.

For G4SHS students, a *Qualified* teacher, for example, checks and marks assignments regularly, identifies and solves learning problems, evaluates learners regularly and monitors their progress during the term, assigns tasks requiring group work, knows learners’ abilities, talents and weaknesses, identifies and pays attention to individual needs and differences, involves all students in learning and teaching processes, motivates students to learn English and do research, evaluates both qualitatively and quantitatively, tailors teaching to student needs, provides equal opportunities for participation, discussion and asking questions, takes learners attitudes towards learning into account even if they were negative, helps learners in and out of the class, teaches English tailored to students’ ability levels, handles discipline through prevention, gives sufficient number of assignments, is demographic in his/her approach, is interested in students, e.g., calls them by their names, and their learning, is willing to negotiate changes to course content, is available to answer questions, specifies methods of evaluation clearly, encourages achievement and discourages unacceptable behaviours, exercises authority to control the class whenever necessary, and encourages and improves creativity in learners.

For G3SHS students, a *Qualified* teacher also “explains the content he covers each session so well that everyone understands, teaches materials which are closely related to the stated objectives, integrates course topics in a way that helps learners understand them well and writes English well”. For G4SHS students, these attributes, however, form the seventh factor underlying the ELTAS which is called *Pragmatic* in this study. Furthermore, for G3SHS students, a *Qualified* teacher “is prompt in returning test results and returns tests/assignments in time for subsequent work”. These attributes, however, constitute *Prompt* genus as the ninth factor of G4SHS. In addition to *Pragmatic* and *Prompt* factors, the two statements, “...emphasizes important points and materials”, and “... answers questions carefully and convincingly” load on the tenth factor called *Exam-Wise* in this study.

In contrast to *Qualified* factor whose constituting items for G3SHS students (28) were more than those of G4SHS students (24), the items constituting the *Social* factor for G4SHS students (14) is more than those of G3SHS students (13), i.e., items 27, 57, 58, 62, 64, 67, 68, 69, 73, 74, 75, 77, and 90, indicating that the latter have gained more social complexity. For G4SHS students a *Social* teacher is cheerful and benevolent, has a good sense of humor, is friendly, is a dynamic and energetic person, establishes strong rapport with students, is good-tempered, is caring, is patient, creates a relaxed and pleasant atmosphere in the class, is comfortable interacting with others, teaches English enthusiastically, maintains a welcoming environment for all students (item 81), creates self-confidence in learners, and follows social codes and values and treats learners well. (Item 81 loaded acceptably on the *Qualified* factor for G3SHS students.)

Similar to the *Social* factor, the *Proficient* factor contains more attributes for G4SHS students. While for both G3SHS and G4SHS students, a *Proficient* teacher speaks English fluently, pronounces English well, knows English vocabulary well, understands spoken English well, knows English grammar well, has up to date knowledge of course content, reads

English texts well, has good general knowledge to answer the questions *not* directly related to the course content, teaches English in English, knows English culture well, knows foreign language acquisition theories, he also “puts on clean and tidy clothes” and “is well-prepared for the class” for G4SHS student. The last two attributes, however, loaded on the *Qualified* and *Organized* factors for G3SHS students, respectively. A Proficient teacher, according to G4SHS students, not only “believes his/her own efficacy and competence” but also “is self-confident”. These two attributes, nonetheless, constitute Self-Confident factor for G3SHS students, indicating that G4SHS students interpret their English language teachers’ personality in terms of their language proficiency.

Social development of G4SHS students extends to the fourth factor, i.e., *Humanistic*, extracted from the ELTAS in this study. For them a *Humanistic* teacher respects all ideas, listens to student’s opinions, responds logically to suggestions and criticisms, accepts constructive criticisms, is flexible and understands learners well, respects learners as real individuals, pays attention to students of all abilities, helps learners spot and overcome their weaknesses, and “avoids discrimination and treats all fairly”. The last attribute of *Humanistic* factor loaded acceptably neither on this nor on any other factor for G3SHS students, showing that students in senior high schools become more conscious of their perceived discrimination when they enter grade four.

The educational pressure of preparing for university entrance examination, however, renders G4SHS students insensitive towards their classmates as reflected in the fifth *Stimulating* factor. A *Stimulating* teacher for them employs multimedia materials such as CDs and tapes, arouses interest in learning English through interesting activities, employs interesting learning activities and assignments, teaches how to learn English outside the classroom, e.g., watching certain programs, provides opportunities to use English through meaningful activities, chooses interesting materials to teach, and has creativity in teaching. For G3SHS students, however, the *Stimulating* teacher has high ability learners help low ability classmates. This attribute does not load on any factor for G4SHS students.

While the sixth factor establishes *Organized* teachers as having twelve attributes for G3SHS students in KF&A’s study, it narrows down to six for G4SHS students. For the latter group an *Organized* teacher presents information at the right pace based on students’ level of learning, reduces English language learning anxiety, enjoys teaching English, employs methods of evaluation consistent with course outline as initially presented, employs appropriate evaluation techniques, and states course objectives clearly. In spite of having fewer attributes than the *Social* factor, the *Organized* genus correlates with the G3FEE ($r=.25$, $p<.01$) as much as the *Social* factor does, explaining 6.3% of variance in G4SHS students’ English achievement.

As another grade four-specific dimension of EFL teachers’ effectiveness, the *Systematic* factor specifies an English instructor who teaches systematically, organizes course content well in terms of hours and sessions, leaves and enters the class on time, and divides class time appropriately for the different language skills based on lesson objectives. Among the factors constituting the ELTAS, *Systematic* genus accounts for 3.7% of variance in G4SHS students’ English achievement ($r=.193$, $p<.01$), which is even slightly higher than 3% explained by *Proficient* factor ($r=.172$, $p<.01$). Future research must show whether teachers’ systematicity relates more strongly to G4SHS students’ English achievement when it is measured by objective tests such as schema-based cloze multiple choice item tests.

The last factor underlying the ELTAS is *Lenient*. As the only factor whose attributes are the same for grades three and four senior high school students, it specifies an English teacher who ignores cheating, gives good grades, i.e., does not take it hard, and designs simple and easy tests. Contrary to G3SHS students whose English achievement showed the strongest relationship with the *Lenient* factor ($r=.16$, $p<.01$), EFL teachers’ qualification shows the strongest relationship with English achievement at grade four ($r=.29$, $p<.01$). However, the relationship between the *Lenient* factor and English achievement ($r=.18$, $p<.01$) is still slightly stronger than that of *Proficiency* factor ($r=.17$, $p<.01$) at grade four, calling for future research to explore the relationship further. It also calls for authorities’ attention in the Ministry of Education to adopt appropriate strategies and policies to reverse and/or improve the relationships found between teacher effectiveness and English achievement.

APPENDIX

THE ITEMS COMPRISING THE PERSIAN ELTAS AND THEIR LOADINGS (L) ON ELEVEN FACTORS (F)

Item	F	L	معلم زبان انگلیسی فعلی من ...	Disagree %	No Idea %	Agree %
1			آزمون ها و تکالیف را منصفانه و بر اساس برخی قوانین مشخص تصحیح می کند	4	15	81
2	11	.322	آزمون های راحت و ساده طراحی می کند	46	24	30
3	6	.354	از آموزش زبان انگلیسی لذت می برد	8	18	74
4			از اصول اخلاقی مثل دوری از تعصب تبعیت میکند	7	32	61
5	11	.366	از تقلب چشم پوشی می کند	55	25	21
6			از دست انداختن فراگیران اجتناب می کند	14	24	62
7	6	.345	از روشهای ارزشیابی که با طرح درس اولیه همخوانی دارد استفاده می کند	11	33	56
8			از فراگیران قوی برای آموزش فراگیران ضعیف بهره می جوید	31	36	32
9	5	.535	از فعالیت ها و تکالیف جالب استفاده می کند	25	35	40
10	5	.566	از مواد سمعی و بصری مثل سی دی و نوار استفاده می کند	58	18	24
11	6	.335	از روشهای ارزشیابی مناسب استفاده می کند	11	32	57
12	6	.433	اضطراب یادگیری زبان انگلیسی را کاهش می دهد	17	24	58

13	6	.500	اطلاعات را با سرعنی متناسب با سطح یادگیری تک تک فراگیران ارائه می دهد	15	20	65
14	3	.343	اعتماد بنفس دارد	2	10	87
15	4	.573	انتقاد سازنده را می پذیرد	10	26	64
16	4	.484	انعطاف پذیر است و فراگیران را خوب درک میکند	11	23	66
17	3	.425	انگلیسی را به انگلیسی تدریس می کند	23	17	59
18	3	.710	انگلیسی را به خوبی و سلیس صحبت می کند	5	12	83
19	3	.612	انگلیسی محاوره ای را خوب درک می کند	5	24	71
20	6	.329	اهداف مطالب درسی را به وضوح بیان می کند	6	13	81
21	3	.433	با آمادگی خوبی وارد کلاس می شود	4	11	85
22	5	.558	با استفاده از فعالیت های جانبی، علاقه به یادگیری زبان را بر می انگیزد	23	37	40
23	5	.495	با استفاده از فعالیت های معنادار، موقعیت استفاده از زبان انگلیسی را فراهم می آورد	17	38	46
24	8	.395	با توجه به اهداف درس وقت کلاس را بطور مناسبی برای مهارتهای مختلف زبان مثل صحبت کردن و خواندن تقسیم می کند	13	22	65
25	8	.449	با توجه به مدت هر جلسه مطالب درسی را خوب سازماندهی می کند	8	15	77
26			با درگیر کردن خود فراگیران کلاس را خوب اداره می کند	10	26	64
27	2	.459	با شوق و اشتیاق تدریس می کند	9	17	74
28	3	.397	با نظریه های فراگیری زبان خارجی آشنایی دارد	5	40	54
29			باز خورد سودمندی در مورد امتحانات و تکالیف می دهد	8	34	58
30			برای توضیح مطلب از مثالهای روشن و کافی بهره می جوید	8	18	74
31	8	.454	بطور منظم و نظام مند تدریس می کند	7	15	78
32	1	.360	به اندازه کافی تکالیف میدهد	16	25	59
33	4	.619	به پیشنهادات و انتقادات پاسخی منطقی می دهد	10	30	60
34	3	.646	به تلفظ زبان انگلیسی تسلط دارد	5	14	82
35	4	.636	به تمامی ایده ها احترام می گذارد	9	25	65
36	4	.350	به فراگیران اجازه می دهد نقاط ضعف خود را پیدا کرده و آنها را برطرف کنند	12	30	59
37	1	.430	به فراگیران انگیزه یادگیری انگلیسی و انجام تحقیق می دهد	17	36	47
38	4	.455	به فراگیران به عنوان افراد واقعی احترام می گذارد	7	23	71
39	1	.355	به فراگیران و یادگیری آنها علاقه مند است (برای مثال آنها را با اسم صدا می کند)	20	27	53
40	3	.409	به کارایی و توانایی خود ایمان دارد	2	19	79
41	3	.539	به گرامر و دستور زبان انگلیسی تسلط دارد	4	11	85
42	3	.626	به لغات و کلمات انگلیسی تسلط دارد	2	10	88
43	8	.435	به موقع کلاس را ترک می کند	5	11	84
44	8	.426	به موقع وارد کلاس می شود	6	11	83
45	4	.620	به نظرات و عقاید فراگیران گوش می کند	8	23	69
46	4	.404	به همه فراگیران با توانایی های مختلف توجه دارد	11	28	60
47	1	.332	پیشرفت را ترغیب و رفتارهای غیر قابل قبول را تنبیح می کند	7	37	56
48	4	.331	تبعض قائل نمی شود و با همه عادلانه برخورد می کند	12	21	67
49	1	.377	تدریس خود را با سطوح توانایی انگلیسی فراگیران منطبق می سازد	11	26	63
50	1	.400	تدریس خود را با نیازهای فراگیران تطبیق می دهد	11	30	59
51	1	.528	تکالیفی می دهد که نیاز به کار گروهی دارد	33	29	38
52	1	.523	توانایی ها، استعدادها و ضعف های فراگیران را می داند	17	35	49
53	5	.501	چگونگی یادگیری زبان انگلیسی مثل تماشای برنامه های مخصوص را یاد می دهد	31	38	31
54	1	.351	حاضر و مایل به مذاکره برای تغییر در مطالب درسی است	16	40	44
55			حضور در کلاس را چگ و به آن بها می دهد	7	20	74
56	1	.327	خلاقیت در یادگیری و بهبود آن را ترغیب و تشویق می کند	10	29	62
57	2	.579	خوش اخلاق است	5	13	82
58	2	.638	دارای ذوق خوش طبعی است	7	18	75
59	3	.539	دانش خوبی از مطالب درسی دارد	3	13	84
60	3	.453	دانش عمومی خوبی دارد و می تواند سئوالاتی را که مستقیماً به درس مربوط نیستند جواب دهد	4	21	75
61	5	.429	در تدریس خلاقیت دارد	17	28	55
62	2	.464	در تعامل با دیگران راحت است	3	21	76
63	1	.359	در روش تدریس به جمعیت کلاس توجه دارد	10	26	64
64	2	.412	در فراگیران اعتماد به نفس تولید می کند	14	33	53
65	1	.330	در مواقع ضروری از اقتدار خود برای کنترل کلاس بهره می جوید	10	21	68
66	11	.356	در نمره دادن دست و دل باز است (سخت نمی گیرد)	38	28	34
67	2	.521	دلسوز و مهربان است	9	23	68
68	2	.599	رابطه عاطفی قوی با فراگیران برقرار می کند	14	33	53
69	2	.637	رفتارش دوستانه است	7	19	74
70	1	.334	روش های ارزشیابی را به روشنی مشخص می کند	8	32	61
71	10	.454	روی نقاط و مطالب مهم تاکید می کند	4	11	85
72	10	.387	سئوالات را با دقت و بطور متقاعد کننده ای جواب می دهد	5	17	77
73	2	.660	شاد و سرحال است	8	15	77
74	2	.497	صبور و شکیبا است	8	18	74
75	2	.634	فردی پر انرژی و پویا است	9	20	71
76	3	.410	فرهنگ انگلیسی زبانان را خوب می شناسد	7	33	60
77	2	.496	فضایی آرام و دلپذیر در کلاس تولید می کند	10	22	68
78	1	.346	قابل دسترس برای پاسخگویی به سئوالات است	10	25	65
79	3	.374	لباس های تمیز و مناسب می پوشد	4	10	86
80	3	.517	متون انگلیسی را با تسلط خوب می خواند (قرائت می کند)	4	12	84
81	2	.412	محیط آموزشی مطلوب و استقبال کننده ای برای همه فراگیران فراهم می آورد	12	28	60
82	1	.580	مرتب تکالیف را بررسی و به آنها نمره میدهد	24	36	40
83	1	.556	مرتب فراگیران را ارزشیابی کرده و پیشرفت آنها را در طول ترم زیر نظر دارد	14	29	57

84	1	.563	مشکلات یادگیری را تشخیص و آنها را برطرف می کند	16	31	53
85	5	.436	مطالب جالب را برای تدریس انتخاب می کند	17	33	50
86	7	.407	مطالب درسی را به زندگی واقعی فراگیران ربط می دهد	18	34	48
87	7	.445	مطالب را به انگلیسی خوب می نویسد	8	22	70
88	7	.450	مطالب هر جلسه را چنان خوب توضیح میدهد که همه می فهمند	10	23	67
89	7	.462	مطالبی را تدریس می کند که به اهداف مطرح شده مرتبط هستند	7	27	66
90	2	.348	مقید به ارزشهای اجتماعی بوده و با فراگیران خوب برخورد می کند.	6	22	71
91	7	.389	موضوعات درس را چنان به هم مرتبط می سازد که همه آنها را به خوبی درک می کنند	10	28	62
92	1	.390	موقعیت یکسان برای شرکت، بحث و طرح سؤال فراهم می آورد	10	29	61
93	9	.679	نتایج امتحانات را سریع اعلام میکند	13	25	62
94			نسبت به دانش خود در مورد مواد درسی اعتماد سازی می کند	6	32	62
95	1	.368	نظم و انضباط را از طریق پیش گیری برقرار میکند	9	27	64
96	1	.388	نگرش های فراگیران در مورد یادگیری را مد نظر دارد حتی اگر منفی باشند	11	41	48
97	1	.491	نیازها و تفاوت های فردی را تشخیص داده و به آنها توجه دارد	12	39	48
98	9	.648	ورقه های امتحانات و تکالیف را به برای انجام کارهای بعدی به موقع بر می گرداند	10	26	63
99			هم از فراگیران و هم از خود انتظارات بالایی دارد	8	29	62
100	1	.404	هم بطور کیفی و هم بطور کمی ارزشیابی می کند	7	35	58
101	1	.385	هم در داخل و هم در خارج از کلاس به فراگیران کمک می کند	10	34	55
102	1	.440	همه فراگیران را در فرایند یادگیری و تدریس دخیل می سازد	12	22	66

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English in China: Foreignness, Consequences and Solutions

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Abstract—English in mainland China is a foreign language, never a practical means of daily communication among the multi-ethnic Chinese public. Therefore, it differentiates itself from English as a second language or another language in those countries where it is a necessary instrument of daily communication. An embracing-renouncing paradox about English learning in China has thus been created. The many academic efforts to resolve this have met with little success. Considering the welfare of English learners, the author argues that to introduce critical discourse analysis into the Chinese English education, to establish cross-cultural competence as the ultimate goal of China's English education in the interactive and productive English virtual communities, and to construct a “unity in diversity” cross-cultural identity are the possible ways to resolve the inevitable paradox.

Index Terms—EFL, foreignness, consequences, critical discourse, virtuality, a “unity in diversity” cross-cultural identity

I. INTRODUCTION

English in China has been a foreign language taught, learned and used in a social context where it is generally not a daily public communication tool. It was thus often *Mute English*, English learned but not spoken. This, however, has changed when the development of globalization and Internet increasingly brings more Chinese English learners into direct contact with native English speakers or speakers of English. It becomes outdated to see English as only a useful tool for access to English knowledge and technological advancements in the English communities but updated to regard it as an increasingly strategic vehicle for active cross-cultural communication with the English communities.

Yet how can Chinese English learners grow cross-culturally competent in a linguistically and culturally unsupportive Chinese environment? To answer this question, an enormous number of discussions have focused on pedagogical theories, models, policies and practices; but the ontological question addressing the foreignness of English in the Chinese context has seldom been asked. Why is the word *foreign* or its Chinese equivalent 外 (as an adjective) applied to English in China? What does this *foreignness* or its Chinese equivalent 外 (as a noun) mean to English education in mainland China? What are the particular consequences of this *foreignness*? Can the word *foreign* or 外 be changed or even removed from English? How are these issues related to English learning in mainland China?

II. ENGLISH FOREIGNNESS

According to Merriam-Webster 11th Collegiate Dictionary, the word *foreign* means *outside, other than, alien, related to other nations, abnormal in the living body, not recognized as part of a self*, etc., while according to Xinhua Chinese Character Dictionary its Chinese equivalent 外 means 与内、里相对 [*outside*], 不是自己这方面的 [*un-belonging*], 关系疏远的 [*strange*], 非正式的 [*informal*], 外来的 [*foreign*], 佛教称其他宗教、思想为外 [*other*], etc. Obviously, the word *foreign* and the Chinese character 外 generally share most meanings and have both literal and figurative uses. Since English learners in China are exposed to both *foreign* and 外, language transfer happens; and it is probable that English in China is understood as a different territory, a language not just from the outside world, belonging to other nations, but informal, not so dear to the Chinese heart. Furthermore, the Chinese character 外 is also used as verb, meaning *distance, deviate, repel, abandon* etc., and thus baring its ideological nature.

The role of language in a certain community is actually determined by contested political/ideological considerations, either a democratic compromise or a dictated settlement between political groups of interests in the form of a legitimate language policy. As a result, English becomes foreign, native/first, second, third... in a certain country. In Britain or the United States, for example, only English has been authorised to be the nationally official language, not Celtic, nor Spanish, while in Canada both English and French are made official. Likewise, political powers in Asian countries like Singapore, Pakistan and India have designated English to be official, and have accepted it as a first, second or third language.

In mainland China, although there exists a certain tension or opposition between the Putonghua and Hanyu [Chinese] dialects, or between Hanyu and ethnic languages, or between official ethnic languages and their corresponding dialects, only the opposition between the languages in mainland China and foreign languages (including English) is noticed,

marked and proclaimed conspicuous. While English is mandatorily defined *foreign* and officially excluded from typical Chinese communal life, the languages contemporarily used by Han and ethnic minorities in mainland China are otherwise categorized as *native/home* languages and dialects, differences ulteriorly ignored or skilfully repudiated. Obviously, the language boundary is artificially drawn to best correspond with the territorial limits of China. English is politically dismissed as a competitor of the Chinese language for a complete domination in the Chinese ethnic communities; and therefore the polarity between Chinese and English is dictated by the government, out of the necessity of maintaining the integrity of the Chinese imagined community.

Seen from this perspective, the foreignness of English is essentially Otherness. The boundary conspicuity between English and the languages in mainland China divides them, makes the *inside* and *outside* difference, and labels them as different entities, or entities symbolic of different identities. English as language and culture is alien, something that should be closely watched—if not repelled—so that Chinese people can tell who are *us* and who are *them* or who belong to *our* community and who belong to *their* community, often at the expense of disregarding the marked cultural/ideological differences between the sovereignties of UK, USA, Australia, Canada, etc. Therefore, the relationship of Otherness between Chinese and English is symbolic in both the Chinese community and the whole English community of the other group's being outsiders, strangers or people that should be warily eyed.

A further understanding of English foreignness in China, however, needs to take into account the influence of the psychological complexity of foreign superiority. Since the end of the Qing dynasty, this foreign advancedness vs. domestic backwardness polarization has been introduced into the Chinese community, either as a subjugation myth or a reforming force, and has taken deep root with the spread of the Enlightenment ideas about nation, science, technology, and progress. It was then deliberately suppressed for a time. However, the contemporary reform and opening-up policies somehow has created another opportunity for this polarization to regain its influence (Pan, 2011). Even in the recent defence of Minister Yuan's talk on the ideological control in Chinese universities, China Youth (2015), the official organ of the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Youth League, has elucidated that learning from the West is still a fundamental principle anchored in the political mainstream. This learning attitude can be easily confused with foreign superiority. Consequently, the strenuously-defended legitimacy of the Chinese self has been questioned; and the Otherness of English language and culture has been reduced, effectively easing the confrontation between Chinese and English communities and greatly facilitating the popular acceptance of English foreignness in mainland China.

III. IMPLICATIONS OF ENGLISH FOREIGNNESS

What are the implications of English foreignness in mainland China? First, it implies the marginality of English in the Chinese socio-political context: never so endearing to the Chinese heart and never to be officially sanctioned for domestic use. Putonghua is the only nationally sanctioned language, although there are regionally sanctioned ethnic languages. The Chinese language policies of English education have avoided granting English an access to “non-pragmatic and social-cultural spheres” (as cited in Pan, 2011, p. 255). The omnipresence of English books, a few English newspapers and a few English TV channels in mainland China cannot challenge or change the political reality, for their primary readers or audience are not the ordinary Chinese public, but foreigners either within or outside China. At best, these English publications or media are used by English learners to prepare for their future careers. Therefore, English still remains on the periphery of the Chinese community.

Yet even without considering the influence of foreign superiority, English marginality has limits. The recognition of its presence, although seemingly decentred, has been officially understood as a strategic necessity to China, generating social and international benefits (Pan, 2011). Further, it has been instituted beyond every level of school and regarded by the nation as an exclusive access for opportunity, connectedness, creativity, and progress in the increasingly globalised world. The diligently deconstructed foreign superiority, regenerating a centripetal force, has thus been somewhat re-mystified by the English learning fever.

Second, English foreignness in China harbours subversiveness and repercussions. The learning or acquisition of English is a process of acculturation or enculturation, a process both actively sought and passively generated. English in China has been long regarded as a tool for social and technological improvement (Pan, 2015). During English learning, English ideas and practices considered beneficial to individuals or China will be inevitably adopted with or without much modification. Meanwhile, English learning is also more or less a process of socialization as it has been acknowledged that linguistic signs, syntactic and textual rules, and texts have meanings and therefore pass on cultural and ideological information (Mar-Molinero & Stevenson, 2006; Benesch, 1993; van Dijk, 2000). Resistance to the messages in English language is a betrayal to the cross-cultural purpose, and a suicidal plunge into Chinglish, an interlanguage poorly accepted both at home and abroad. Therefore, when the two forces in the learning process combined, English foreignness implies the probability of English promoting a partial or total conversion of its foreignness into near-nativeness or even full nativeness in China, possibly resulting in the replacement for Chinese culture.

Third, though haunted by the subversiveness of English foreignness, Chinese English learners are required to be faithful to their national/cultural identity and act responsibly as patriots. One's native language and culture—especially the core values and beliefs--determine the collective identity or one's national identity upon which political

administration and national security are founded (Wodak, de Cillia, Reisigl, & Liebhart, 2009). Without a matching national identity, the government cannot be justified and so will be seriously endangered. English education in China, as part of the ideological state apparatus (ISA) (Althusser, 1970), will always demand that an English identity be marked as the Other and that state loyalty be taught to and demonstrated in Chinese English learners.

Fourth, English learned as a foreign language in mainland China is both a border-crossing action and a privilege. It is a border-crossing action in that English learners move over the boundary of Chinese collective identity, interacting with the English Other, its groups and ideologies, and then possibly absorbing some Otherness here and there. It is a privilege in that the action has been politically recognized and financially supported by the government and opened to individuals who, in bridging the cultural space, may be capable of bringing back benefits to themselves and the Chinese community. However, such may in turn threaten the primary integrity of the Chinese collective identity, thus creating an ideological tension in English learners and a serious concern to the government. Consequently, the privilege may be immediately suspended or even vanish into thin air when the border-crossing action has fallen trapped in the imagined English ideological community and presented itself as a real political threat to the Chinese community.

English foreignness suggests the marginality of English in mainland China, a political product out of the government's concern for patriotism, political allegiance, national unity and security. Yet, the presence of English and its contact with the Chinese community can also be inferred from the recognition of English foreignness. Indeed, the boundary of the occupied marginality of English can be undesirably expanding in an infinite way, and new identities may be "shaped in the tensional interstices" (Kachru, Kachru & Nelson, 2006, p. 707), especially if the contact is inappropriately influenced by the psychological complex of foreign superiority. All this leads to the enduring paradox of English learning in mainland China to both embrace and renounce English language and culture.

IV. THE CONSEQUENCES OF ENGLISH FOREIGNNESS

Although English in the Chinese community, in the foreseeable future, has little possibility of either being officially recognized as a political communication vehicle or being readily adopted by the public as a daily communication tool, the implications of English foreignness seemed to have been adequately understood neither by the policy makers nor by the general public. Consequently, English has been widely introduced by the media, businesses and other institutions into *Chinese* life. Nationwide, a large number of commercial promotions, publications, programs and products targeting only Chinese customers—who probably do not know or use English at all—include some English, often English of dubious correctness. So far, this effort is probably made to shrewdly profit from Chinese people's complex of foreign superiority or their desire to get internationally connected. But English has been encroaching on Chinese space (Wang & Zhang, 2007), reportedly reducing the deserved attention of Chinese language or other languages in China and showing an initial development in the features of a social-cultural language in mainland China, a result quite contrary to the original stipulation of English foreignness.

The incongruous embracing-renouncing relationship between the Chinese self and the English Other has also provoked an incessant search for a certain philosophical consistency in English learning and teaching. Since rejecting English in China is metaphysically and practically impossible and, on the other hand, severing China from its past and replacing Chinese with English is a completely unreasonable suggestion, developing China English as a language variety seems to be a great temptation for some researchers to resolve the embracing-renouncing paradox. It has been argued that the localization of English can decentre the American or British standard, create a standard for China English, gain a discourse power and so re-empower China and Chinese English learners (Zhu & Zhang, 2014). However, this may be an illusion. The localization of English would be a domestication of English, a formal nationwide deconstruction of English foreignness, a redefinition of the Chinese self as an English variety. Moreover, the process would bring English and English standards to the centre instead of pushing it away, something that the China English supporters are vainly trying to avoid. After all, the localization of English would inevitably still need American, British or some other standards for reference so that recognition from the English world would be attained in cross-cultural communication. Otherwise, the creation of China English would be no more than some self-indulged wishful dream, a desperate waging of some fanciful discourse power, generating mountains of cross-cultural difficulties instead of solving any. Most important of all, the localization/nativization of English would not be a victory for Chinese, but a celebration of English. Although it has been argued that the messages or ideologies in a language system create real identities, the medium of Chinese characters is also the message but a total untranslatability (Kachru, Kachru, Nelson, 2006; McLuhan, 2013), hence causing an inevitable loss of part of the Chinese identity. Actually, this is not a localization of English but a colonization of Chinese, not a rediscovery of discourse power but a resigning of an exclusive discourse power. The paradox is unwanted, but the renouncement of the paradox may certainly not be desired.

Or rather, it is argued that there is already a China English that has been wilfully ignored by the Chinese government to avoid an ideological crisis (as cited in Pan, 2015, p. 88). However, this is probably a political narrative that attempts to bypass the preconditions of China English and materialise the imagined English community in mainland China. According to their favoured definition, China English is A developing variety of English, which is subject to ongoing codification and normalization processes. It is based largely on the two major varieties of English, namely British and American English. It is characterized by the transfer of Chinese linguistic and cultural norms at varying levels of language, and it is used primarily by Chinese for intra- and international communication (as cited in Pan, 2015, p. 117).

How has China English been codified and normalised in China? Is there any dictionary of China English? What about the literary works of China English? How many people are speaking and using English in China, regardless of the number of users following the so-called standard of China English? Since which time China English has been used in China to have a regular communication? None of these essential questions derived from their operational definition can be answered by the advocates of China English. The existence of China English is more suspicious of a political fraudulence.

English foreignness also has afflicted the Chinese government itself and forced it to engage in doublethink. On the one hand, the government supports the teaching of English and diligently introduces educational policies to encourage public enthusiasm for English learning, promising material and non-material advantages for successful English learners. English literally becomes a formal subject in most places as early as in the third year of primary school, and its study continues into PhD programs. Besides, thousands of training schools and classes are helping students with their English learning and often making a great deal of quick money. On the other hand, the government is carefully fending off the unwanted ideological influences that are probably inherent in the teaching and learning of English so that its governing can generally remain intact. First, it screens at least the explicit ideological contents and the political propaganda unfavourable to its intended citizenship. For instance, the Department of Education recently declared that it would tighten ideological censorship on the higher education textbooks imported from western countries. Second, it allows English to be learned, used and developed on limited social occasions, and leaves English graduates to perform only in the professional and social margin (Cui & Cui, 2010; Borg & Liu, 2013). Since English is learned for technological advancements and international relationship, the most important responsibility of English learners seems to be the secondary role of serving other majors, professions and researches.

Yet the worst experience of learning English in this paradoxical situation is probably identity management. Research has shown that an English identity is significantly related to English proficiency and crucial to successful cross-cultural communication (Lantolf, 2001; Cook, 2000). Therefore, a learner needs to diligently foster a real English identity, a daunting task indeed in the Chinese context where English socialization or enculturation is mostly abnormal in terms of traditional conceptualization of reality. The creation of such an identity can mainly obtain clues from the cultural generalities in English textbooks, which, however, may turn out later to be somehow unreliable or even totally unreliable in real cross-cultural communication. Even so, in constructing this English identity, one still has to be always conscious of one's Chinese personhood. He or she has to be able to manage their incompatibilities and act appropriately according to the contextual codes. Once off guard, he or she can end up in embarrassing or even disastrous interpersonal/intercultural situations. Worse still, one can become a cultural wonderer who cannot feel at home in either Chinese or English culture, or even a cultural traitor who totally gives up his/her Chinese self.

The paradox of embracing-renouncing English learning seems an inevitable reality that has yet to be carefully handled to avoid the consequences. When China English is not a reality or not a politically reasonable aim, how can English learning adjust to the paradox? How can an integrated identity be constructed that accommodates both cross-cultural communication and the national security? How can the efficiency and effectiveness of English learning and teaching be ensured if the seemingly contradictory aims are both to be fulfilled?

V. POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

English is the most widely used lingua franca. To become a more globally connected China, English learning is highly necessary; but to maintain the nation-state framework of China, to remain independent in the global village, to refrain from the unsolicited English ideological influences, and to best protect the welfare of Chinese English learners, English learning in mainland China has to be politically conscious. A combination of cross-cultural competence, a "unity in diversity" intercultural identity and critical discourse analysis should suffice for these purposes.

The great necessity of critical practice, essential to the development of critical thinking, has been proposed (Browne, Freeman & Williamson, 2000; Wang & Wang 2013); van Dijk (2000), Wodak, de Cillia, Reisigl and Liebhart (2009) have demonstrated the effectiveness of critical discourse analysis in examining, exposing and problematizing social ideologies. By incorporating critical practice can the Chinese officially-sanctioned ideology be honestly defended, Chinese collective identity be developed, and the educational purpose of raising students' cultural awareness be enhanced. Yet this is never a proposal to blindly bow to the Chinese dominant ideology. Critical practice only confronts English learners and teachers with conscious choices in the global world, enables them to understand the consequences of their choices to the Chinese community, and prepares them to become more capable, flexible, constructive cross-cultural communicators. However, if such a change is to be effected, the current centeredness of English language skills in the national curriculums has to be redefined, making room for a more substantial cultural turn—language skills no longer stipulated as the ultimate goal of English learning but merely as part of critical success indicators that are developed from critical practice in and out of English classes.

Critical discourse analysis is introduced in English learning for the pragmatic purpose of properly preparing students for cross-cultural communication in a nation-state framework. Although cross-cultural competence should be treated as the ultimate goal of English learning, it has never been defined so in any of the existing Chinese national syllabuses (Pan, 2015). It is of great significance, however. First, it reaffirms English foreignness, and thus reminds English learners of their real subjectivity of Chinese identity. When Chinese is used to unite the inner community, English is

used to get connected with the outer but bigger community. Second, it dismisses the possibility of developing China English, and refuses an entanglement into the fruitless power struggle of determining English standards that has, despite scepticism, already showed some momentum (Zhu & Zhang, 2014). There is no need to pretend that Chinese culture can be better continued in English, or that Chinese culture can re-encode English and triumph over English. Most important of all, English will stop being just as a tool for technological gains but become a fully-fledged communication tool for global connectedness, not just as a political necessity but as a whole strategy to succeed in the global village, a strategy that aims for an all-aspects communication, political and non-political, official and unofficial, military and civil.

Yet, this change of the ultimate goal of English learning in China requires English learners to transform from English knowledge talkers to effective cross-cultural communicators capable of using English, and of participating in or facilitating cross-cultural communication. Is the transformation possible in the Chinese context? Global virtuality indeed has considerable promise for this change. The Internet penetration rates of Britain, the United States, Australia, Canada, etc., have been close to 90%; most of these networked English communities seem to have been more and more interactive and productive online. Meanwhile, the heavily invested information infrastructure in mainland China has been spreading nationwide. English learners, already immersed in the information age, so long as they are properly motivated and methodically guided, will have the opportunity to grow in the virtual English communities. Furthermore, the socialising effectiveness of virtual communities has been theorized and supported by a lot of literature (Chen, 2013; Castells, 2009; Ito, 2010; Boyd, 2014). In addition, second language acquisition studies confirmed that immersion in English—not necessarily English in English classes as many Chinese English teachers themselves are learners of *Mute English*—and interactions with native speakers are vital if students are to become successful English learners (Genesee, 1985; Wang, 2010). English learners can enter the different social spaces in the virtual English communities and directly interact with native speakers and their institutions, enjoying the exclusive privileges previously only accessible to ESL learners. As a result, Chinese English learners will have an opportunity to acquire English and its corresponding identity in a near-native natural way while living in mainland China. There is also a probability that the stigma of being English learners of *Mute English* will be generally removed.

However, English identities created in the socializing processes of the virtual English communities will redirect attention to the issue of national security. Critical discourse analysis can expose ideologies, but it cannot handle the multi-identity issue. Some theorists therefore have proposed a third space of intersubjectivity or international personhood to achieve one's intercultural identity integration or the switch between a host culture and a foreign culture (Dai & Kulich, 2010). Fei Xiaotong (2000), likewise, suggested that in cross-cultural communication participants should consciously cherish their own cultural merits, respect the merits of other cultures, share their own cultural merits and so maintain an intercultural harmony. However, such apolitical, idealistic or pacifistic intercultural attitudes may overemphasize harmony to the extent of ignoring the inconvenient reality of ideological competitions and sometimes conflicting national interests between nation-states.

Hence, the construction of a pragmatic intercultural identity need ensure that any English virtual or vicarious socialization or enculturation will not replace or overshadow the Chinese collective identity. English education in China—like English education in any other country—has to serve the Chinese political agenda and thus remain as part of its ideological apparatus. To handle the Chinese cultural pluralities, Fei Xiaotong (2000) proposed that all cultures should be united in the politically designated national culture, a unity in diversity. Although cross-cultural communication is not a first concern in this theoretical hypothesis, the concept of unity in diversity is inspiring in creating an integrated identity that accommodates both Chinese and English identities where the Chinese identities are forged by the Chinese institutional, local, regional and national contexts but the English identities are expected to be mostly formed in certain English-speaking virtual or vicarious contexts. In this paradigm, the English identities can fully function as cross-cultural communication requires until the moment when some national security is alarmed and the Chinese identity has to intervene.

Such a “unity in diversity” cross-cultural identity only affirms the roles of politics and ideology in cross-cultural communication and prioritizes the Chinese collective identity, allowing it to overshadow and monitor the performance of an English identity so that cross-cultural communication proceeds only within the parameters of Chinese national security. Such a complex paradoxical cross-cultural identity seems less ideal than the dynamic identity matrix theory of intercultural communication, basically free from the crest of explicit politics (Dai & Kulich, 2010); yet it is pragmatic, for the world is not ready for a politically, ideologically, or financially unbiased internationalist framework (Spellman, 2011). Actually, negligence to the nation-state framework will endanger the welfare of English learners, causing identity mismanagement, cultural maladjustment, cultural marginalization or even cultural exile. Meanwhile, neither unity in nor attention to the nation-state framework signifies a slavish submission to the Chinese self. First of all, culture changes, and the Chinese self cannot escape from the fates. As Kramsch (1994) argues, language learners will use their power to introduce a new culture into their native culture. Second, learning from the English Other is an integral purpose of cross-cultural communication. Like any other active cultural self, the Chinese self is not of dogmas but of pragmatic principles that are derived from the Chinese collective experiences.

However, can people manage various identities while staying mentally healthy? The complexities of a “unity in diversity” cross-cultural identity are manageable (Zhao, 2011), although probably greater efforts are required on the part of Chinese English learners and teachers. Anxiety will arise, and inner tension will be felt, especially when during

cross-cultural communication, the Chinese collective identity, which is psychologically summoned from a national level to an international level, stays invisible but actually overshadows a functioning English identity. Such may be one of the focuses in training English learners' cross-cultural competence and performance, besides language proficiency, communication strategies, etc. Although the idea of such an identity has not been formally introduced, ample evidences for its operability are available from the successful practices of diplomats and English learners engaging in cross-cultural communication.

To include critical discourse analysis, to recognize cross-cultural competence and performance as the ultimate goal of English education in mainland China and to build a "unity in diversity" intercultural identity may be proper responses to the conflicting issues of national development, national security and global connectedness in China. The cultivation of cross-cultural competence and performance is the core solution, with critical practice and a "unity in diversity" intercultural identity developed to satisfy the need for Chinese national security and the purpose for a possible co-existence with the English Other. By actualizing an interactive near-native learning environment of English, the global virtuality offers an unprecedented opportunity to test and upgrade the validity of such a complex cross-cultural identity.

VI. CONCLUSION

English foreignness does not simply posit English as a foreign language that has no historical or cultural roots in mainland China; instead, it defines the Otherness of English, making English an opposition to languages that are used by Chinese ethnic groups for daily communication and political, military, economic, and cultural conversations in the Chinese community. To affirm the integrity of the Chinese languages and the dominance of Putonghua in the Chinese physical territory is an attempt to construct a narrative of the country's unity and sovereignty.

However, the Otherness of English is never a black and white matter. It tempts the Chinese self with irresistible innovations, gains and progress, and therefore begets an inevitable paradox of an embracing-renouncing mind. For many years, the policy of opening up the Chinese community has been confirmed necessary for the success of ongoing reforms, although some ensuing uncertainties or side effects are also expected. Still, especially under the lingering influence of foreign superiority, the confusion about how to relate the Chinese self to the English Other has continued posing important questions for the government, the academia, and the English teachers and learners in China.

A clear definition of developing cross-cultural competence in virtual English communities as the ultimate goal of English learning in mainland China, together with the inclusion of critical discourse analysis and a diligent construction of a "unity in diversity" intercultural identity, seems to be the appropriate set of solutions in the networked society to the necessary paradox of both embracing and renouncing English. As Chinese English learners can be globally connected, learning and socialising in the virtual English communities can satisfy the multiple purposes of developing their English proficiency, practical cross-cultural communicative skills and English identities. But all this needs to meet the Chinese political requirements, and the priority of the Chinese identity has to be ensured. Critical discourse analysis can help Chinese English learners to survive and succeed in the global ideological squabbles, and to develop the Chinese identity as time requires.

Despite the promise of this combined set of solutions to English learning and teaching in China, it cannot take any substantial effect without a preconditioned re-examination and a systematic reformation of the current educational policies and curriculums. When policy makers addressing global connectedness, different levels or fields of intercultural communication need to be acknowledged; informal study needs to be generally recognized, seriously considered and properly integrated with formal study, thus a blended learning style; the current reform of using technology in English education needs to be furthered; teachers and students are all to be re-educated and evaluated according as they are required.

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The Pedagogical Influence of Interpersonal and Cognitive Discourse Markers on Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension

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Abstract—This study attempts to determine whether the recognition and interpretation of interpersonal and cognitive discourse markers will enhance students' listening comprehension ability in authentic situations. Students were tested to determine their comprehension of content information in audio-taped conversations. After the treatment period of ten weeks, where the experimental group received strategy training in the recognition and interpretation of discourse markers in spoken discourse, both groups were again tested. Their results were statistically compared. The findings have pedagogical implications for material designers, teachers, and teacher trainers.

Index Terms—cognitive discourse markers, interpersonal discourse markers, listening comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION

Research has shown that effective listening comprehension skills are vital for students to achieve success (Benson, 1994; Retief, 1995) while the other language skills often receive direct instructional attention, lecturers or speakers usually expect students to develop their listening capabilities without help. (Mendelsohn, 1998).

Much of the students' ability to make sense of audio text or spoken lecture may be because of the fact that they only listen to the words and concentrate on understanding the grammar of the language used, rather than focusing on the message conveyed by the speaker.

Louwerse and Mitchell (2003) consider discourse markers as “conversational glue that participants effectively use to hold the dialog together at different communicative levels.”

Discourse markers are expressed and shown in italics in the following sentences:

1. A: I like him. B: *So*, you think you'll ask him out then.
2. John can't go. *And* Mary can't go either.
3. Will you go? *Furthermore*, will you represent the class there?
4. Sue left very late. *But* she arrived on time.
5. I think it will fly. *After all*, we built it right.

Discourse markers have been called sentence connectives (Halliday & Hasan, 1976), discourse particles (Goldberg, 1980), utterance particles (Lucke, 1987),

Semantic conjuncts, pragmatic expression (Erman, 1987), discourse operators (Redeker, 1990) continuatives (Romero Trillo, 2002), etc.

Schiffrin (1987) suggests that the markers in her research serve as contextual coordinates for utterances by locating them on one or more planes of talk and maintains that coherence is constructed through relations between adjacent units in discourse by virtue of their semantic and syntactic properties.

Fraser (1999) suggests that discourse markers are conjunctions, adverbs and propositional phrases that connect two sentences or clauses together.

A. Significance of the Study

In contrast to the extensive research on reading, few researches have been carried out to explore the role of teaching discourse markers in second language listening. Discourse markers guide hearer in the recognition of coherence relations. Coherence in discourse can be achieved by different means. Coherence relations are partly responsible for the coherence of the text.

B. Statement of the Problem

The main issue in this paper is whether intermediate EFL learners can benefit from explicit instruction in the recognition and interpretation of discourse markers in spoken lectures or audio texts.

Some researchers have investigated the features of lectures or speeches that might aid L2 learners' comprehension..

C. Research Question

The following question is going to be posed in this study:

- Will students' listening comprehension improve if they are made aware of discourse markers by explicit teaching?

D. Null Hypotheses

H₀₁: There is no statistically significant difference between listening comprehension of Iranian EFL students who learned discourse markers explicitly and those who didn't learn discourse markers.

H₀₂: There is no statistically significant relationship between Iranian intermediate EFL students' command of interpersonal and cognitive discourse markers and their listening comprehension ability.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. Discourse Markers and Listening Comprehension

Previous researches have indicated that L2 listeners often have difficulties in following the structure of a text for a gist comprehension. Even though, sometimes they have no lexical obstacle at all.

Identifying and understanding of a certain complicated phenomenon requires the identification and exploration of the components and blocks which constitute it. In order to comprehend spoken language, the listener has a crucial part to play in the process.

In order to achieve a coherent interpretation of speech, the listener needs to grasp the "network of concepts and semantic relations underlying the surface text" (Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981, as cited in Thompson 1994).

Listening further calls for evaluation, acceptance, or rejection, internalization and sometimes also appreciation of the ideas expressed and all languages present the listener with difficulties in the form of "acoustic blurring of lexical boundaries in connected speech" (Lynch, 1998, p.3).

Some of the factors which affect the ease or difficulty of tasks for the L2 listener are a fusion of the type of language heard, the content in which listening occurs and the task or purpose of listening (Anderson & Lynch, 1988).

So far the emphasis has been firmly on oral discourse, as reflected in the following dictionary definition. Special attention has been focused on discourse markers-sequentially dependent elements which demarcate units of speech, such as *oh, well, I mean*" (Crystal, 1997). The term is somewhat specialized and not easily defined, but may include not only (a) conjunction (e.g. *and, but, or, because, etc.*) but also (b) words outside the main syntax, such as *oh, well, you see, I mean, etc.* Words and phrases in this second group are sometimes labeled FILLERS or pragmatic particles (Chalker & Weiner, 1994).

It appears that the omnibus term "discourse marker" can be correctly and usefully applied to both spoken and written language although many linguists prefer to reserve "discourse" for the former. Of course, this is beyond denial that different types of discourse markers may be used in oral and written discourse (Schiffrin, 1987).

During the last two decades, analysis of discourse markers has occupied a large space in the pragmatics. Discourse markers have been considered from a variety of approaches, like signaling a "sequential relationship" between utterances (Fraser, 1999) as making discourse coherence (Schiffrin, 1987) and from a relevance- theoretic point of view (Anderson, 2001).

Müller states "there is a general agreement that discourse markers contribute to the pragmatic meaning of utterances and thus play an important role in the pragmatic competence of speaker" (Müller, 2004).

Crystal (1988) tends to think of [pragmatic expressions] as the oil which helps us to perform the complex task of spontaneous speech production and interaction smoothly and efficiently.

According to Lenk (1998:2) "studies that investigate pragmatic markers often focus more on the interactional aspects between the participants that are expressed through the use of particles."

To Fraser, discourse markers are a type of commentary pragmatic marker which signals a sequential discourse relationship. In other words, discourse markers "impose a relationship between some aspect of the discourse segment they are a part of, and some aspect of a prior discourse segment" (Fraser, 1999, p. 938). In short, they "signal how the speaker intends the basic message that follows to relate to the prior discourse" (Fraser, 1999, p. 387).

Schiffrin (1987) points out that although markers often precede sentences, they are independent of sentential structure. Removal of a marker from its sentence initial position leaves the sentence structure intact. Furthermore, several markers-*you know, I mean, oh, like* –can quite occur freely within a sentence at locations which are very difficult to define syntactically.

An assumption which plays an important role for this research is that discourse markers are multifunctional and they serve a number of sub-functions.

Thus, the aim of this study is to gain insight on the effects of interpersonal vs. cognitive discourse markers on listening comprehension.

Recall that both Schiffrin and Brinton recognize the two-fold function of discourse markers, in that, there are those which contribute to the textual mode of a language, and those which contribute to the interpersonal mode of language (Brinton, 1996, Schiffrin, 2003).

Neither researcher has *explicitly* claimed that a discourse marker could function in both a textual (connective) and interpersonal (epistemic) function *simultaneously*.

B. Characteristics of Interpersonal Discourse Markers

- Making Shared Knowledge

On the interpersonal dimension, verbs of perception such as *see*, *listen*, *know* are often used as discourse markers for making shared knowledge between the speakers.

Example: *see* that was the problem because I thought yeah just and then sort of the idea will have to be thrown out.

The verb *see* acts as a discourse marker here and starts as an utterance launcher to orientate and draw the attention of the listener to the upcoming utterance. It occurs in turn-initial position and signals that what follows is an explanation of what has preceded.

Schiffrin also showed that the marker *well* (an interpersonal marker because it contributes an attitude toward a proposition) may be multifunctional, since it may “convey the fulfillment of a conversational obligation, for example, an answer to a question [displaying a participation framework], at the same time that it conveys speaker attitude, for example, distance from a proposition [realizing an action]”

(Schiffrin, 1987; Schiffrin, 2003:459).

- Indicating Attitudes

A common discourse marker used to express attitude in many conversational exchanges is *well*.

C. Characteristics of Cognitive Discourse Markers

- Denoting Thinking Process

Discourse markers provide information concerning cognitive processes. For example, *well* is frequently used as a delaying tactic to denote thinking process when an answer is not immediately available.

- Reformulation

Speakers in real speech are under time constraints to structure and formulate their ideas. Discourse markers are therefore used to allow sufficient for speakers to reformulate, self-correct or repair their utterance.

One common discourse marker used to mark this purpose is *I mean*. It marks the speakers' reformulation or modification of his/her prior ideas or intentions (Schiffrin, 1987).

- Elaboration

Similarly, the discourse markers *like* and *I mean* are used to elaborate and modify the existing propositional meaning to make clear the intention of the speaker. Schiffrin (1987) claims that *I mean* is used to modify the speakers' own ideas and intentions.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Subjects

A total of 100 male and female Iranian EFL learners aged between 18 and 30, with Persian as their mother tongue, were chosen in this study from several language institutes in Esfahan. A Nelson Proficiency Test was administered to homogenize the students. Those students whose scores were in the range of one SD (standard deviation) above and below the mean (\bar{X}) will be chosen for the experimental and control groups.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR NELSON PROFICIENCY TEST

Statistics Nelson Test for Homogenizing		
N	Valid	100
	Missing	0
Mean		55.61
Std. Error of Mean		1.553
Median		57.00
Mode		57 ^a
Std. Deviation		15.529
Variance		241.149
Minimum		26
Maximum		88
Sum		5561

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

B. Instruments

The researchers applied Preliminary English listening Test (PET) for both groups to determine whether there would be any statistically significant difference in the listening abilities of the experimental and control groups before the treatment.

To minimize the necessity for written answers, the test format consisted of marking right answers in the multiple-choice questions.

The result of the subjects gave an indication of their listening comprehension proficiency before starting the treatment.

To establish whether the experimental group had improved significantly from the ten-week treatment, both groups of students were tested at the end of the experiment using the same PET listening test as in the pre-test. The results were statistically analyzed and compared with the previous test.

C. Treatment

The treatment consisted of a ten-week program starting directly after the pre-test was administered. The subjects in the experimental group were trained in the recognition and interpretation of interpersonal and cognitive discourse markers used in conversations and lectures.

The treatment program consisted of conversations from *Tactics for listening* and *select readings* audio-tape which involved interpersonal and cognitive discourse markers like *you know, I mean, you see, right, oh,...*

The researchers classified all the interpersonal and cognitive discourse markers into groups for the experimental group and taught each group in each session. The researchers played the audio-taped conversations to both groups in the same venue and at the same time of day but on different days. The researchers, however, tried to keep all the environmental variables as similar as possible. The listening texts of treatment played for the students, after each part, the researchers allowed the students 5 minutes to take notes and answer the questions.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

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

H₀₁: There is no statistically significant difference between listening comprehension of Iranian EFL students who learned discourse markers explicitly and those who didn't learn discourse markers.

H₀₂: There is no statistically significant relationship between Iranian intermediate EFL students' command of interpersonal and cognitive discourse markers and their listening comprehension ability.

With regard to the null hypotheses posed for this research, an attempt was made to reject them at .05 probability level. To do so, the results of the subjects' performance on the two sets of tests (pre-test and post-test) had to be compared. If the comparison indicated that their performance differed significantly, the researchers would be able to claim that there is an impact of interpersonal and cognitive discourse markers on listening comprehension ability. Therefore, the results of the performance of the subjects on the two tests were compared by using the t-test.

The results of the pre-test for the performance of 60 subjects are displayed in table 2.

TABLE 2.
THE RESULTS OF THE PRE-TEST FOR THE SUBJECTS IN BOTH GROUPS

Pre-test for the Control Group				Pre-test for the Experimental Group			
		Frequency	Percent			Frequency	Percent
Valid	5	2	6.7	Valid	3	1	3.3
	7	1	3.3		5	1	3.3
	9	2	6.7		9	2	6.7
	10	4	13.3		11	2	6.7
	11	2	6.7		13	1	3.3
	12	4	13.3		15	3	10.0
	13	3	10.0		16	3	10.0
	14	3	10.0		17	4	13.3
	15	2	6.7		18	2	6.7
	16	2	6.7		19	1	3.3
	17	3	10.0		20	3	10.0
	19	2	6.7		21	1	3.3
Total		30	100.0	22	2	6.7	
				23	1	3.3	
				25	1	3.3	
				26	2	6.7	
				Total		30	100.0

Table 2 shows that the performance of all the 60 students (in both groups) have been considered to see if the students' listening comprehension ability is the same or not. Table 3 presents the other results of two randomly selected groups.

TABLE 3.
THE FURTHER RESULTS OF THE PRE-TEST FOR THE SUBJECTS IN BOTH GROUPS

Statistics			Statistics		
Pre-test for the Control Group			Pre-test for the Experimental Group		
N	Valid	30	N	Valid	30
	Missing	0		Missing	0
Mean		12.57	Mean		11.70
Std. Error of Mean		.667	Std. Error of Mean		.711
Median		12.50	Median		12.00
Mode		10 ^a	Mode		12
Std. Deviation		3.655	Std. Deviation		3.897
Variance		13.357	Variance		15.183
Range		14	Range		15
Minimum		5	Minimum		4
Maximum		19	Maximum		19
Sum		377	Sum		351

Table 2 shows that the performance of subjects in two groups (experimental and control group) did not differ significantly. This means that the two means(x) obtained for each group are approximately equal.

The difference between the two groups was not statistically significant and the two groups were almost the same.

In Table 4 we will have the primary results gained from the performance of the two groups (experimental and control) on the post-test of the listening comprehension.

TABLE 4.
THE RESULTS OF THE POST-TEST FOR THE SUBJECTS IN BOTH GROUPS

Post-test for the Control Group				Post-test for the Experimental Group			
		Frequency	Percent			Frequency	Percent
Valid	4	1	3.3	Valid	3	1	3.3
	5	1	3.3		5	1	3.3
	8	3	10.0		9	2	6.7
	9	2	6.7		11	2	6.7
	10	4	13.3		13	1	3.3
	12	3	10.0		15	3	10.0
	13	3	10.0		16	3	10.0
	14	5	16.7		17	4	13.3
	16	2	6.7		18	2	6.7
	17	2	6.7		19	1	3.3
	18	1	3.3		20	3	10.0
	19	2	6.7		21	1	3.3
21	1	3.3	22	2	6.7		
Total		30	100.0	23	1	3.3	
				25	1	3.3	
				26	2	6.7	
				Total		30	100.0

Table5reveals further results gained from comparing the two groups on the post-test of listening comprehension.

TABLE 5.
THE FURTHER RESULTS OF THE POST-TEST FOR THE SUBJECTS IN BOTH GROUPS

Post-test for the Control Group			Post-test for the Experimental Group		
N	Valid	30	N	Valid	30
	Missing	0		Missing	0
Mean		12.63	Mean		16.73
Std. Error of Mean		.760	Std. Error of Mean		1.034
Median		13.00	Median		17.00
Mode		14	Mode		17
Std. Deviation		4.165	Std. Deviation		5.663
Variance		17.344	Variance		32.064
Range		17	Range		23
Minimum		4	Minimum		3
Maximum		21	Maximum		26
Sum		379	Sum		502

Table 5 indicates that the performance of the subjects (experimental group and control group) on the post-test of listening comprehension differed significantly, especially the students in the experimental group gained better scores than students in the control group.

The evidence presented in the Table 5 leads us to the next part of the study, to determine whether or not teaching interpersonal and cognitive discourse markers has any statistically significant effect on EFL learners' listening comprehension.

TABLE 6.
THE RESULTS OF THE T-TEST FOR THE CONTROL GROUP

		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
Scores for Pre-test and Post-test in Control Group	Equal variances assumed	.511	.477	-.066	58	.948	-.067	1.012	-2.092	1.958
	Equal variances not assumed			-.066	57.038	.948	-.067	1.012	-2.092	1.959

Table 6 is the results of T-test for comparing the listening scores of the students who weren't taught interpersonal and cognitive discourse markers (pre-test for the control group) and (post-test for the control group).

Independent sample T-test

P> .05 =It does not shows significant difference. (sig.2-tailed)

This table provides enough criteria for the rejection of the null hypothesis of this study. Therefore, we can safely claim that there is no statistically significant difference between the subjects' performance in pre – and post-test in control group who were not taught interpersonal and cognitive discourse markers.

Table 7 depicts the results of T-test for comparing the listening scores of the students who were taught interpersonal and cognitive discourse markers (post-test for the experimental group)and those who weren't(pre-test for experimental group).

TABLE 7.
THE RESULTS OF THE T-TEST FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Independent sample test									
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	2.142	.149	-4.011	58	.000	-5.033	1.255	-7.545	-2.521
Equal variances not assumed			-4.011	51.434	.000	-5.033	1.255	-7.552	-2.514

P< .05 =It shows significant difference. (sig.2-tailed)

Table 7 provides enough criteria for the rejection of the null hypothesis of this study. Therefore, we can safely claim that teaching interpersonal and cognitive discourse markers explicitly has improved the subjects' listening comprehension.

The last part of study is comparing the results of the subjects' performance on the post-test of listening comprehension between two groups.

TABLE 8.
THE RESULTS OF THE POST-TEST FOR BOTH GROUPS

Group Statistics					
	Post-test for Control and Experimental Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Scores	Post-test for Control Group	30	12.63	4.165	.760
	Post-test for Experimental Group	30	16.73	5.663	1.034

Table 9 shows the results of the T-test for comparing the listening scores of the students who were not taught interpersonal and cognitive discourse markers (post-test for control group) and who were taught (post-test for experimental group)

TABLE 9.
THE RESULTS OF THE T-TEST FOR THE POST-TEST BETWEEN TWO GROUPS

Independent Samples Test		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
Scores	Equal variances assumed	1.283	.262	-3.195	58	.002	-4.100	1.283	-6.669	-1.531
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.195	53.271	.002	-4.100	1.283	-6.674	-1.526

P < .05 = It shows significant difference. (sig. 2-tailed)

As Table 9 tells us, we can conclude that the null hypothesis is rejected. Therefore, the subjects in the experimental group who were made aware of the role of interpersonal and cognitive discourse markers in spoken discourse and conversations performed better than the subjects in the control group. Moreover, the difference is statistically significant. This is a good reason for the claim that command over discourse markers can promote listening comprehension ability of Iranian Intermediate EFL learners.

The most crucial findings of this study are as follows:

First, the results of the groups differed significantly in the post-test, showing that the explicit teaching had had a constructive utility on the listening comprehension ability of the subjects in the experimental group.

Second, the post-test – pre-test improvement showed a significant difference between the scores of the two groups as the experimental groups' scores indicated significant improvement but the control group's not.

Last but not least, the experimental group improved significantly in the post-test. The results in both the pre- and post-test of the control group remained very similar.

The findings of this study reject the theories proposed by Chaudron and Richards (1986) and Dunkle and Davis (1994) who claimed that discourse markers had no positive effect on listening comprehension.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The outcomes of the study suggested that students could benefit from language training programs. It seemed clear that the subjects in the treatment program had learned how to listen, instead of just listened to learn.

In this study, it appeared that the ability to interpret interpersonal and cognitive discourse markers employed by the speaker, enabled the EFL learners to form a global impression of the text as well as determine different stages of transition and emphasis, as was reflected by discourse markers.

There was a treatment in which the researchers raised the EFL learners' awareness of the role of interpersonal and cognitive discourse markers in the structuring of conversations.

In the pre-test, the researchers tested the existing listening comprehension of both the experimental and control groups before any kind of treatment.

The final results showed that there is a significant relationship between the subjects' listening ability and their knowledge of interpersonal and cognitive discourse markers. So, the null hypotheses were rejected. The findings of this paper also have wider implications within the content of listening in English to other speakers of other languages.

Practical implications of this paper propose that our findings may be used to determine instructional actions to be undertaken in different teaching contexts.

EFL learners should be made aware of the presence, importance, and facilitating impacts of interpersonal and cognitive discourse markers for listening comprehension. From the textual viewpoint, EFL learners can be asked to identify examples of frame markers previews and then predict content. Attention to logical connectives will help students analyze the writer's/speaker's line of reasoning and rhetorical strategies.

On the interpersonal level, EFL learners can look for hedges, boosters, and first person pronouns and reflect on why the speaker has chosen to use these features.

Pedagogically speaking, the language teachers can deal with authentic units of language by focusing on the organization of the materials used for the teaching of this skill. Furthermore, discourse markers can be viewed as a component of language along with sounds, words, structure, and meaning.

Although the main function of language is seen to be communicating ideas, it is through language that interpersonal convergence (and, although more rarely, divergence) is achieved. Discourse markers, which constitute an aspect of pragmatic competence that underlies one's ability to use language in culturally, socially, and situationally appropriate

ways, are useful conversational devices, not just for maintaining discourse cohesiveness and communicative effectiveness, but also for interpersonal interaction (Wierzbicka, 1991)

This study proposes a need to strengthen learners' pragmatic competence in spoken language by creating space to enhance their use of discourse markers. (as cited in Fung & Carter, 2007)

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Pronunciation as a Stumbling Block for the Saudi English Learners: An Analysis of the Problems and Some Remedies

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Abstract—Pronunciation is an area of L2 learning that has long been relegated to the status of secondary skill. However, it is a mistaken belief or wrong notion that correct pronunciation plays little role in communication. It is observed that in many cases, mispronunciation leads to unintelligibility of speech and/or misinterpretation of the message/information: a barrier to communication. This premise prompted the researchers to study the difficulty in pronunciation experienced by Saudi students. This paper is also an attempt at exploring the pronunciation problems faced by the Saudi students of English and aims to propound possible remedial measures. The researchers have included students enrolled in the English departments and their teachers at two universities in Saudi Arabia. Primary data was collected from the students and their teachers using surveys, interviews, and classroom observation of students' presentations. The study made some suggestions regarding materials that can help rectify the pronunciation of English among Saudi learners of English.

Index Terms—globalization, English, communication, pronunciation, foreign teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

It is ironical that though the Great Britain was abhorred by three fourths of the world that lay under its imperialistic subjugation, the **lingua franca** of the conqueror became a symbol of **prestige, power, and status** for its subjects. So deep and vast was this influence that though the sun did set on the British Empire one day, it is still shining bright on its language. Little could the British rulers have imagined that the language they were propagating in their empires to create cheap work force would one day become an **instrument of challenge** in their face. International compulsions of economy coupled with the position of the United States of America as the leader of the computer revolution only added to the pristine value of English as a **communication thread** that no nationality could ignore. Vast reserves of knowledge in the fields of technology, engineering, medicine, to name a few, were all available only in English till a few decades ago. Undeniably, English was destined to be the international language of communication. Today the reality is that the use of English the world over benefits people, facilitates trade and commerce, and makes possible the movement of people for diverse purposes including tourism and education.

Language is also a means of **socialization**, and it is this that binds human beings in a common thread as one race with similar needs and aspirations. It is also true that the members of this race naturally seek company of their fellow human beings: this is an instinct with them. This is where the urge for forming groups and an institution, both formal and informal, comes from. Thus language is liable to become a **carrier** of social practices, mores, values, taboos, customs and rites and many other features that characterize a culture. These and many other fears not quoted here for want of space caused cultural blocks against teaching-learning of English in Saudi Arabia in the decades prior to 1970s. But today, English is the only 'Foreign Language' to which students are exposed here. There is greater realization that cultural safeguards may be zealously provided but the spread of English may not be constrained; its learning and wider usage may rather be encouraged. This is where the efforts of the **rulers of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia** stand out: their efforts have been single mindedly directed at enabling the country to catch up with the world at all levels of interaction.

Rao (2002), as cited in Alfallaj (2013), states that those students in Saudi Arabia who had studied English for a number of years had gained in terms of knowledge of grammar and vocabulary; they were able to read the language well and proved their proficiency by scoring well in English in the examinations. Rao says in the same breath that these students though, lacked as far as the listening/speaking of English was concerned. They needed **proper training** in these two skills by a trained/proficient teacher. He further observes that these students were not able to use English for dialogues, conversations and discussions inside and outside campus; they lacked the ability to use English language as their daily life's communication medium.

In the Middle East, Arabic is the **primary language of communication**: from hearth to market and within diverse groups and institutions. This is despite the fact that English language finds a place in the curriculum and syllabus at both

elementary and secondary stages in schools and colleges in most of the Arab countries including Saudi Arabia. Various studies have also been conducted in educational institutions in Saudi Arabia to bring out the real status of English language teaching and learning. Unanimously, they have highlighted **learning blocks** that have given birth to an aversion, and even outright contempt among the learners towards L2 learning; the cause, as they outline, is **pronunciation difficulties**. Some of these are certainly valid and worthy of analysis. Let us first look at a few relevant studies that have dealt with pronunciation issues among learners in Saudi colleges and universities.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Jalal Ahmad and Mohammad Nazim (2014) conducted a study at Najran University to find out the causes of errors made by learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in pronouncing English words. The authors arrived at certain reasons why there is a need to learn English as an FL/ L2 in Saudi Arabia. The main reasons given are: (i) Globalization catching up as a new concept for ushering in free trade and, thereby, integrating all national economies into one comprehensive and dependable world economy; (ii) The whole world witnessing business relations among nations for which not only diverse approaches and strategies are used but also an increasing accent is pressed to facilitate trade and services to create a mutually dependable world society as a single unit through collaboration and cooperation; (iii) The world becoming a global village that needs uniformity of laws, rules and supporting infrastructure. (iv) Social situation/conditions rapidly changing, necessitating, rather demanding, a warm welcome to English language learning as it would benefit all states alongside **preserving sovereignty** of each participating state.

With respect to the support systems prevalent in KSA for the promotion of English language, more particularly pronunciation, Jalal Ahmad and Mohammad Nazim have observed that: (i) The Saudi Government has been allocating state revenues liberally in an effort to **promote** and **encourage** students and Saudi Arabic-speaking English teachers to learn English language in a proper manner; (ii) The Saudi Government has been following a policy of hiring the services of foreign, competent, committed and qualified English teachers to facilitate and promote learning of English language by the Saudi students; (iii) The Saudi Government has been sending its students abroad on **scholarships** to enable them to learn English language with proper/appropriate pronunciation; (iv) The Saudi Government is actively using mass media and other channels for bringing back into the fold of English education the youth who had for various reasons and compulsions, given up on education altogether. They realize fully well that development and progress can touch the masses only with the spread of education in general and English in particular.

Here it would be wise to note the observations highlighted by Jalal Ahmad and Mohammad Nazim:

English and Arabic belong to two different language groups: while the former falls under the Indo European group of languages, the latter comes under the Semitic group. It is a given that they would be different in nature. In fact, like two languages which belong from different groups are non identical in many ways, there are some fundamental divergence at the level of graphic patterns, sound levels, accent, pronunciation, speech pattern, and style of formation, articles, case and its orthographic systems. Arabic text is read and written from right to left and based on cursive script, while English has entirely different pattern which follows from left to right. Therefore it is but natural to expect learning difficulties for the Arabic learners of English or vice versa. However, none of these is an impossibility to overcome as these are learning barriers encountered by all foreign or second language learners, not just of English but of any language for that matter!

The speakers of English and Arabic languages are **culturally different**. These languages evolved and developed in different regions/areas and the people who contributed to such evolution and further development lived their life in their individual styles. Language-experts have opined that a language is a living and complicated phenomenon.

The learners of English language in the Arab world, Saudi Arabia included, display a keenness for acquiring English language proficiency because they believe that this would enable them to undergo the much sought after socialization process in the emerging global context, and help them reach out to people/groups beyond their local group. English is thus considered in the changing scenario an enabling factor to join the club of 'sophisticated people'. Even so, the Arab learners of English are still shackled by strong cultural influence that is likely to prove a barrier in the learning process for a majority of them.

Much like their counterparts elsewhere in the world, the young generation of Saudis firmly believes that English language is an essential element to achieve power and prestige. The pragmatic aims of the English language learners are directed towards maximizing their ability to be part of the multi-lingual and multi-cultural societies. In fact, there are English language learners, and many others too, who treat English language as a **facilitating factor** for expanding business, commerce, industry and, of course, contributing towards economic progress through global participation in the international market.

Arab students learning English are confronted with many difficulties in learning this language as there are fundamental differences between their mother tongue and English: the two belong to diverse language families. Whereas Arabic belongs to the Semitic group of languages, English is classified as Indo European. Their dilemma is heightened by the deep seated **prejudices** internalized by them against English. That, of course, is the field of the social scientists to explore. We may enumerate here, though, the differences between the two languages that pose a major challenge for the Arab learners. There is no place for capitalization in the Arabic language as is the convention in English. The punctuation rules in Arabic are quite different from those in English. Sofer and Raims (2002) have said of

Arabic language, "It has no distinction between upper case and the lower case". The authors state in the study report that Arab students learning English fail to put in practice the basic rule that a sentence has to begin with a capital letter in English. The researchers also point out that the students get much confused while writing their own names because they forget that their names should begin with capital letters! Similarly, the students commit errors with all proper nouns.

A fact necessary to remember is that Arabic has one letter for one sound which makes spelling much easier but in English one letter may have several sounds and it may even be 'silent' in some places: this confounds the Arab learners further. For instance, in the English words, 'half', 'calf', 'talk', 'walk', the letter *l* is silent following a vowel sound. However, in the word 'bulk' it is pronounced though still following a vowel sound.

Akuli (1989) and Al-Hattami (2010) point out the phonetic contradictions between English and Arabic. They have given many examples; some of which are as follows:

- (i) /p/ is a phoneme in English but it does not find a place in Arabic.
- (ii) /t/ is alveolar in English but it is dental in Arabic language.
- (iii) /d/ is alveolar in English but it is dental in Arabic language.
- (iv) /c/ is a phoneme in English but it does not find place in Arabic.
- (v) /v/ is a phoneme in English but it does not find place in Arabic.

According to Jalal Ahmad (2011), Saudi students of English (as FL or SL) face problems with almost every component of language: reading, writing, pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. The problem is compounded as while the other constituents are highly focused in class room interaction activities, proficiency level is hardly reached out. Thus, it reflects the lack of knowledge among learners at the level of inaccurate pronunciation that could generate communication hurdles in actual life. Many studies in Arabic speakers are concentrated on orthography and phonetics of English language, vowel pronunciation, sound categorization, phonological awareness of English phonotactics stress, intonation, consonant cluster, errors design in spelling mistakes and frequency of pitch among Arabic speakers. However, his study reveals the foremost impetus on the issues of pronunciation of English consonant sounds by Saudi learners who have passed their secondary schools and have registered in the preparatory year program at Najran University. Some suggestions and teaching strategies have been pledged by author which could turn down the problems in pronunciation of English consonant sounds among Arabic speakers. This study employs the relevant data which collected from the learners.

Pronunciation is an integral part of foreign language learning. Therefore English pronunciation plays a great role for ESL/EFL learners like other English skills or sub skills like reading, writing, vocabulary and grammar etc. There is no alternative but to develop their communicative proficiency and efficiency in this direction. It is one of the skills likely to be required by them in real life situations. Let us explain this using a simple illustration. In any social setting, 'parking' is a day to day expression finding a place in the conversation of almost each one of us. However, since the phoneme /p/ finds no place in Arabic, what a poor picture will be cast when an 'English educated' Arab youngster will ask the parking attendant what he/she has to pay for the 'barking' as they would pronounce it!

This is also supported by the findings of Jalal Ahmad (2011) and Al-Hattami (2010): Arabic mother tongue learners of English language find certain English consonant sounds difficult to pronounce. There are significant number of problems raised by the learners while pronouncing these specific consonant sounds e.g. /p/, /d/, /v/, /t/ and /ŋ/. /p/ is being pronounced as /b/ when it bobed up at the initial and final position of a word. For the medial and final positions the /d/ sound is marked as dental /d/ when it appeared in the medial and final positions. It was observed that the learners replaced /v/ by /f/ when it appeared in the medial and final positions. Their studies revealed also that most of the participants pronounced the alveolar /t/ as dental when it appeared in all three places. When /ʒ/ sound comes at medial position then it is sometimes replaced by /ʃ/, /s/ or /z/ phoneme. However, it is pronounced as /g/ when, it comes at final position. Sometimes, the /ŋ/ sound is replaced by /n-k/; sometimes, it is replaced by the /n-g/ sound when it appeared in the final position of a word.

It is clear from these and our findings that mother tongue interference is a major problem with English pronunciation for the Arab learners of EFL. Rigorous training followed up with pronunciation drills can, though, help these learners tide over this difficulty. I may point out here that this necessitates teacher training, both pre and in-service, since having Arabic as the mother tongue, they may as well be facing the same interference as their learners.

The main concern of Jalal Ahmad's (2011) study was to identify the problems of learning consonant sounds by Saudi learners of English. He made some suggestions and strategies to help teachers and students in reducing difficulties felt by students in pronouncing problematic consonant sounds. These are:

1. Today's teachers encounter a big challenge to raise the learner's awareness towards the value of English pronunciation for ESL learners. How perfectly one should articulate and refine it within English language learning programs, and most importantly for verbal communication. Needless to say, to enhance ESL student's pronunciation of English, teachers should develop the awareness towards pronunciation differences while working with them and the foremost knowledge of IPA symbols, phonetics and phonology should be a part of teaching. In fact, the learners can assist themselves the correct pronunciation for a specific sound or word with lexical assistance if they are already familiar of phonetics and phonology of English language.

2. It is necessary for the teachers to take an in-depth look about the learner's special needs and their problems. The student's knowledge may be diverted in respect of competency such as learning speed and style. Additionally, conducting workshops or student's needs analysis would be beneficial to evaluate the learner's pronunciation. As per the requirements of learner's needs, the teacher should come up with some appropriate or additional material or sources to turn down the learner's barriers in the classroom to enhance their English pronunciation.

3. Prominent concern should be focused on the unconventional or peculiar sounds of the learner's mother tongue and it has to be identified by the learners.

4. The IPA symbols must be practiced regularly for better pronunciation.

5. The main purpose of oral communication classes is to improve student's communicative competency. Therefore, it should be a part of English language teaching.

6. With the help of teacher or the recorded materials, the students should be asked to read the text aloud. If they commit any mistakes while reading, the teacher should correct and ask them to repeat it many times. The students should be provided the dialogues on some situations which help them to improve their confidence. The students should be given sufficient instructions to learn pronunciation within English language courses.

7. English outside of the classroom refers to all aspects of the English language that the learners are exposed to know the language outside the school. Thus, learners should be encouraged and motivated to speak English outside the classroom, it would help to grab the diverse sounds and pronunciations.

8. Minimal pair drills bear a great benefit in both teaching and learning, pronouncing as well. To differentiate between similar or problematic sounds in the target language.

9. The tongue twisters are the best and funny way for children to improve the articulation. It should be considered as a part of teaching.

10. Some electronic devices can be used by the teachers to enhance the proficiency and improve their pronunciation introducing listening models, like tape recorder or CD and ask to imitate.

11. Motivation is one of the most important factors in teaching, so there should be motivation in students to watch some useful English programs on TV such as BBC English, CNN, etc. Students can improve their pronunciation by these programs.

12. The students can be provided a variety of exercises and activities, e.g., reading, presentations, tempore, situational dialogues and interview exercises.

13. Finally, it is recommended that the students should listen or watch recorded discussions, speeches, news, serials etc. This step will lead them to develop better pronunciation or communication skills.

The authors in the current study came across many researches that were conducted with Saudi students, and many similar studies conducted in other Arabic speaking countries. These studies uniformly focused on identifying the mistakes that were committed by the Arab learners during the course of learning English as a second or foreign language. Some well known names in the field are: (Harrison, Prator and Tucker (1975), Abdul Haq (1982), Kharmah & Hajjaj (1989), Al-taha (1995), Wahba (1998), Binturki (2008), Al-Shuaibi (2009) and Al-Hattami (2010)). They focused mainly on three linguistic components: phonology, morphology and syntax.

Al-Shuaibi (2009), engrossed the problems of phonology and his findings reveal the difficulties of Arab learners in pronouncing final consonant clusters, reduction, substitution, and deletion. These are the three prime factors of these clusters which are involved in the pronunciation process.

Wahba (1998) looked into the difficulties faced by Egyptian students of English as a second language. In his work, he stated that English language learners in the Arab countries committed certain phonological errors that are related to **stress and intonation**. He furnished some suggestions and said that those errors were **inter-lingual** and thus occurred as a result of the phonological differences that operated between the sound systems of English and Arabic.

It would be relevant at this stage to refer to the language comparativeness between Arabic and English languages. Strozer (1994, p.204) states, "It appears to be a fact that at the growing age children are in tender stage and competency level is so fertile that they can easily absorb or adjust when it comes to first or second language as compared to adults". Her view is that the teachers possessing above average (or superior) **linguistics background** are better equipped with strategies and approaches to remove at least some of the problems of their students by adopting and repeating diverse strategies and approaches, and reinforcing ways that are found supportive in learning better and faster.

Strozer (1994, p.189) also touched upon the aspect of language comparativeness and its importance in the process of teaching and learning English language. She asserts, "A possible bonus of the type of language study that takes advantage of some of the results of comparative language research now available that it may shed considerable light on one's **own language**".

All vocalized languages have vowels. It is commonly believed by students, as it is stated in many textbooks of English language, that English language has five vowels (a, e, i, o, u). In fact, there are more than eighteen 'vowel sounds' in English. Together, these play an important role in the language as they are the central sound of a syllable. These vowels help to join letters to enable a speaker of the language to achieve full sound. Unlikely, there are no such number vowels in the Arabic language. In other words, there is no exact correspondence between the Arabic and English languages in many contexts.

We can see that English Alphabet contains 26 letters but Arabic contains 29 letters. All alphabets in Arabic are consonant sounds. The letters of Arabic language ‘alif’, ‘waw’, and ‘ya’ serve the role of weak consonants and are used as long vowels or diphthongs.

Given this rich review of literature, the researchers in this study tried to find answers to the following **Research Questions**:

1. What are the difficulties faced by Saudi students in learning pronunciation of English as a second language?
2. Will the use of Linguistics help in teaching and learning English language pronunciation to Saudi Students?
3. What suggestions can be made to the policy makers, teachers, and students regarding teaching English language pronunciation?

III. METHODS

This research paper was conducted as an attempt to

- (i) find out the importance of use of Linguistics in teaching and learning of English language;
- (ii) find out the difficulties in pronunciation faced by the Saudi students; and
- (iii) articulate strategies and other suggestions to the decision makers, teachers, and students.

The study was both **descriptive and analytical**. Data was collected using questionnaire, interviews, and observation. The population comprised students in the departments of English at two Public Universities in Saudi Arabia and their English courses teachers. All students (about 57 males and females) in the departments were asked to respond to the survey. The number of the respondents was 38. A random sample of the respondent students (10 students) was interviewed for further clarifications. Furthermore, six English teachers agreed to be interviewed. Additional information was obtained by setting two of the researchers in the classrooms and observing students presenting a topic of their choice for about 10 minutes each. Those sessions were recorded and then analyzed by the other two researchers. The data collected was analyzed qualitatively.

IV. RESULTS

The Importance of Linguistics

The participating students were asked to express their opinion about having Spoken English, **Phonetics and Phonology, Morphology and Syntax** courses. A majority of them mentioned that these courses were **crucial** to learn about the sound system of English and make them aware of the **correct pronunciation of sounds and words**, as also, the intonation and sound clusters. Students expressed their happiness seeing their teachers speak fluently in English and hope to be one day enabled like them. In fact, one student responded thus, “if I know places of the sounds or how sounds are pronounced, then I will be correct to read them”. He meant that if he could master the IPA sound system and the places of articulation his English will be far better. Linguistics courses are more fun and interesting compared to other courses. One student stated, “Courses that teach sounds are fun and make me awake in the class.... Other courses make me sleep”. All the participant students indicated that Linguistics courses are important because they have no problem in reading and writing; they only hope to improve their speaking skills and make themselves understandable to others when they speak in English.

Participant teachers also agreed that teaching **Linguistics is a must** because they understand its importance in learning a language. They went further to explain that Linguistics courses need to be taught by native speakers or Arab teachers with native-like accents because then it will be better presented and learned by the students.

Pronunciation Difficulties

The vast majority of students acknowledge that they face many **problems** when they learn English in general and when they learn **how to speak** in particular. One student wrote, “The only thing I want to learn is to speak fluently. This is enough for me”. When students were asked about the problems they face while learning how to speak, they came up with many issues. The first issue they mentioned was shyness. They are wary of making mistakes in pronunciation; their classmates would laugh at them. Another issue is that they do not get to practice English outside the classrooms. They mentioned that their teachers encourage them to listen to English music, watch movies and read English newspapers, but this frustrates them even more because they do not have full understanding when they do so. One student suggested, “We should watch movies with our teachers and they must help us how to understand”. Another student added, “In English there are similar sounds like /p/ and /b/, /f/ and /v/, /n/ and /ng/ and we do not know how to pronounce them when we speak”. Students also indicated that they cannot speak fluently and spontaneously. It takes them a lot of time to think before they speak. Grammar also emerged as a problem area. One student said, “I know the English grammar but when I speak I do not use correct grammar”.

English teachers who participated in this study confirmed that students faced a lot of problems when it came to speaking. They claimed that speaking problems hinder students from learning other courses effectively. They recommended that these problems should be studied by teachers and researchers in the field and look for possible solutions to alleviate if not eradicate the problem.

Classroom Observation

Classroom observation was an empirical method to observe and examine the students' pronunciation problems. Two of the researchers in this study attended classrooms sessions in which students were asked to present a topic for about 10 minutes each. Those sessions were also recorded and then analyzed by the other researchers in this study to match the findings. After analyzing the students' presentations, all the problems that were laid down by them were recorded.

1. They seemed to struggle when speaking.
2. Their comfort level with English was minimal.
3. They have **problems in pronouncing some sounds, using intonation and stress** to make sentences clear.
4. Most of them do not know where the sentence stops and a new sentence begins.
5. Consonant clusters were problematic too when pronouncing words like next, clothes, asked.
6. They try to insert a vowel between the last consonants.
7. In addition to all these, a number of English consonant sounds (like, /p/, /d/, /v/, /tʃ/, /ʒ/, and /ŋ/) seemed to be difficult for them to pronounce.

The problems that English language learners encounter make their speech incomprehensible and lead to ambiguity in the message they are trying to convey. This was obviously noticed by the researchers and was also stated by the teachers interviewed.

V. CONCLUSION

Lack of communication skills is one of the main reasons for failure of people, organizations, and corporations. The ability to listen, read/ interpret body language, ask questions, provide feedback and generate two-way communication builds trust and solves many problems.

Given the importance of **communication as a skill** that was also recommended by National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment (NCAAA) as one of the five learning domains, all teachers are obligated to teach this skill to students in whatever course and language they are teaching. Students in the English departments and centers are facing more challenge to learn communication as a skill and as a tool to communicate in a new language.

The findings of this study go along the findings discussed in the literature. For example Jalal Ahmed and Mohammed Nazim found that the cultural differences between the Arabs and the English is a problem factor the students face. Alkuli (1989) and Al-Hattami (2010) explored the phonetic contrasts between the two languages as well as the issue of consonant clusters (studied by Al-Shuaibi (2009) may slow the students who are learning English as a foreign language.

The **triangulation method** of collecting data (through survey, interview, classroom observation, and video recording analyses) strengthened the findings of this study and laid down the problematic issues that were a hurdle for students in learning how to speak correct, fluent and comprehensible English while at the same time, being comfortable with it. Stating the problems clearly has helped this research to suggest recommendations in the up-coming section.

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Despite the differences mentioned in the literature review between Arabic as first language (L-1) and English as second language (L-2), Arab students at the pre-university stage strive hard and make impressive progress in the learning of English (L-2). Below are some of the College/ University students' supportive factors in the learning process realized while carrying out this work.

(a) Motivational level: Motivational level is reported high and they attributed this level of motivation to **efforts made by the Government** coupled with encouraging attitude of the teachers as well as contribution of peers, parents and society.

(b) Medium of Communication: Medium of communication at the University level is strictly English which generates a suitable learning atmosphere to speak/interact in English. The Government has realized the benefit that would accrue to the students in their career or otherwise by learning English language. Therefore, the researchers have observed the presence of hired foreign teachers of English; sadly, these teachers do not know Arabic. As a result, they speak English only which sets a positive benchmark for the Arab student of English. In such an atmosphere, they get motivated to an extent to interact with teachers in English.

(c) Educational Tools/Accessories: Educational Tools/Accessories like Laptops, Digital and Electronic Dictionaries have become popular. Students at the universities (and colleges) have easy access to them. Students can search information from different sources using Internet and Wi Fi connections.

(d) The **overall learning and teaching environment** of English language is **encouraging**, and it provides the much needed support. The following facts had come to light during the research:

i. There isn't much shyness in the Arab students. They are also not hesitant when they commit mistakes in speaking or writing English language in real life or practical situations.

ii. It was observed that the students of English language (L-2) are not afraid of criticism or being ridiculed by people surrounding them when they commit mistakes in speaking or writing.

iii. Arab students in particular and Arab people in general, have excellent memory; they memorize things exceptionally well. The researchers have called this memorizing capability as God's gift to the Arabs.

iv. The Arab students of English have **extraordinary and unusual capability** to follow formula-based teaching. They can easily apply rules of English grammar in their studies of English language.

v. Arabic language has borrowed quite a few words and terminologies from English language. It is a fact that there are no parallels or substitute words for some rather all original English words. The Arabic language rather gives those words Arabic touch using Arabic Alphabets. There are words that sprang up as a result of scientific research and development, and development in management science. These are: Electronics, Strategy, Television, Internet, Computer, Plaza, Petrol, Digital Dictionary, Scientific and non-Scientific calculators. The pronunciation of these words does, therefore, not cause a problem to the learners.

vi. There are many factors that affect the process of learning of English language by the Arab students. These factors are not exactly the same in measure and content in all cases; these vary narrowly or widely from one individual to the other. The most important factor identified by Corder (1967) as quoted by Von Humboldt in 1936 that “one cannot really teach language but can only present the condition under which it will develop spontaneously in the mind in its own way...”. Though author critically illustrates his reasons for supporting this theory of language learning.

Worthy to mention, various studies have suggested that linguistics could help the Saudi students learning English with proper pronunciation. They have suggested also that non-Arabic speaking teachers of English would be more successful in bringing about the necessary change since the Saudi students would have no means to revert to Arabic while interacting and learning and, per force, they would learn faster and right as far as the English pronunciation is concerned.

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An Experimental Study on the Impact(s) of Emotional Intelligence Enhancement on Answering Cloze Test among Iranian University Students

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Abstract—The current study was after investigating the tentative link(s) between enhancing Emotional Intelligence (EI) and progress in performance in cloze test among Iranian university students. For this purpose, 39 students in treatment and control group completed the "Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire" and answered a cloze test as pre-test; afterwards, they received instructions on EQ and strategies to enhance it. At the end of the course, the same cloze test was administered as post-test. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and independent samples t-test. The analysis of the data revealed that there is a significant difference in the progress of students' score in cloze test in two groups. The results help understand how students' emotional intelligence enhancement influences cloze test scores and also possibly in a broader scale, testing.

Index Terms—cloze test, emotional intelligence enhancement, University students

I. INTRODUCTION

In taking tests (specially written ones) there is one main factor at work, the "Brain". Educators (along with many other specialists) have studied the brain and its structure to discover how it works and how much instructions it can store and recall. Thus, whatever surrounds and seemingly blocks access to competence must be known in order to be controlled or neutralized. EI (which involves various other psychological constructs) could be thought of as a surrounding factor of language ability that can both block learning and recalling. It is not common for psychological constructs to receive as widespread attention as EI has received; it has been so much controversial that the most widely read social science book was devoted to it (Goleman, 1995). Beside this best seller book, many other popular books and magazine, and newspaper articles focused on EI. "Google Scholar shows 57,000 references to emotional intelligence in scientific work during the years 1995 to 2000, 121,000 references during the years 2001 to 2006, and 162,000 references in the years 2007 to 2012"(Nicola, et al. 2013, p. 57). Results of behavioral decision research indicated that the emotions individuals expect to experience or experienced ones in the past as the upshot of their actions are important in determining their behavior (Mellers, Schwartz, & Ritov, 1999). Emotional reactions can include adjustment in thinking, behavior, and language. The end products of these shifts probably clouds aptness to think and act in certain ways. The improvement of an emotion over time banks on how the situation is appraised and handled. Goleman (1995) claimed that EQ can predict success at home, at work, and at school, as well as or better than IQ; he further suggested that successful life outcomes are more a function of emotional rather than cognitive intelligence. Cherniss (2000, p. 547) claimed that "a considerable body of research suggests that EI provides the basis for competencies important in almost any job". Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) in a study examining the relationship between EI and IQ found that an executive needs a high IQ to get to the management or executive levels, but once people reach that position, IQ does not discriminate between better or worse performing managers, instead EI becomes the main predictor to differentiate the star managers from the average performers.

There is a considerable body of evidence which suggests that EI has a positive impact on student's academic success (Abdullah et al. 2004; Parker et al. 2004a, 2004b); Mayer and Salovey (1997) suggested that general intelligence accounts for almost 10 to 20 percent of success. Regarding its say in academic settings and more particularly in the realm of language education, there is considerable interest in figuring out whether individual difference measures (other than intelligence) predict academic success. A sizable literature on this issue indicated links between personality and other traits and academic success. As an example, Parker et al. (2004) in a research examining the transition from high school to university, also found that various EI dimensions predicted academic success. More recently, a small body of empirical research has emerged to indicate that EI is not unrelated to academic achievement. Petrides, Frederickson, and

Furnham (2004) investigated the relationships among EI, cognitive ability, and academic performance with 650 participants. They figured out that EI moderated the relationship between cognitive ability and academic performance.

EI as a probable influential factor in language testing in the world of language education is the focus of the current study since although there is substantial EI research done in the workplace or on individuals, it needs more attention in education (Hargreaves, 2000; Pekrun and Frese, 1992). "Despite burgeoning research interest in the role of affect in psychological development, emotions experienced in the academic domain has until recently remained a largely unexplored field of psychological research" (Goetz T. et al. 2007, p. 3). Emotions also influence motivation, activation of learning resources, choice of learning strategies (cognitive and metacognitive), and thus on ultimate achievement. (Goetz, 2004). Goetz, et. al. (2007, p. 4) stated that "Due to their impact on achievement outcomes, emotions experienced in testing situations are a particularly critical topic of investigation in modern, achievement-oriented societies". Being able to control or develop emotional practices should end in feelings of self-control (Lok & Bishop, 1999). Goetz and colleagues further add that little is known about students' state emotions experienced in academic settings (including their emotions during taking tests and exams). The present study aims to contribute to reducing this research gap by investigating students' emotional experiences during the performance phase of tests—especially cloze test which seems to be more stressful at least for Iranian students who rarely experience it. This ability to control oneself must be of value in the critical moment of being tested in an academic life.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. *Emotional Intelligence*

At a theoretical level EI reflects the extent that one attends to, processes, and acts upon information of an emotional nature intra-personally and inter-personally. Mayer and Salovey (1997) have conceptualized it as a collection of intellectual abilities dealing with emotions and the processing emotional information. Mayer et al. (2004) believed that EI is best defined of as an *ability*, comparable to cognitive intelligence. EQ has been defined also as a *trait* (Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005), like personality characteristics such as extraversion or conscientiousness. This distinction has been controversial (Austin, 2004; Mayer et al., 2000; Sakofske, Austin, & Minski, 2003)

Each theoretical paradigm explains EQ from among one of the following three perspectives: ability, trait and mixed model. Ability models consider EQ as a form of mental ability purely, therefore, it is thought of as a pure intelligence; the single ability model of EQ is that proposed by Salovey and Mayer (1990). Petrides and Furnham (2001) categorized EI measures as trait and state measures (emotional self-efficacy), that is a collection of behavioral moods and self-perceptions pertaining to the ability to recognize, process, and use emotion-laden information. On the contrary, the mixed models combine personality characteristics such as optimism and well-being with mental ability (Mayer, 1999). EI is conceptualized as a mixture of cognitive, motivational, and affective constructs in Mixed models. As a result of combining intellective and non-ability traits, mixed models do not declare EI to be categorized as intelligence (e.g., spatial ability) (Goleman, 2005). The Bar-On EQ-i instrument (1997) containing 133 items, was used by some researchers (Austin et al., 2004; Bar-On, 1996, 1997, 2002, 2006). However, Bar-On's definition of EI slightly differs from that of Mayer and Salovey, and the scale includes some dimensions that might not associate with EI directly (e.g., problem solving, social responsibility, etc.). The current study used the Bar-On's mixed model by representing some types of emotional competencies because firstly, the construct underlying 'emotional competence' is found to be a multidimensional construct (Zeidner, Roberts, & Matthews, 2002). Because the mixed model is a hierarchical multidimensional model of general emotional competence as a general factor and other compound factors as specific emotional competencies, it is possible to study the associations of these competencies with selected outcome variables. Secondly, the model represents various emotional competencies (Austin, Saklofske, Huang, & McKenney, 2004). Finally, Bar-On model has substantially common characteristics with the Mayer et al. (2000a, 2000b) model (Parker et al. 2005).

B. *The Possibility of EI Enhancement and How to Do It*

The literature on emotional intelligence shows that EI can be improved by systematic instructions. There is evidence that EI can be enhanced and learnt through appropriate learning interventions and trainings (Goleman, 1995; Mayer et al. 1999; Jaeger, 2003; Bar-On. 1997). Gardner (1983) argued that social intelligence (which embraces EQ) is dynamic. Some years later, Goleman (1995) argued that EI is apt to change and those who have lower EI could improve their abilities to identify, express, and regulate emotions. Bar-On (1997), also suggested that EI continues to develop with age and maturity and therefore can be developed. There are studies which prove such a notion. A study by Sala (2000) showed an improvement of the EI level of individuals who had participated in the training programs. Slaski and Cartwright (2002) also proved a significant change in the EI of experimental group after 4 weeks of receiving instructions. Some longitudinal studies also support these findings (eg: Kagan, 1998; Vaillant, 2000). Finally, school-based programs of emotional learning demonstrated similar results (Kusche and Greenberg, 2001). Based on these findings, it could be concluded that EI enhancement is not impossible. Educational strategies directed toward students' emotions improves academic performance (Pool, 1997). This finding resulted in many educational settings to execute school-based programs for improving emotional learning (SEL). The SEL program refers to the knowledge and

skills that students acquire through emotional education, instruction or activities (Matthews et al. 2002). Topping et al. (2000) categorized the School-based EI programs into seven typology interventions, namely "behavior analysis and modification interventions; counseling and therapeutic interventions; social skills training; peer-mediated interventions; cognitive and self-managed interventions; multiple interventions; and miscellaneous". Rimm-Kaufman (2006) found that students who followed the Responsive Classroom under the emotional intelligence program showed more positive attitude towards school, teachers and peers than students from control schools. And ultimately a meta-analysis of over 300 studies by Durlak, J. A., & Weissberg, R. P. (2005) Proved that designed programs for enhancing social and emotional learning significantly improve students' social and emotional competencies. Feedback from EI training programs with students (Brackett & Katulak, 2006) suggested favorable influences for school-related performance besides interpersonal affairs. A number of school-based programs focused on social and emotional learning have shown constructive influences for children's social and emotional abilities and well-being as well as for academic success. Thus, it is safe to conclude that in teaching and learning, the effort to promote students' EI would be better done by integrating emotional intelligence in the instructions.

Schutte and Malouff (2002) taught EI to beginning university students; afterwards, progress in EQ was achieved and also was more likely to complete their first year of university. Slaski and Carwright (2003) compared managers that received EQ training one day per week with a group of managers who did not receive instructions. The treatment group then scored significantly higher on EQ and they had significantly better scores for self-rated mental health and work morale. Also, a 11 week EQ training program of Groves, McEnrue, and Shen (2008) showed that those in the training group had significantly higher EQ, emotional self-efficacy and workplace civility after training. In a study with MBA students, Reuben, Sapienza, and Zingales (2009) found that those randomly assigned to a course designed to teach the abilities described by Mayer and Salovey's model, progressed on a test of EQ. In another study with medical students, Fletcher et al. (2009) found that a class on EQ enhancement resulted in significantly higher scoring on EQ. Kirk, Schutte and Hine (2011) provided emotional self-efficacy training to employees randomly assigned to the intervention condition, and demonstrated that the treatment group scored higher on EQ and emotional self-efficacy.

C. Cloze Test

The word cloze test (containing frequent, every n-th word deletions to measure comprehension of macro-propositions) is derived from closure in Gestalt theory. The exercise was first described by W.L. Taylor in 1953. In the 1960s, "studies focused on cloze tests as a measurement of reading comprehension in L1 and L2. During the 1970s, cloze tests began to be used as a measurement of overall L2 proficiency" (Ahluwalia, 1992, P. 82). Nowadays, they are broadly used and as part of some large-scale language tests (such as TOEFL, IELTS).

Salovey, Bedell, Detweiller, & Mayer (2000) argued that more emotionally intelligent persons should be more successful at managing stressful situations since they can perceive, appraise and consequently regulate their emotions better than others. Salovey et al. (2000) stated that EI could be perceived of several coping processes: rumination, social support networks and the disclosure of trauma, suggesting that learners with higher EI could have better coping and effective coping strategies. High trait EI individuals are thought to be more able to manage stress and peer relations (Petrides, Sangarieau, Furnham, & Frederickson, 2006) and are considered more sensitive to the environment emotional cues, such as the effects of mood induction (Petrides and Furnham, 2003). Emotional intelligence also involves emotional problem solving as well (Mayer & Geher, 1996). In order to solve emotional problems, individuals must become aware of their own emotions in the first place and then use that information to recognize emotions in others. Being able to recognize emotions is imperative to people's emotional well-being, since it is related to additional aspects of EI, including openness and empathy (Mayer & Salovey, 1993, 1997). "Those who recognize their emotions and can gain control of them, can also harness them while performing on a test, not to be disenfranchised by inhibiting factors which can lead to a poor performance of a really intelligent student" (Ebrahimi & Khoshsima, 2014, p. 153). All in all, it could be argued that emotions are an indispensable part of problem solving which is stressful. Exams are one of the most stressful problems that a student has to solve in his academic life, hence the necessity of studying the associations between EI and test taking, particularly cloze tests which seem to cause more stress due to lack of use in Iran.

Considering the significant relationship between EI and performance specially in tests and reviewing the theoretical findings (with regard to the existence of a probable relationship between the two constructs of EI and cloze test ability) and the dearth of experimental research in this area led the researchers to experimentally investigate the impact of EI in Iranian university students (as an independent variable) on cloze test score (as dependent variable). Based on what went before it is quite reasonable to study the impact of EI on cloze tests which are more sustainable to deal with emotions due to relatively lack of familiarity in an Iranian educational context. To fulfill the aims of the study, the following research question was posed and investigated:

Does teaching EQ significantly change the acquired scores on cloze test?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

39 freshman students mostly from Sistan and Balouchestan province (IRAN) studying English in Chabahar Maritime University participated in the study. In treatment group, 9 participants were male and 12 were female, their ages ranged from 18 to 22 years old and all majored in Economics. In control group also 18 students participated 14 of which were female; their age ranged from 18 to 25.

B. Instruments

For the purpose of the study, the "Bar-On EI" test and a standard cloze test were given to the students to be answered. For measuring EQ, Bar-On developed a 133-item self-report Emotional Intelligence scale. This test (the emotional quotient inventory EQ-I) offers an estimate of EQ including 5 major scales and 15 subscales (using a five-point Likert Scale ranging from 'Never' to 'Always'). In the current study, the Persian version of the test was applied. Dehshiri (2003) contended that the test is reliable and valid in Iranian culture. The total reliability of the questionnaire, estimated via Cronbach's alpha, was 0.82. A standard cloze test was used as pretest and also as post test to measure the progress of the students after instructions on EQ enhancement; furthermore, a demographic form asking questions about the participants' age, gender, and major was given to each student.

C. Data Collection

The study was done at Chabahar Maritime university in the province of Sistan and Baluchestan, in Iran, over a period of one semester (4 months) in the autumn of 2014. Students were informed of the process, and then a proficiency test, "Interchange Placement Test", was administered. Next 39 students were chosen among students of different levels of proficiency who were intermediate. Afterwards, the "Bar-On EQ tests" and the "cloze tests" were distributed. About ethical procedures, the questionnaires were distributed after informing the participants of the importance of the research and the plausible influences of the results on the progress in their future exams. Therefore, they were willing to participate in the study and affirmed their consent verbally. After gathering the questionnaires, some of the participants were selected randomly and were interviewed to check the reliability of their responses. After one semester in which students received instructions on EQ, what it is and how it could be enhanced and controlled to increase learning and recalling, again a cloze test was given to the students to see how much students' proficiency has been changed. Beside this experimental group, a control group with no significant change in their EQ answered the same cloze test as pretest and posttest in the same period of time. The number and proficiency of the control group and also the gender and age were almost the same as those of the experimental group.

D. Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were utilized. To determine the impact of EI enhancement on cloze test, the progress in answering cloze test items and EI, independent samples t-test was conducted.

IV. RESULTS

In order to analyze the relevant data in this experiment, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 22 was employed. The level of significance was set at 0.05. Table 4.1 reveals descriptive statistics obtained from the control and experimental groups in cloze test in pre-test.

TABLE 4.1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS' PERFORMANCE ON CLOZE TEST (PRE-TEST)

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pretest (cloze)	1.00	18	2.3333	1.02899	.24254
	2.00	21	2.3810	1.39557	.30454

The independent sample t-test for the performance of the experimental and control groups on the pre-test of cloze test is shown in table 4.2. As the table demonstrates, there is no significant difference between the two groups in the scores of cloze test at the beginning ($t = -.119$, $p > .05$) (see Table 4.2.).

TABLE 4.2.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances								
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pretest (cloze)	Equal variances assumed	1.517	.226	-.119	37	.906	-.04762	.39851	-.85508	.75984
	Equal variances not assumed			-.122	36.257	.903	-.04762	.38932	-.83700	.74176

Descriptive statistics obtained from the control and experimental groups for EQ questionnaire at the beginning of the experiment is shown in Table 4.3.

TABLE 4.3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS' SCORES IN EQ TEST

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pretest (EQ)	1.00	18	477.8889	45.41558	10.70456
	2.00	21	470.3810	50.15224	10.94412

The independent sample t-test for the performance of the experimental and control groups on the emotional intelligence in pre-test is shown in table 4.4. The same as cloze test, no significant difference was observed between these groups on the EQ scores ($t = .487, p > .05$).

TABLE 4.4.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pretest(EQ)	Equal variances assumed	.758	.390	.487	37	.629	7.50794	15.4289015	-23.75398	38.7698638
	Equal variances not assumed			.490	36.871	.627	7.50794	.30886	-23.51442	.53030

Table 4.5 shows descriptive statistics obtained from the control and experimental groups in cloze test in post-test.

TABLE 4.5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS' IN POST TEST

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Post test (cloze)	1.00	18	1.9444	1.25895	.29674
	2.00	21	3.2857	1.27055	.27726

The independent sample t-test for the performance of the experimental and control groups on the cloze test in post-test is shown in table 4.6. A significant difference was observed between these groups on cloze test scores at post-test ($t = -3.300, p < .05$).

TABLE 4.6.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR POST TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
posttest(cloze)	Equal variances assumed	.036	.851	-3.300	37	.002	-1.34127	.40640	-2.16472	-.51782
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.303	36.192	.002	-1.34127	.40611	-2.16474	-.51779

To examine the influence of the treatment (EQ training) on the improvement of the students' performance on cloze test more precisely, the difference of scores at pre-test and post-test was calculated for the two groups and the related statistical analyses were conducted to them. Table 4.7 shows descriptive statistics obtained from the difference of scores at pre-test and post-test in the cloze test.

TABLE 4.7
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS' DIFFERENCE ON CLOZE PRETEST AND POSTTEST

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
difference (cloze)	1.00	18	-.3889	1.33456	.31456
	2.00	21	.9048	1.22085	.26641

The independent sample t-test for the difference of scores at pre-test and post-test on cloze test for the experimental and control groups is shown in table 4.7. As the table shows, there is a significant difference between the two groups in the difference of scores at pre-test and post-test on cloze test after instruction on EQ ($t = -3.160, p < .05$).

TABLE 4.8.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PRE AND POST TEST SCORES

		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
Difference (cloze)	Equal variances assumed	1.205	.279	-3.160	37	.003	-1.29365	.40933	-2.12304	-.46426
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.138	34.880	.003	-1.29365	.41222	-2.13060	-.45671

V. DISCUSSION

The current study was after finding the probable impact of EQ enhancement on the progress in cloze test. In this section, a summary of the responses is provided to address the research question. The research question delved into the link between progress in cloze test and EQ development. The results proved a significant difference in the students' progress in cloze test after teaching EQ. The results of this study are in line with those conducted by Taylor (2004) and Akinsola and Olowojaiye (2008). Also, the findings are in line with Schutte and Malouff (2002). The yielded results confirmed the findings obtained by Slaski and Carwright (2003). Likely, Groves, McEnrue, and Shen (2008) showed the same results. The findings of the current study corroborate the results of a study with MBA students, Reuben, Sapienza, and Zingales (2009). Fletcher et al. (2009) found that a workshop of seven month on EQ resulted in significantly higher scoring on EQ. The results of the current study confirmed the findings of Kirk, Schutte and Hine (2011).

Based on the findings of the present study which confirm the findings of other parallel studies, it could be stated that teaching EQ influences the progress in cloze test, since emotions proved to be at work in exams as Ebrahimi and Khoshsima argued that "one who can handle his emotions can show his capabilities and achievements in tests (and test-like situations) as they really are, not influenced by stress or other inhibiting factors" (2014, p. 154). Also it could be stated that EQ is related to performance in cloze test. Ultimately, it could be argued that EQ is a significant predictor of progress in tests particularly those which are more stressful.

VI. CONCLUSION

Education has been proved to be crucial in success, academic life and particularly academic achievement, to name only a few. Being tested creates a stressful situation and it deteriorates while testing rubric is less familiar or unfamiliar, like administering cloze test in Iran. As an educated guess, researchers of the current study presumed EQ as an affective factor to be influential in a cloze test that seems to be more stressful in an Iranian context in which it is not used widely. Thus, the aim of the study was to find the possible relationship between EQ and progress in cloze test. The results of the data analysis undertaken showed a significant relationship between the progress in cloze test and EQ enhancement. The implications of the study are as follows. Consciousness and Knowledge of EQ seems to be one of the missing rings in educational contexts which may solve many educational problems specially affective ones. Based on the findings of the current study it can solve at least emotional problems emerged in an exam (or even before it), that in turn can change the destiny of learners in a wider scope and also in a broader scale the destiny of a society. A course (or a workshop) on EQ for students which proved to be helpful in the current study, could be programmed in syllabus designs. Nonetheless, the limitations of the study are as follows: the participants majored in Economics who relatively may not need to cope with much stress at the moment of attending the university; the study can be conducted for students studying other subject matters in which stress is more at work like EFL learners, medical students or even student pilots. The investigation shall be replicated to establish and guarantee an acceptable generalizability and test the results against lack of generalizability and extrapolating the results to other populations. Tentative link between EQ enhancement and progress in answering cloze test provided by the current research makes it out of the ordinary, and a meticulous repetition of the research in a broader context with a larger population is suggested. A related avenue of research might explore how EQ enhancement influences other areas of education.

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A Survey of the Status Quo of Business English Discipline in Universities in China: Take Universities in Shanxi Province as an Example*

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Abstract—The Business English discipline in colleges has developed into a new phase since it was firstly granted by the Ministry of Education in 2007. The paper aims to investigate the status quo of Business English discipline in universities in Shanxi Province in China on the basis of the results of the investigation and tries to find the existing problems. The suggestions for the future development are accordingly made.

Index Terms—Business English, status quo and discipline development

I. INTRODUCTION

The Business English teaching in China has a history of more than 50 years, but it is not until the 21st century that Business English becomes an independent discipline. In 2007, the Ministry of Education has granted BA programme of Business English to the University of International Business and Economics for the first time, which marked that the Business English was formally established as a discipline in China. Afterwards, Business English experienced a vigorous development. According to incomplete statistics, at present, nearly 2000 public or private universities or colleges have set up Business English as an independent discipline or a subject orientation (Lin, 2010).

However, the history of Business English teaching in Shanxi Province is relatively short due to its unfavorable geographical location in the northern part of China, underdeveloped economy, few foreign trade companies and trade activities and insufficient education investment from the government. Therefore, a comprehensive survey on the status quo of Business English discipline in Shanxi Province will be of great significance and give insight into its future development.

II. BUSINESS ENGLISH RESEARCH IN CHINA

There are many researches about the development and the current situation of Business English discipline in China. In 2006, Theoretical Research Group of Business English of the University of International Business and Economics, a leading university on Business English research, reviewed the history of Business English teaching and investigated the current situation of the discipline by discussing the object of study, the discipline orientation and the development trend of Business English. The group pointed out that Business English would maintain its status as a practical interdisciplinary field of learning for a long time.

In 2009, in their paper *Developing National Curriculum for BA Program in Business English of China (For Trial Implementation)*, Chen and Wang analyzed the development of Business English discipline from the perspectives of setting background, theoretical basis, cultivation goal, curriculum, teaching requirements, and teaching principles and methods (Chen and Wang, 2009).

In 2009, Liu discussed the tortuous development history of Business English discipline, the evolution and development of Business English in China, the discipline orientation and the elements essential to the development of Business English discipline. He also gave some practical advice for the future development.

In 2010, Lin proposed that it was necessary to have a rational reflection on the development of Business English as a discipline. He provided some practical suggestions on planning a moderate development scale, keeping the steady and mature development, and achieving better results in the cultivating the inter-disciplinary talents of English.

In 2011, Wang and Li Lin explored disciplinary mission and developmental path of foreign business language after reviewing the history of Business teaching and the status quo of Business English discipline.

In 2014, in his paper *The Beginning, Evolution and Development Trend of Business English Teaching in China*, Ye reviewed the development trend of Business English teaching in China, gave a brief introduction about the causes and effects of the establishments of Business English, and explained the close relationship between the establishments of Business English and the development of foreign economic and trade. In this research, the author proposed that the cultivation goal was supposed to put emphasis on the cultivation of internationalized talents in accordance with the

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changed situation (Ye, 2014).

Different from the above researches on the discipline development, Lin's paper explored the establishment of Business linguistics as a new and independent discipline in the field of applied linguistics. He appealed that given its solid theoretical foundation, the long history of Business language and prominent features of Business discourses, it was time to establish Business linguistics as an independent discipline (Lin, 2014).

There are also many quantitative studies on Business English research, among which is the distinguished research of Wang and Li. In 2013, Wang and Li quantitatively surveyed the development of Business English research in China from 2002 to 2011. Their findings are as follows: (1) the number of the academic papers and research projects on Business English is showing a yearly increasing trend but there are few high-level achievements; (2) there are a wide range of research areas, and hot areas include Business English major, Business English teaching, Business translation; (3) non-empirical research predominates over empirical research (Wang & Li, 2013). Their paper provided insightful suggestions for Business English research in the future.

Researchers in China also study the Business English discipline from the perspective of teacher competence. Wang and Zhang's study indicated that Business English teacher competence was composed of many factors including teaching ability, broad knowledge of business and language, and research ability. They suggested that business teachers were required not only to improve professional quality, but also to strengthen their comprehensive competence (Wang & Zhang, 2011).

III. RESEARCH METHOD

This research mainly adopted the questionnaire investigation and was complemented by interviews with some Business English teachers to acquire more information. All the data collected was input into the computer software SPSS17.0 to make a quantitative analysis of the results.

A. *The Subjects of the Research*

The subjects in the research included 6 universities in Shanxi Province that have established Business English as an independent discipline or a subject orientation. The universities are Shanxi Normal University, Shanxi University of Finance and Economics, Datong University, Changzhi University, Yuncheng University, Business College of Shanxi University and 54 Business English teachers from these universities.

Among the 6 universities, the two universities Shanxi University of Finance and Economics and Business College of Shanxi University are both located in Taiyuan, the capital city of Shanxi Province, and they both belong to the financial and economics university. The other 4 universities are all normal universities, located in four different cities in Shanxi Province.

B. *The Research Design*

The questionnaires in the survey were designed on the basis of *The Questionnaire on the Current Situation of Business English Discipline in Chinese Universities and Colleges*, developed by the China Association of International Business English and appropriately modified by the author according to the actual situation. There are two sets of questionnaires. Each of the questionnaires has 10 questionnaire items. Questionnaire One *The Questionnaire of the Status Quo of Business English Discipline of Universities in Shanxi Province* mainly aims to investigate the basic information about the Business English discipline, including cultivation objectives, curriculum, teaching equipments and facilities. While Questionnaire Two *The Questionnaire of the Status Quo of Business English Teaching in Universities in Shanxi Province* aims to survey the following four aspects: background information about Business English teachers (such as age, academic degree, professional title, academic background), information about the teaching process (teaching model, teaching method and the challenges in the teaching process), teachers' expectations on the professional training as well as teachers' suggestions for the future discipline development. Pilot test was conducted in order to test the reliability and validity of the questionnaires and appropriate modifications were accordingly made.

C. *Data Collection*

The process of data collection in this survey is as follows: the author sent the questionnaires to one teacher in each university by E-mail, who printed and distributed the questionnaires to their colleagues. Questionnaire One was completed by the department deans according to the actual situation of the discipline. Questionnaire Two was distributed to the Business English teachers and finished at their staff meeting which was very convenient for the questionnaire distribution and data collection. The questionnaires were collected and sent to the author by mail. The ratio of recovery of Questionnaire One is 100% with handing out 6 and taking back 6, and the recovery ratio of Questionnaire Two is 93% with handing out 58 and collecting 54.

In the process of data collection, the author also interviewed five Business English teachers from five universities by telephone to have an in-depth understanding about the status quo of the discipline and the teaching process of Business English in the 6 universities.

IV. THE RESULTS OF THE SURVEY

A. The Curriculum

The landmark document *Developing National Curriculum for BA Program in Business English of China (For Trial Implementation)* (Curriculum hereafter), issued by the Ministry of Education in 2009, proposed that Business English courses are composed of four modules, each accounting for a certain proportion: English knowledge and skills (50%~60%), business knowledge and skills (20%~30%), cross-cultural communicative competence (5%~10%) and humanities (5%~10%) (Chen & Wang, 2009).

The survey shows that there are several problems existing in the curriculum of Business English in universities:

(1) The four modules of the curriculum are incomplete. The proportion of English language and skills courses far exceeds 60% as suggested by the Curriculum while the other three modules: business language and skills, cross-cultural communicative competence and humanities are severely overlooked. Among the modules, the proportion of business language and skills module is far less than the requirements of the Curriculum. And it is very common that the courses of BE in some universities still follow the traditional training model of English Language and Literature discipline or English Education discipline, only adding one or several business courses, which do not reflect the discipline nature of Business English.

(2) Even though some business-related courses are on the curriculum in some universities, some courses such as economics, international trade, business negotiation have to be taught in the native language of Chinese by teachers employed from other economics schools. In spite of having finished the teaching task in the short-term, it fails to meet the standards of the Curriculum issued by the Ministry of Education that business courses should be lectured and tested in the target language of English. From the long-term perspective, the students are not familiar with English terminologies and are not competent at the job after learning the courses (Liu, 2009).

(3) Some business courses are finally canceled, restricted by teachers' professional competence and the poor educational condition in some universities. These courses are replaced by language courses, granting the students the corresponding credits.

The possible reasons for the incomplete modules of the curriculum are as follows: the first reason is that there is not any authoritative standards for universities to follow until the Curriculum was officially issued in 2009, therefore given the brief history of the discipline, the curriculum arrangement is not scientific and systematic. The second reason is lack of professional teachers. BE teachers have to be proficient at both English language and business knowledge. While most of them are EFL teachers who do not have the business background and they are not competent to teach the courses. The third reason is that BE discipline is marginalized and ignored in some universities because the administrators do not attach great importance to it.

B. The Background Information about Business English Teachers

The result of the survey shows that among the teachers of Business English major, the majority are the young teachers under the age of 35, accounting for 61%; the number of teachers from 36 to 45 takes up 30%; the number of teachers from 46 to 55 accounts for 7% and the number of teachers above 55 years old is only 2% (see Figure 3.1). In the aspect of academic degree, the number of teachers who have a doctorate is very small, only accounting for 2%; the number of teachers who have a master's degree takes up 90%; the proportion of the teachers who possess a bachelor's degree accounts for 8% (see Figure 3.2).

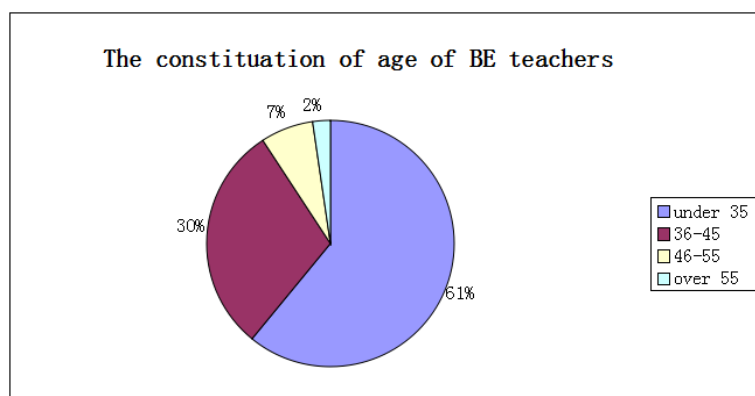


Figure 3.1 The constitution of age of Business English teachers

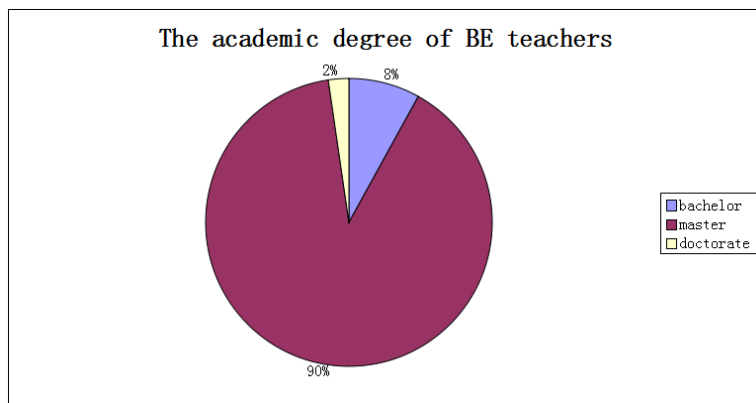


Figure 3.2 The academic degree of Business English teachers

As for their professional title, the proportion of professors is only 1%, associate professors take up 12%, and the proportion of lecturers and teaching assistants is 56% and 31% respectively, which constitutes the main part of the teachers (see Figure 3.3). With regard to education background, the number of teachers who have a degree in English language and literature accounts for 92%, the number of teachers obtaining the master’s degree of Business English accounts for only 5%, the number of teachers with background of economics and finance takes up the proportion of 3% (see Figure 3.4). Among the faculty, 90% of them are full-time teachers, 6% of them are part-time teachers, while the rest 4% of teachers are guest professors from other prestigious universities.

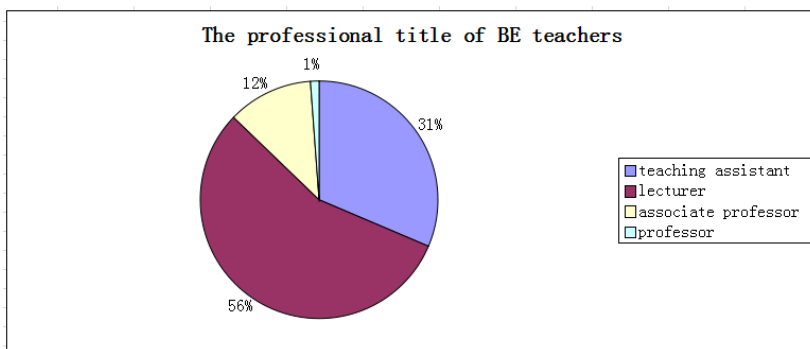


Figure 3.3 The professional title of Business English teachers

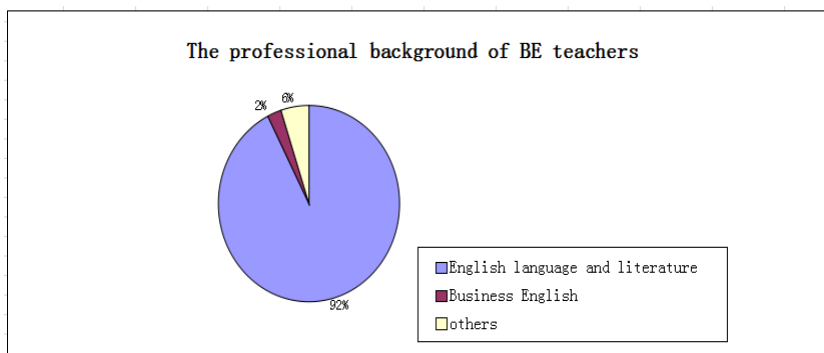


Figure 3.4 The professional background of Business English teachers

From the above statistics, it is easy to find that there are several problems in the faculty of the Business English teachers: the first problem is that young lecturers and teaching assistants under the age of 35 years old constitute the majority of the teachers, while professors and associate professors take up a small proportion; secondly, the proportion of teachers with a doctorate is very low, suggesting that teachers’ academic degree remains to be further enhanced; thirdly, the majority of the business teachers are EFL teachers, and teachers with business-related background such as economics, trade, and management take up a small proportion; fourthly, the number of part-time teachers and visiting professors is at a relatively low level.

C. Teaching Methods

The results of the survey indicates that in the teaching process, 56% of teachers adopt the teaching model with students as the central position and teachers as the leading role in the teaching process; the traditional teaching model, model based on students’ autonomous learning and comprehensive teaching model are with the same proportion of 22%.

With regard to teaching methods, 65% of the teachers mainly use task-based teaching method. In addition, the comprehensive method and the communicative approach are also frequently employed by the teachers, the proportion being 46% and 33% respectively. According to the questionnaire results, it is shown that the advanced teaching model with students as the central position and teachers as the leading role is adopted by more than half of the teachers. Teachers' teaching models and teaching methods are no longer limited to a certain kind, but are more diverse and more rational.

D. Teaching Facilities

The Business English teaching activity are mainly conducted in the traditional classrooms and classrooms equipped with multimedia teaching facilities. In some universities with good facilities, the percentage of using multimedia facilities to assist teaching is as high as over 80%; while in other universities the proportion is very low, less than 20% because of outdated and deficient equipments. When it comes to teaching facility construction, all 6 universities have established language labs which could meet the need of normal teaching. But more advanced and professional equipments are still insufficient. For example, none of the six universities have established the modern multimedia network language laboratories or purchased Business English teaching software which simulates the actual business activities.

E. Challenges in the Teaching

When it comes to the challenges in the Business English teaching, the results show that 81% of the teachers believe that the professional knowledge and terms in economics, finance, law are a real challenge in the Business English teaching; 48% of the teachers think the background knowledge, the timeliness of teaching content are real challenges in Business English lecturing; 22% of the teachers think that the selection of textbooks and teaching materials are very challenging; only 13% of the teachers believes that the use and selection of teaching methods are challenging.

F. Teachers' Expectations on Professional Training

In the process of investigating, the survey indicates that at present Business English teachers urgently want to promote their business knowledge, improve teaching methods and overcome the teaching difficulties. 78% of the teachers believe that it is necessary to receive the professional training of business-related knowledge. 72% of the teachers think that they should receive the training of the research methods of Business English. 35% of the teachers hold the view that they are supposed to receive the training of the teaching methods of Business English language. In the items of training ways, teachers think that they should learn by studying at prestigious universities at home (78%), short-term training (57%), visiting programme at abroad (54%), and participating in academic conferences (44%) and so on. As for training time, 53% of the teachers think that it is more reasonable and effective to carry out medium-term training (6 months) and long-term training (12 months).

G. Scientific Research on Business English

At present, achievements in scientific research on the Business English in Shanxi Province are very few and contents are very single. Most of academic papers are about the characteristics of Business English language and translation studies, while there are hardly any research achievements dealing with the topics about the discipline development, teaching methods, textbooks and teaching materials, the research methods and assessment of Business English teaching (Wang & Li, 2011). This phenomenon suggests that Business English teachers are still at the struggling stage and adjusting stage due to the short history of the discipline and their EFL background (Zhou, 2008).

H. The Teachers' Suggestions for the Discipline Development

In the questionnaire, some hopes and suggestions were put forward by English teachers, mainly concentrating on the following aspects: firstly, curriculum should be planned more scientifically and reasonably. The proportion of business-related courses and practical courses should be increased while the proportion of language knowledge and skills courses should be reduced. Secondly, professional training, visiting programmes at home and abroad and communications among universities should be provided to further improve the qualities of the teachers. Thirdly, the knowledge of language and the knowledge of business should be systematically integrated in the teaching process; Fourthly, the cooperation between universities and enterprises should be strengthened to provide more opportunities for students to enhance their practical ability; Fifthly, more investment on the more advanced teaching facilities is required to improve the poor educational situation.

V. SUGGESTIONS FOR DISCIPLINE DEVELOPMENT

A. To Adjust the Curriculum Arrangement

The landmark document *Developing National Curriculum for BA Program in Business English of China*, issued by the Ministry of Education (Chen & Wang, 2009), points out that Business English courses are composed of four parts, each accounting for a certain proportion: language knowledge and skills (50% - 60%), business knowledge and skills (20% -30%), cross-cultural communicative competence (5% -10%) and humanities (5%-10%). Currently, it is common that language knowledge and skills courses take up a very high proportion, while business-related courses proportion is

relatively low. Therefore, universities are supposed to reduce the proportion of language skill courses and accordingly increase the proportion of business courses, cross-cultural communication courses and the humanities courses. In this way, teaching plans would be able to actually reflect the discipline feature of Business English and contribute to cultivating students into inter-disciplinary talents who have a good proficiency of both English language and business knowledge.

B. *To Strengthen the Teachers' Competence*

The characteristic of Business English discipline determines that the teachers not only have a good proficiency in English knowledge and skills, but also possess the Business professional knowledge and the cross-cultural communication ability (Wang & Zhang, 2011). Colleges and universities can strengthen the construction of Business English faculty through the following ways: first of all, universities are supposed to introduce talents majoring in Business English or Economics and Trade to improve the structure of the discipline background; Secondly, universities could send promising teachers to visit the prestigious universities at home and abroad for academic conference and to improve their language proficiency, business knowledge, and teaching methods. Thirdly, universities can also encourage teachers to further improve the teachers' competence by the way of self-study, self-reflection and group discussion in the teaching symposium. Fourthly, teachers are encouraged to be engaged in the research of Business English and combine the theory with practice to better promote the teaching. Fifthly, colleges and universities may hire some experts, professors, and experienced practitioners to give lectures to make up for the lack of competent professional teachers. Through the above ways, colleges and universities can gradually form a team of interdisciplinary teachers with good command of English language and broad business knowledge.

C. *To Increase the Investment in Teaching Facilities*

At present, there are still problems of obsolescence and shortage of multimedia facilities in colleges and universities of Shanxi Province. Most of the Business English teaching activities remain to rely on the traditional classrooms. Although some courses are carried out in classrooms equipped with multimedia, but they are just limited to the use of the form of PPT presentation during the course teaching which certainly cannot satisfy the needs of modern teaching. Therefore, universities are supposed to increase investment to establish modern multimedia laboratories and purchase advanced teaching software, making the use of modern network technology to assist teaching.

D. *To Enhance the Construction of Practice Base*

The survey shows that problem with Business English practice is more serious. Some universities have such problems as no off-campus practice bases, unrelated practice content and insufficient time in practice. Business English, as a kind of practical English, focuses on cultivating students' professional skills. Therefore, the rich social practice is especially significant for students of Business English. Universities which have established Business English discipline should positively enhance the cooperation between universities and enterprises, expand the business English practical bases and provide more social practice opportunities for students, which in turn could make a great contribution to making students integrate theory with practice, improve their practical ability and comprehensive quality, and lay a good foundation for the professional development in the future.

E. *Summary*

As a brand-new discipline, Business English needs the united support from many resources, including the provincial government, the administrators of the university and teachers to guarantee the sustainable and healthy development. The provincial government should formulate policy and coordinate the cooperation between the universities and foreign trade enterprises. The universities should endeavor to increase the capital investment to improve the teaching condition, by purchasing teaching facilities and providing more training opportunities to build up teachers' professional competence.

VI. CONCLUSION

Currently, with the accelerating pace of economic globalization, the opportunities and challenges coexist in the development of Business English discipline. On the one hand, some colleges and universities have seized the good opportunity to establish the Business English discipline, which meet the trend of the times. On the other hand, there still exist many problems such as curriculum, faculty construction, professional training and teaching facilities and so forth. Reflecting on the status quo of Business English discipline can help us better understand the problems and deficiencies existing in the development, and will be conducive to provide feasible and practical suggestions for further development in the future.

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The Effects of Oral vs. Written Corrective Feedback on Iranian EFL Learners' Essay Writing

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Abstract—This study was an attempt to investigate the effect of different types of corrective feedback on Iranian EFL learners' essay writing. To this end, the performance of the learners as a result of two types of feedback, that is, oral feedback (OF) and written feedback (WF), and each with two subcategories (focused and unfocused) was studied. To conduct the study, two writing tasks were employed as data collection instruments to measure the learners' essay writing skill. The participants were 75 Iranian female low-intermediate EFL learners at a language institute in Shiraz. They were asked to write two essays as pretest and posttest on the basis of two similar but not identical picture stories. Each and every participant's writing was corrected in terms of the target structures, that is, past tense, punctuation, and capitalization. Paired samples t-test, independent samples t-test, and ANOVA were utilized. The results indicated that three types of feedback, namely, oral feedback (both focused and unfocused) and written feedback (focused) were significantly effective in the posttest whereas the written unfocused feedback was not. In other words, the participants showed a statistically significant difference in their performance in the posttest as a result of receiving these three types of feedback.

Index Terms—corrective feedback, EFL learners, essay writing

I. INTRODUCTION

Within the four language skills, writing seems to be the most challenging skill for EFL learners simply because it is a skill that must be learned well. In this respect, Lenneberg (1967) once noted, in a discussion of "species specific" human behavior that human beings universally learn to walk and to talk but that swimming and writing are culturally specific, learned behaviors. We learn to swim if there is a body of water available and usually only if someone teaches us. We learn to write if we are members of a literate society and usually only if someone teaches us.

Brown's words clearly underscore the fact that a teacher should be necessarily there if learning is to take place. The point is that not all teachers are always well prepared to teach the rules and conventions of the written language as each and every teacher may follow his/her own method of teaching leading the learners to various degrees of learning. That is possibly why Brown (2001, p.340) contends that "we are still exploring ways to offer optimal feedback to student writing." The need to 'explore ways to offer feedback' is especially highlighted when we take into account the point that the most important and crucial aspect of the academic world is writing and submitting quality essay in the contemporary educational system. (Murray, 1990; Graves, 1983).

As Raimes (1987, p.261) points out "the ability to write is considered important in L2 acquisition because it is one of the language skills that each learner should know because it is needed as learners progress to higher levels." Moreover as Archibald (2001) states writing in a second language is a complex activity requiring proficiency in quite different areas. It is complex because of the interaction of writers' knowledge, skill, culture, and identity.

The point is that such a complex activity may become rather simple and accessible provided that there is an interchange of feedback between the teacher and the student. As to the role of feedback, Flower (1979; cited in Asiri, 1996) points out that providing learners with feedback can both help them monitor their development and reassure them that their writing is correct. Furthermore, Hedge (1988; cited in Asiri, 1996) stated that feedback can also serve as a good indication of progress of students writing task and, therefore, it helps teachers in recognizing and evaluating their students' problematic areas. Finally, Hedge (1988) mentioned that students can become discouraged without receiving feedback and lose sense of how they are doing and which aspects of their writing they should pay more attention to.

This study was carried out to compare the effects of two types of feedback on Iranian EFL learners' essay writing. Before reporting the method of the study, it may be a good idea to have a brief review of the literature.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Transformation of feedback has been realized in at least two types of feedback, that is, written and oral each being either focused or unfocused. MacDonald (1991) had a review on written feedback in two fields: English education and social psychology. The research on written feedback in English classes indicated that whereas teachers assume that students attend to the feedback they receive on their papers, learn about writing in relation to some ideal goal, and incorporate learning into their future writing efforts, the reality is that: (1) teachers often write confusing or superficial comments that focus on unimportant errors, and that reflect authoritarian attitudes; (2) students often misunderstand the teachers' feedback; (3) teachers' feedback about essay content is associated with better essays than feedback about language, grammar, and usage; (4) many students do not read their teachers' written feedback, and those who do read the comments hardly ever use them as guides in revising or writing papers; and (5) students' primary interest is their grade on a given composition, not teacher comments. Moreover, research on social psychology research, provided support for the notion that low achieving composition students tended to pay less attention to their teachers' written and oral feedback in order to keep a positive view of self.

According to Gardner (1998), many researchers posed questions about the suitable time for giving students corrective feedback either oral or written and what is the appropriate time for the learners to become responsible for their errors and understand them, furthermore, how to monitor corrective feedback to be effective. A teacher's role, especially as a model, is crucial in developing the skills for self-correction that students can independently make use of it. Error correction and corrective feedback are not divided between clear-cut classifications of teacher roles, student roles, and strategies used to facilitate correction, but are all interconnected to some extent. It is important not to provide constant correction to the point where the student begins to undermine his/her view of self, resulting in fear to trust their own judgment and an overreliance on feedback from others. Ultimately, for a teacher, it is important to be observant and to consider the individual student's needs.

In a study by Lin (2001), he examined different types of revision techniques students used and they needed to practice. Results highlighted the importance of cognitive processes, also mentioned differences between weak and strong writers in terms of revising their drafts.

Hyland (2003) claimed that conferencing is influential when students are actively involved, asking questions, clarifying meaning, and discussing instead of simply accepting advice. Jordan (2004) also discussed that while written comments are a popular and potentially effective method of student exam feedback; students pay less attention to these comments because of their grades. Therefore, while grading and writing comments on a student's exam solution, he created a personalized sound file of detailed oral feedback for each question. Jordan (2004) concluded that the oral feedback in combination with written comments was more understandable for and encouraging the students. In support of this new feedback method, he provided and discussed classroom data collected from his students. Furthermore, he suggested the use of orally recording feedback when time and resources were rare.

Macallister (2006) believed that when responding to student writing, teachers should comment on structure and content. They should also provide a set of criteria and elicit other readers to respond. According to Macallister (2006), it is important that the focus be based on the curriculum expectations. Therefore, the written feedback should be concise and focused on specific aspects of the piece of writing. Moreover, the feedback should not fill the page with red ink, but instead, focus should be given to the aspects of writing that is most important.

There are a large amount of studies on unfocused and focused written corrective feedback. Sheen's (2007) focused written corrective feedback, proved effective in promoting more accurate language use of this feature.

Methodologists such as Harmer (1983) and Ur (1996) suggest teachers to focus on a specific errors rather than addressing all the errors in learners' drafts. In this respect, Sheen (2007) investigated the effects of two types of focused feedback on adult intermediate ESL learners for only one type of error. The results indicated that these types of feedback were effective as they became significant in posttest and comparison with the control group.

Amrhein and Nassaji (2009) examined the effectiveness of written corrective feedback (WCF) on L2 writing of ESL students and students and teachers' understanding of errors. 31 ESL teachers and 33 ESL students participated in this research and filled written questionnaires for data collection both qualitatively and quantitatively. The results indicated that both teachers and students benefitted from this type of feedback in order how to correct their errors.

III. METHOD

A. Design

This research was done within a pre-test, treatment, post-test, quasi-experimental design in which the collected data were analyzed quantitatively. There were two independent variables: written corrective feedback and oral corrective feedback; each with two categories of focused and unfocused.

B. Participants

The participants were seventy-five (N=75) Iranian female low-intermediate EFL learners studying at a language institute in Shiraz. The participants were all native speakers of Persian who had learnt English for about two years. They were selected based on the convenient sampling and from five different intact classes. They were assigned into five

groups: four experimental groups, and one control group. In other words, every fifteen learners were assigned into a group of written focused, written unfocused, oral focused, oral unfocused, and control group.

It was made clear at the outset that their scores in the writing tasks would not affect their final class activity scores. Although, an extra score was considered for those who participated in these tasks as a sign of encouragement.

C. Instrumentation

Two writing tasks in the form of picture story, and each with eight sections, were used as instruments to collect the data and to measure the participants' essay writing. The pictures were related to one theme. One of the picture stories was used for the pretest and the other one was used for the post-test.

D. Data Collection Procedures

The process of data collection was as follows: First, one of the pictures was handed to the participants. Then, they were asked to write a story in 45 minutes and to choose a topic for the story. Finally, the teacher asked the participants to write the story using the past tense.

After collecting the papers, the researcher corrected the papers. While correcting the papers, the researcher provided the participants with two types of written feedback: written focused and written unfocused. In these two types of feedback, participants' mistakes were highlighted without providing them with the correct forms (to give them further instruction later and a chance to correct their mistakes in the second task). Two other groups received focused and unfocused oral feedback where the researcher just talked to them about their mistakes and asked them to try to find their mistakes and revise their papers themselves. The last group was the control group who received no feedback at all.

After two weeks, the participants were asked to perform a second task again in the form of a picture story with the same instruction. Their papers were collected, corrected, and scored like the first one. For the focused groups, the target structures were capitalization, punctuation, past tense. The rationale for selecting these target structures were their previous samples of writings that were full of mistakes on the structures mentioned. On the other hand, for the unfocused groups all erroneous structures were taken into consideration.

During the period of treatment, teachers tried to observe the rules of writing and to provide them with the correct way of writing an essay through following the rules of writing when she was teaching a lesson or writing sentences on the board.

E. Scoring Rubrics

Each and every learner's writing was corrected in terms of the target structures, that is, past tense, punctuation, and capitalization. For each mistake, 0.25 mark was reduced and the total scores were calculated out of twenty. Three raters rated the papers. Each rater had at least six years of experience in teaching English. They were all M.A. holders. The inter-rater reliability index of .95 was obtained for the pretest, and .97 for the posttest. Moreover, the intra-rater reliability index was .97, which shows a high reliability value.

F. Data Analysis

After collecting the data, correcting the papers, and giving scores, the SPSS software (version 16) was used and descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, and variance were calculated. Moreover, inferential statistics such as paired sample t-tests, independent sample t-tests, and one-way ANOVA were employed to analyze the data and to find out whether the corrective feedback was effective in essay writing or not, and if so, which of them was more effective.

IV. RESULTS

A. Descriptive Statistics Results

Table 1 indicates the groups' characteristics in the pretest as well as the posttest in terms of mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum scores.

As Table 1 shows, the mean for different types of feedback as a whole is 15.26 in the pretest and 16.32 in the posttest. It also shows that the score range is between 15.03 to 15.85 in the pretest and 15.25 to 17.50 in the posttest.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF FEEDBACK

		N	M	SD	Min	Max
Pretest	Written Unfocused	15	15.05	2.00	11.00	18.75
	Written Focused	15	15.18	1.56	12.00	18.00
	Oral Focused	15	15.20	2.519	11.00	19.25
	Oral Unfocused	15	15.85	1.242	14.00	17.50
	Control Group	15	15.03	1.569	12.50	18.50
	Total	75	15.26	1.805	11.00	19.25
Posttest	Written Unfocused	15	15.93	1.951	11.50	18.00
	Written Focused	15	16.21	1.858	10.75	18.50
	Oral Focused	15	16.70	1.376	14.75	19.00
	Oral Unfocused	15	17.50	1.677	14.75	19.75
	Control Group	15	15.25	1.742	12.25	19.00
	Total	75	16.32	1.847	10.75	19.75

B. One-way ANOVA

In order to examine if there is any statistically significant difference among the groups' performance on the posttest, a one-way ANOVA was run between the five groups.

TABLE 2.
ONE-WAY ANOVA RESULTS

		SS	Df	MS	F	P
Pretest	B	6.79	4	1.69	.507	.731
	W	234.4	70	3.34		
	T	241.2	74			
Posttest	B	42.6	4	10.65	3.551	.011
	W	210.0	70	3.00		
	T	252.6	74			

As Table 2 shows, the obtained results of one-way ANOVA on different types of feedback revealed that the instructions were significantly different on learners' scores. Therefore, these results indicated that different types of feedback were differentially effective.

C. Post Hoc Test Result

Post-hoc comparisons were used to make a whole set of comparisons, exploring the differences between the groups or conditions in this study. An overall F ratio was calculated which suggests whether there are any significant differences among the groups participating in the design.

TABLE 3.
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF FEEDBACK

Dependent Variable	(I) Instruction	(J) Instruction	Mean Difference (I-J)	P	
Pretest	Written Unfocused	Written Focused	-.133	1.000	
		Oral Focused	-.150	.999	
		Oral Unfocused	-.800	.753	
		Control Group	.016	1.000	
	Written Focused	Oral Focused	-.016	1.000	
		Oral Unfocused	-.666	.856	
		Control Group	.150	.999	
	Oral Focused	Oral Unfocused	-.650	.867	
		Control Group	.166	.999	
	Oral Unfocused	Control Group	.816	.739	
	Posttest	Written Unfocused	Written Focused	-.283	.991
			Oral Focused	-.766	.744
Oral Unfocused			-1.566	.108	
Control Group			.683	.816	
Written Focused		Oral Focused	-.483	.940	
		Oral Unfocused	-1.283	.263	
		Control Group	.966	.548	
Oral Focused		Oral Unfocused	-.800	.713	
		Control Group	1.450	.160	
Oral Unfocused		Control Group	2.250*	.006	

As Table 3 shows, feedback was different in one of the groups based on the ANOVA results. The results revealed by Post Hoc test shows that feedback is effective because there is a significant difference among groups.

V. INFERENCE STATISTICS RESULTS

To answer the research questions, two types of tests, that is, paired sample t-test and independent sample t-test were run. In other words, to compare the groups with themselves on two occasions and to find out whether or not the groups made any significant changes from the pretest to the posttest, a paired sample t-test was run.

Moreover, to compare the performance of two different groups as a result of two types of feedback, independent sample t-tests were performed to know which type of feedback was more effective. However, to find out if the performance of the learners differed as a result of feedback when compared to no feedback, a one-way ANOVA was run.

A. Research Question 1

Is there any statistically significant difference between the performance of the learners with or without feedback provided?

TABLE 4.
RESULTS OF ANOVA FOR BOTH TYPES OF FEEDBACK

		SS	Df	M ²	F	P.
Pretest	B	3.49	2	1.74	.529	.592
	W	237.74	72	3.30		
	Total	241.23	74			
Posttest	B	37.22	2	18.61	6.220	.003
	W	215.46	72	2.99		
	Total	252.69	74			

The results of one-way ANOVA in Table 4 revealed that the difference among different types of feedback was significant and that the performance of the learners was better when they received feedback.

B. Research Question 2

Is there any statistically significant difference between the effect of written feedback (WF) and oral feedback (OF) on Iranian EFL learners' essay writing?

TABLE 5.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST BETWEEN WRITTEN AND ORAL FEEDBACK

		Levene's Test		t-test				
		F	Sig.	t	Df	P	M D	Std. Error D
scores	Equal variances assumed	.044	.834	-2.2	58	.025	-1.02	.445
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.2	56.1	.025	-1.02	.445

Table 5 shows that there was a statistically significant difference between written and oral feedback so, it can be said that written and oral feedback was differentially effective.

In spite of the fact that there is a statistically significant difference between the two feedback groups; it is not clear which group outperformed the other one. For this reason, two other independent samples t-tests were run to know which one was superior.

TABLE 6.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST BETWEEN ORAL FEEDBACK AND CONTROL GROUP

		Levene's Test				
		F	P.	t	Df	P
Scores	Equal variances assumed	.18	.670	3.60	43	.001
	Equal variances not assumed			3.47	25.5	.002

Table 6 shows a statistically significant difference between oral feedback and control group. Therefore, the oral instruction was more effective.

TABLE 7.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST BETWEEN WRITTEN FEEDBACK AND CONTROL GROUP

		Levene's Test				
		F	Sig.	t	df	P
Scores	Equal variances assumed	.19	.65	1.42	43	.162
	Equal variances not assumed			1.45	30.0	.155

Table 7 indicates no statistically significant difference between written feedback and control group. Therefore, as Tables 6 and 7 indicated since there was a significant difference between oral feedback and control group but not such difference between written feedback and control group; one can conclude that oral feedback group outperformed the written feedback group.

C. Research Question 3

Is there any statistically significant difference between the effect of written focused feedback (WFF) and written unfocused feedback (WUF) on Iranian EFL learners' essay writing?

First, paired t-test was run for both groups to investigate whether there was any significant difference from pretest to posttest or not.

TABLE 8.
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR WRITTEN FOCUSED FEEDBACK

		Paired Differences				
		M	SD	t	df	P
Pair	Written Focused pretest Written Focused posttest	-1.03	1.74	-2.29	14	.038

As Table 8 shows, the result of the paired t-test for written focused feedback is statistically significant.

TABLE 9.
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR WRITTEN UNFOCUSED FEEDBACK

		Paired Differences				
		M	SD	t	df	P
Pair 1	Written Unfocused pre Written Unfocused post	-.88	2.143	-1.59	14	.134

However, as Table 9 shows, the result for the written unfocused feedback was not statistically significant.

Since only one of these two groups made a significant change from the pretest to the posttest (written focused but not written unfocused), an independent sample t-test was performed to find out if there is any statistically significant difference between the two groups.

TABLE 10.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST BETWEEN WRITTEN FOCUSED FEEDBACK AND WRITTEN UNFOCUSED FEEDBACK

		Levene's Test				
		F	Sig.	t	df	P
Scores	Equal variances assumed	.58	.45	.40	28	.687
	Equal variances not assumed			.40	27.9	.687

The result in Table 10 does not show any statistically difference between these two groups. It revealed that students' writing skill improved by receiving written focused feedback. The same analysis was done for research question 4.

D. Research Question 4

Is there any statistically significant difference between the effect of oral focused feedback (OFF) and oral unfocused feedback (OUF) on Iranian EFL learners' essay writing?

TABLE 11.
T-TEST RESULTS FOR ORAL FOCUSED FEEDBACK

	Paired Differences				
	M	SD	T	df	P
Oral Focused pre Oral Focused post	-1.50	1.76	-3.30	14	.005

The result in Table 11 reflects how effective oral focused feedback was, as it is statistically significant at p value ($p > 0.05$).

TABLE 12.
T-TEST RESULTS FOR ORAL UNFOCUSED FEEDBACK

	Paired Differences				
	M	SD	T	df	P
Pair Oral Unfocused pre Oral Unfocused post	-1.65	1.69	-3.76	14	.002

Table 12 shows the result of oral unfocused group that is statistically significant at p value ($p > 0.05$). It means that this instruction was effective because this group made a significant difference from the pretest to the posttest.

The results of paired sample t-test revealed that both types of oral feedback were effective on the improvement of learners' essay writing skills.

TABLE 13.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST BETWEEN ORAL FOCUSED AND ORAL UNFOCUSED FEEDBACK

		Levene's Test				
		F	Sig.	T	df	P
scores	Equal variances assumed	1.31	.261	-1.42	28	.164
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.42	26.97	.165

The independent samples t-test in Table 13 does not show any statistically significant difference between these two groups.

E. Research Question 5

Is there any statistically significant difference between the effect of written focused feedback (WFF) and oral focused feedback (OFF) on Iranian EFL learners' essay writing?

With reference to Tables 8 and 11, one notes that both written focused feedback and oral focused feedback groups made statistically significant changes from the pretest to posttest. Therefore, they were effective. However, to find out if there is a difference between these two groups, an independent samples t-test was run.

TABLE 14.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST BETWEEN ORAL FOCUSED AND WRITTEN FOCUSED FEEDBACK

		Levene's Test				
		F	Sig.	T	df	P
Scores	Equal variances assumed	.060	.809	-.80	28	.425
	Equal variances not assumed			-.80	25.8	.426

According to Table 14, neither of the groups outperformed the other one indicating that there was no difference between the two.

The same analysis was performed on written unfocused and oral unfocused feedback groups.

F. Research Question 6

Is there any statistically significant difference between the effect of written unfocused feedback (WUF) and oral unfocused feedback (OUF) on Iranian EFL learners' essay writing?

With reference to Tables 9 and 12, one can say that while written unfocused feedback was not effective, the oral unfocused feedback was and therefore, resulted in better essay writing. Nevertheless, an independent samples t-test was run to know which one outperformed the other one.

TABLE 15.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST BETWEEN WRITTEN UNFOCUSED AND ORAL UNFOCUSED FEEDBACK

		Levene's Test				
		F	Sig.	t	Df	P
Scores	Equal variances assumed	.18	.67	-2.3	28	.026
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.3	27.381	.026

As the results of independent samples t-test in Table 15 indicates, there was a significant difference between the two and this means that the type of feedback was effective.

VI. DISCUSSION

A. Research Question 1

As for research question one, the results showed that feedback was effective on EFL learners' essay writing as their writing improved after receiving feedback. In this respect, Cardelle and Corno (1981) note that students can be able to correct their mistakes well whenever they receive more feedback. In Carless's view, (2006) learners can shape their thinking, attitudes, and behaviors by receiving feedback and achieve the purpose of writing. Similarly, Driscoll (2007) argues that when students receive feedback, they can recognize how to correct their mistakes in both their performance and responses and they can enhance their performance as a result of corrective feedback as well.

B. Research Question 2

The results for this research question indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the groups as a whole. However, it was oral feedback that was more effective than the other two types on Iranian learners' essay writing. It suggested that learners do pay attention to the feedback they receive from their teacher. It can also be due to better auditory orientation of learners in receiving feedback than their visual concentration while teacher gave them feedback on their mistakes. They paid more attention to what teacher said not what she underlined on their essays. In this respect, some researchers such as Doughty and Varela (1998), Han (2002), and Lyster (2004) referred to positive effects of oral corrective feedback studies in SLA.

C. Research Question 3

The result revealed that written focused feedback was effective while written unfocused feedback was not. It can be because of the specific target structures, which were underlined in their essays. They may need more instruction to make them able in revising their writings when they received written unfocused feedback. According to Ellis (2005), learners would be able to correct their errors when they receive focused CF because they understand what is the error in their writing exactly and then they have information to correct it. Interestingly, recent studies (Sheen 2007; Ellis, Sheen, Mukakami, and Takashima, 2008) have shown that when written CF is "focused" it is effective in promoting acquisition.

D. Research Question 4

With regard to this research question, however, the significance of unfocused oral feedback was more than focused feedback. The students did pay attention to oral feedback as it may have been easier for them than reading and trying to find their errors themselves in order to revise their papers. McNamara (1999) and Ayoun (2001) pointed out learners can learn more effectively when they receive oral feedback from their teachers. This kind of feedback shows learners that the teacher likes and encourages what they say. Clarke (2003) also mentioned that oral feedback is a powerful and an interactive force for learners' improvement.

E. Research Question 5

However, the results of each group in paired sample t-test revealed that oral focused feedback is significant and effective. This may be because listening to teachers' comment is much easier than finding their errors themselves, it gives less time and energy for them to understand their errors and revise them the second time.

Additionally, Sheen, Wright, and Moldawa (2009) concluded that focused CF is richer than unfocused CF in grammatical accuracy in writing. Sheen et al. (2009) found the focused approach to be more beneficial than provision of comprehensive feedback.

F. Research Question 6

This obtained result can be due to the fact that students can remember what they hear not what they see. It can also be because of the way of giving feedback, the atmosphere of the class. In oral feedback, they can learn more as they can understand other mistakes other than their own mistakes.

Ruegg (2010) stated that unfocused feedback might result in interlanguage development. Ellis (2009) emphasized that:

“unfocused CF has the advantage of addressing a range of errors, so while it might not be as effective in assisting learners to acquire specific features as focused CF in the short term, it may prove superior in the long run” (p. 102).

VII. CONCLUSION

According to the learners’ performance in the posttest, it is concluded that feedback was more effective when compared no feedback. Overall, this study showed that learners made an improvement in essay writing according to the feedback they received. Although, it may be true to say that feedback could be more effective if oral feedback is combined with written feedback for greater performance in essay writing.

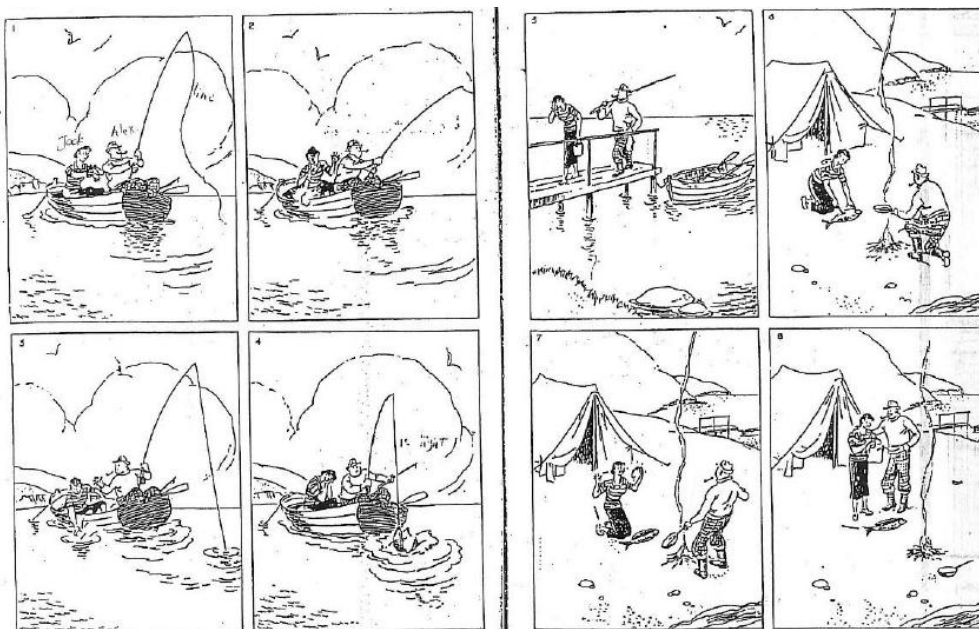
The second conclusion one may come up with is that oral feedback especially unfocused oral feedback is more effective than written feedback in making a significant difference on EFL learners’.

VIII. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

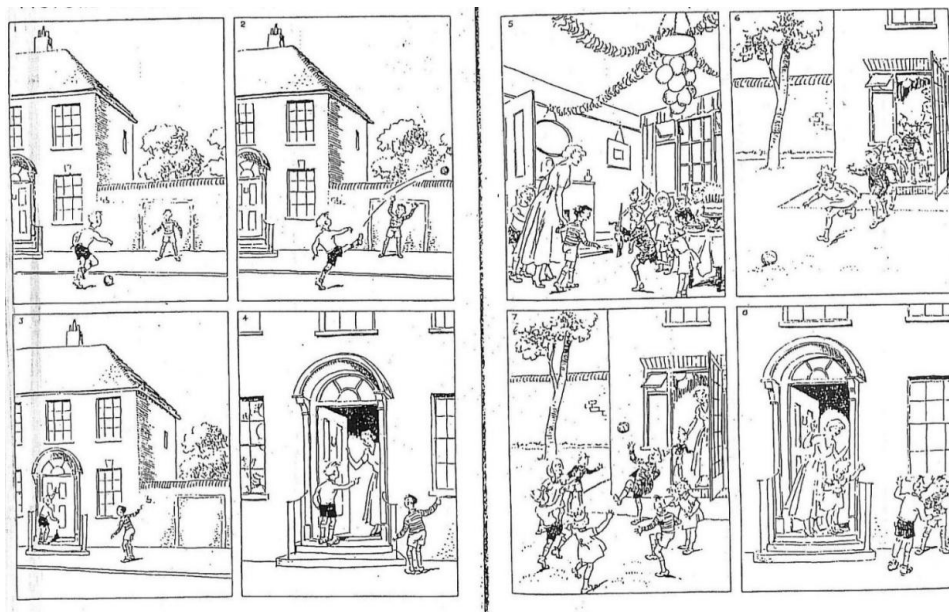
This study may have two implications: theoretical and practical. As for theoretical aspect, the results of the study confirm the view that feedback provides the learners with a social context where the learning takes place. Indeed, it is in line with Long’s (1981) interaction hypothesis. Therefore, it helped learners to improve their essays in posttest after receiving feedback.

Practically speaking, this study may provide insights for the teachers to remember that not all learners may be responsive to the written feedback. On the contrary, they may learn just as a result of oral feedback. In the same way that this study showed.

APPENDIX A. PRETEST PICTURE STORY



APPENDIX B. POSTTEST PICTURE STORY



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Problems of English Language Acquisition in Saudi Arabia: An Exploratory-cum-remedial Study

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Abstract—‘An international language belongs to its users, not to the countries whose national languages have become internationalized’ (Edge 1992). With an ever increasing number of L2 users it is time we rewrote the description of the place of English among world languages. All types of interactions, more particularly between nations, are through English, for a reason no other than the fact that it is the only language in which non native users can possibly communicate. It is the language of science, technology and business apart from being significant in political or diplomatic dialogues. English Language has come to be owned by all people in the world of work. Saudi Arabia is no exception. Almost a hundred years on Saudi schools, colleges and universities teach English with primary and genuine concern. Still, just like non- native learners in other non-English speaking countries, Saudi learners also confront many problems in their English Language acquisition. This study is a humble effort to bring out the major barriers and problems that Saudi students face while learning English; it proposes remedial measures for the said barriers and problems. In this study, the researcher has tried to focus on the teaching methodologies and learning atmosphere prevalent in Saudi English classrooms.

Index Terms—pedagogy, English Language Teaching, L2, EFL, Communicative Approach to Language Teaching (CALT), globalisation, information and communication technology, curriculum

I. INTRODUCTION

Present Status of English Education in Saudi Arabia

Sayegh (2009) has stated that after the establishment of Ministry of Education in 1953, in which General Presidency of Females’ Education was merged in 1959, the educational scenario became vibrant in Saudi Arabia. The Higher Committee for Education Policy in Saudi Arabia, as cited in Al Shumaimeri (2003), has asserted that the ultimate aim of education in Saudi Arabia is to make students understand Islam in a correct and comprehensive manner; to implant in them the Islamic creed; to imbibe in them the Islamic values, teachings and Ideal; and, above all, to spread Islam as well as to develop the society economically, socially and culturally, and, more importantly, to prepare the individual to make meaningful contribution to the strengths of his community. English was taught as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia from class seven onwards but, now it is taught from class six as a compulsory subject.

If any classified job advert is examined, one would clearly see it announce the demand for English knowing people, this is true even for engineering and medical fields. Frankly, the kingdom of English spans practically all fields whether it be science, technology, business, computers or commerce. It is a veritable window to the outside world: one that allows the Saudis to explore the world around them. Being an aware society and fully realizing the significance of English skills, the Ministry of Education included English into the Saudi education system as one of the major subjects, making its study compulsory from class four to university level.

The question that comes up is why the performance of an average educated Saudi user of English is not even passable? In the course of this study it was found that there are many challenges before a teacher of English in Saudi Arabia. These are catalogued here:

1. Mother tongue interference is a major barrier for the Arab learner of English. The first language (L1) as well as the mother tongue of the Arabs is Arabic. Arabic and English belong to two diverse language groups. It is natural that they be different. The sounds in the Arabic alphabet are very different from those of English. There are many sounds corresponding to characters/letters in the English alphabet which can not conveniently be pronounced by the Arabic speaking people. Arabic letters are pronounced distinctly, separately and independently of each other ie. each letter has an independent sound. In English on the other hand, an alphabet may have more than one sound or even no sound at all (as in the case of ‘silent letters’). So, the Arab students flounder at the very nascent stage of alphabet learning in English.

2. Albeit with the aim of culture preservation, the education system (policy, curriculum and course-syllabi) is deeply anchored in Islamic values, propagation of Islamic concepts and living according to Islamic precepts. With such a strong anchoring in these ethos, there is natural resistance to learning other languages like English, which may be seen as agents of cultural dilution. The Government of Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has taken concrete steps to motivate the people (with greater thrust at the students and teachers) to see the writing on the wall and learn English for a better and

beneficial future in the international arena. Taking timely cue, educational institutions are also contributing positively and with enthusiasm to improve the standard of English in the country.

3. The teachers of English are generally not trained in linguistics. Their focus is mainly on getting the students to pass the exam. Further, they not incorporate modern teaching aids or pedagogies LCD Projectors, videos, labs etc. into their teaching regime. In fact, they are not even updated on the latest happenings in the field that could ensure better output.

4. The curriculum and syllabus are not revised as per modern teaching approach. Grammar translation or other methodologies relying heavily on L1 are passé and need to be discarded at the earliest. Teaching has to be in the real world by full exposure. For that, students should be taught by creating real-life situations that provide opportunity for language use. Wherever possible teaching should be extended beyond the classroom and the necessity of knowing English proven to the de motivated learners.

5. Methods of teaching in Saudi Arabia are outmoded. First and foremost, it should be drilled into the teaching community that English is not a mere subject that needs passing marks, but a life skill much like swimming. It is a language to be learnt and what better way than learning it by use. Resort to L1 should be strictly discouraged even amongst the teaching community while they are on campus as we all know that students are keen observers and learnt the most by looking at people and situations around them.

Statement of the problem

After studying English for about 9 years, school leavers are, in most cases, unable to speak or write a single flawless sentence in English. This raises many questions about the soundness of teachers and suitability of methods employed. Without a doubt there is a major problem confronting English education in Saudi Arabia.

II. SURVEY OF CURRENT LITERATURE: A BIRD'S EYE VIEW

Fageeh (2011) revealed in his study that EFL learners heavily rely on writing as skill integral to language learning. This contention is supported by much research conducted in the Arab world. The results state that EFL learners' listening, speaking and reading skills mainly depend upon their writing competence (Hefferman, 2006; Hinkel, 2004; Al Ghamari, 2004; Cyer & Sacks, 1979).

Emphasising again the fact that Writing skill is considered extremely important in all situations of learning, studies have proved that in Institutions where English learning courses are given in the Arab world, Saudi Arabia included, writing is given more attention. So, EFL students studying in Institutions that use English as medium of instruction, face severe problems in writing skills, and that factor hinders their academic progress. (Tahaine, 2010; Rababah, 2003; Bacha, 2002; Kharmah & Hijaj, 1997). In fact, Tahaine (2010, p.79) re-confirmed and stressed that the writing skill "..... is needed for taking notes, describing objects or devices and writing essays, answering written questions, writing their compositions, writing experimental reports, etc".

Javid (2011) conducted a study to find out the status of ELT in Saudi Arabia, particularly aimed at identifying difficulties/problems in ELT and the reasons for the Saudi Students' low proficiency level in English. He recommended strict admission policy, increase in language courses, developing tailor-made activities, providing increased practice in academic writing, exploiting modern teaching techniques, and equipping the class rooms with modern teaching aids to improve Saudi EFL learners' academic writing.

Al Shumaimeri (2003) opined that "Teachers have pointed out that students leave the secondary stage without the ability to carry out a short conversation". This expression indicates that the students are not proficient in English language even after studying the subject for many years. It goes to the credit of Fareh (2010) to bring to light some of the challenges of English as Foreign Language (EFL) programme in the Arab world, Saudi Arabia included; these are briefly mentioned below:

1. The teachers of English are not properly trained inasmuch as teaching methodology is concerned.
2. Activities carried out in Schools, Colleges and Universities are not student-centred.
3. No serious effort is made to develop students' aptitude, initiative to promote initial preparedness and instill motivation through environmental sensitivity and highlighting role of each citizen to create human capital with world-wide view of society.
4. There is lack of whole language approach; there is compartmentalized approach to teaching English.
5. Limited effort is directed towards developing skills; emphasis is given to 'rote learning'.
6. Lack rather near absence of modern teaching materials.
7. Outmoded assessment methods are still in vogue.
8. Initiatives are lacking to bring about total exposure to English language with literature ethos.

Any amount of crying over spilt milk is not going to rectify the problem. The need of the hour is careful planning with long term objectives and the political will to implement these.

1. Learning divorced from needs is certain to fall flat on the face. We have to identify student needs and objectives as far as English learning is concerned.
2. Curriculum has to be developed in consonance with these. Richards, Platt, J. and Platt, H (1992) stated that Need Assessment (NA) is "the process of determining the needs for which a learner or group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities".

3. Text books and teaching materials have to be evaluated and their efficacy to meet the needs of the learners assessed by experts. As the situation stands, old and outdated text books are used in Saudi Arabia. Subject matter and related material need urgent overhauling. This is where the role of syllabus designers and policy makers comes in.

4. Any educational plan cannot succeed unless the 'executors' (ie teachers) of it are well equipped. It is an age old belief that language acquisition starts only when learners begin to 'think' in that language. Then again language is a microcosm representing the ethos and value system of its native users. It is, in other words, a culture specific entity. Not just words and phrases, even paralinguistic features of language convey meaning. Consequently, a teacher may have high credentials or educational qualifications but as far as ELT is concerned this is not enough.

5. There are three core areas in which an English teacher has to be proficient. These are:

- (i) Deep knowledge of subject matter (both language and literature);
- (ii) Awareness of new pedagogical trends; and
- (iii) An understanding of how best the students will learn English.

6. Motivation plays a pivotal role in language learning situations. It is observed that needs, wants and desires are inter-related in the language learning class rooms; these are the driving forces to learn and become proficient in English. Motivation has to be continuous and the teacher plays a major role in ensuring the students are not let down.

7. The last important issue is whether the students receive enough exposure for using English. Ismail (1991) states that "If children are exposed to the L-2 in the same way as they are exposed to L-1, greater success will be achieved". Dulay et al cited in Ismail (1991) assert that language exposure 'encompasses every thing the learner hears and sees in the new language'. The students hardly use English, except a little in classroom, though there are many opportunities available like English Newspaper, TV Programme, Radio Programme, and expatriates available in the kingdom.

Conclusion of Al Shumaimeri's Study (2003): There is need that all partners like policy makers, teachers, colleges/universities and students in the ELT programme must join hands and complement each other. Having gone through the above difficulties/blocks in the teaching of English as 2nd and foreign language, Al Shumaimeri the researcher makes the following recommendations:

1. Needs Assessment (NA) must be done before undertaking the language teaching programme to avoid dissatisfaction in achieving its aims and objectives. Language proficiency at the pre-determined level will result if NA is properly done.

2. Pre-service and in-service training of teachers will make the teaching effective and learning smooth and interesting. In this connection, we may quote Britten (cited in Murdoch, 1994) who states that novice teachers must be fully equipped through proper training. They must be trained in using audio-visual aids, and introducing grammatical structures, asking questions and handling students' responses, apart from using teaching dialogues, organizing group work activities and other innovative devices.

3. English language text-books with modern approach and concept of teaching and well planned and properly graded learner-friendly teaching material may be made available and periodically reviewed for changes or additions. The teachers may undertake one-to-one discussion with the prospective students to find out their needs on the basis of their learning style, learning assets, learning goals, and particularly the students' perceptions in these respects.

4. It is observed that learning of English at higher levels by the students aims at being able to use it in real life communications. In such cases, two teaching methods have to be given 'go by' – dictating notes and giving lectures by the teachers. Here, the students require proficiency in the four skill s – speaking, listening, reading and writing. Engaged students in activities to develop critical thinking, using language in meaningful contexts and in new and complex ways.

5. Educational technology may be profitably used to impart communicative skills in class rooms. Devices like tape recorders, CDs, Pre-recorded Cassettes, and Videos can and must be used to improve students' proficiency in English language by listening, speaking and conversing accurately. Happily for us, Saudi Arabia is one of the few countries in the world where all modern technologies are provided in English teaching class rooms.

6. Teachers must be taught to use the modern technologies in teaching of English, and then they should be encouraged to use those technologies.

7. It must be ensured that the students use English language in class rooms, on the campus and in daily communications. After all, practice makes a man perfect.

Khan (2011) conducted a study to find out the difficulties faced by the students in Saudi Arabia in learning English. He mentioned two approaches adopted by the teachers teaching English - Translation Method and CALT (Communicative Approach to Language Teaching). However, he also said that bilingual approach could also be adopted as alternate strategy. Khan (2011) said that although there is sound planning, purposive curriculum, suitable text books, qualified teachers and effective administration yet teaching and learning process of English language seems to be ineffective, especially in the area of skill development.

Al-Samadani (2010, p.53) stated that ELT "is a complex, challenging and difficult process" because, according to him, it includes multiple skills such as identification of thesis statement, writing the supporting details, reviewing and editing. Therefore, this complex process makes it rather difficult to reach it. The difficulty in teaching/learning of this skill is due to the fact that it involves a comprehensive knowledge of grammar, suitable vocabulary, writing mechanics (e.g. punctuation, & capitalization), organizational skill, style, imagination etc. Al-Samadani (2010, p.53) has identified

students' problems as: vocabulary, spelling, articles, pronouns, prefixes and suffixes, irregular verbs, Question words, etc.

Many studies containing this problem-theme were conducted by different scholars. In most of those studies, mention of a few of them may be relevant here.

Mukuttash (1983), Suleiman (1983), Zughoul (1983, 1984, 1987) and Ibrahim (1983) brought to the fore that the Arab students have problems regarding learning of English and cited the following reasons:

(i) The students who graduated from the schools had no information regarding the college or university in which they enrolled themselves.

(ii) Deficiency was observed in the curricula of English language offered by some schools and universities.

(iii) Methodology of teaching was dreadful to the students.

(iv) There was problem about proper English language environment.

(v) The students lacked in giving personal inputs during classes.

Suleiman (1983) stated that there was general discontentment with regard to the overall output of the Arab students learning English in the subject. The causes were traced to poor essential principles in the conception and design of curriculum as well as insufficient approaches to teaching followed in the class rooms, tardy development in the communication skills of the students, among other drawbacks and shortcomings.

The above types of problems were also pointed out in various studies in other Arab countries. For example, Zughoul (1983) conducted another study in which he agreed with the findings of Abdul Haq and asserted that most Jordanian students enrolled in Classes held for English as Foreign Language (EFL) had poor oral communication skill, and the students usually committed gross lexical errors. Kambal (1980) conducted a study in Sudan in which he noted that most students pursuing English language course/subject were weak in the following areas: tenses, verb structure and subject-verb agreement. Kambal (1980) also found that there were problems with students' use of tenses like tense substitution, time sequence, tense-marker, and uncertainty of perfect tenses.

III. DISCUSSION

Problems/Difficulties of English Language Acquisition in Saudi Arabia

Contrary to the situation in the last millennium, the researcher, a product of the current educational system in Saudi Arabia can say with pride that both the authorities and educational institutions have actively taken up the cause of English propagation in Saudi Arabia. Not that the other subjects are receiving less attention but the point here is that English language teaching and learning has been brought to the centre-stage in KSA's educational system because of its importance in the modern world. In other words and precisely, it is because English is not only a matter of local interest but also a global need.

The realization has dawned upon the common people in all the third world countries including Saudi Arabia that English language proficiency is necessary to gain knowledge from sources within and outside the country. With greater globalization the numbers of L2 users will increase exponentially. English language would be increasingly used as the medium to accomplish economic, social and humanitarian goals. From this perspective, the aims of teaching English in Saudi Arabia have been stated clearly in the government policy. It is amply pronounced by the authorities that there is nothing wrong in teaching-learning English because the reality itself is revealing the subtle change in outlook and now more stress is placed on global interaction and participation in activities having common humanitarian interest and international ramifications. However, the problem is to know whether these goals are being achieved or not and how much is the chasm between the two, and more importantly, what is the status of the ELT situation. Assessment of the current situation vis a vis the pedagogical inputs, need based syllabi, motivation level of the learners, and the learning barriers can get us to the root of the problem of poor proficiency.

Except in U. K. and USA, English is the second language in other countries. Non-English speaking countries encounter many problems in acquiring it; the problems/difficulties that are experienced in the process are (i) the influence of the mother tongue; (ii) accent; (iii) pronunciation; and (iv) vocabulary, and so on. Let us frankly admit that people in KSA as well suffer from these problems/difficulties and, unfortunately, in larger dimensions.

The foregoing observations are based on the conditions prevalent in public schools. The private schools were not taken up for gathering observed data. Private schools might be somewhat more responsive to the students' needs as they are subject to competition. Even so the difference is only marginal and not vast as may be expected.

Targeting the problems and difficulties more specifically, we have firmed up two basic facts: there are problems and difficulties in teaching/learning English language (L-2), and there have to be resolution of those difficulties and problems. The researcher reiterates that, like all other languages, English language is a skill-based subject. This takes the researcher to suggest that the core skills namely Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing should be given particular and separate attention. Any deprivation in any of these skills could cause a far reaching impact on the acquisition of the language as no skill can be learned or used in isolation of the others. The researcher discussed this aspect informally with a few teachers and selected students individually. So, the above truth has been brought into focus for appropriate deliberation and decision for planning.

IV. OBJECTIVES OF STUDY

The study had the following objectives:

1. To find out the present status of English learning in schools in Saudi Arabia;
2. To find out the difficulties faced by the Saudi students in learning English language;
3. To find out whether teachers are well trained in teaching English in Saudi School.
4. To find out whether adequate teaching material and modern ITC tools are available in schools;
5. To suggest measures to make English teaching interesting, effective and easy for the students

V. METHODOLOGY

The present study, considered significant in the emerging global conditions, is aimed at finding out the school students' language learning difficulties. Data for the study has been collected from 7 students presently studying English at the school level. Unstructured Interviews were also conducted with teachers and headmasters for the purpose.

VI. ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Primary data was collected based on direct interviews. Aversion to English was a feature common to all of the students. However, one group was able to tide over the problems in a natural way as they would in any other subject, while the other group considered their situation hopeless.

The experience in Primary Schools was quite different from that in the Intermediate schools. With the former, creating a communication channel itself was a challenge. The students appeared intimidated and unwilling to reveal their reservations. Much coaxing and cajoling however, brought out painful facts: the students were mortally scared of their teachers and avoided saying anything at all in the English classes. The researcher is of firm belief (based upon innumerable studies conducted in other countries) that communication which is a prerequisite to learning being absent from the Saudi ELT classroom acted as a barrier to learning.

Saleh from grade 6 had studied in Elementary School in Australia for about 6 months. He stated though with some reservation, about the benefits of student-friendly atmosphere there. The very mention of his experience brought out his happiness and he expressed fear of reprisal by school authorities if they so much as got a breath of his views.

Interviews with Jihad and Omer were quite different: they were unexpectedly frank and forthright. They honestly stated that they faced problems with their teacher: it was hard to ask him a question or raise a query while he taught and, they said, that all the students felt stressed out in his class. They added that the teacher did not even explain the meaning of difficult words. The teacher was clearly 'autocratic': he took class tests and did not ever disclose the specific chapter that he had selected for the tests. In this dismal situation it was heartening to see that they were aware that English language was and would continue to be an important language for doing work or business. But they were sad that with all those problems persisting, they would not be able to master the language which they dearly wanted to.

Interviews with high school students were very enlightening. They were well informed about the capability and potential of Information Technology. They suggested that modern teaching methods and electronic devices should be used for teaching English language for better understanding, learning with least intervention of the teacher and promoting interest for the language. They were specific when they mentioned that teaching should be done using online games, watching movies and social communication programs.

The majority opinion suggested change in approach, methodology and material for teaching. All were in favour of initiating open culture and being student-centred and tech-savvy.

The major problem observed by the researcher that includes all other sub-problems was that the outcomes (in the form of language proficiency) were painfully dissatisfying. Imagine a student graduating from High School, and having attended language classes four hours a week in English for full six academic years and yet be unable to produce a single error free utterance.

VII. CONCLUSION

English learning by school students in Saudi Arabia is full of difficulties. The problems emanate from policy making and its implementation regarding English as an elective subject in school. The problems also relate to teachers' training, syllabus/curriculum content, methodology and tools of teaching as well as use of modern technology and modern infrastructure.

The specific problems are (i) introduction of English at a late stage by which time the students have had sense of discrimination, choices, likes and dislikes; the need to acquire the new language is not as intense as it is in childhood; (ii) the teachers are not well trained, neither as language teachers nor as behavioural science teachers; (iii) Curriculum is outmoded; (iv) Information and communication technology (ICT) is not used for teaching English; (v) ICT and electronic devices are not used to make learning interesting and more effective to the students; (vi) Direct teaching approach is not followed L-2 and so, in its absence, learning and teaching takes place by translation through the first language (L-1); (vii) There is fear of learning in the students' minds as classroom atmosphere is intimidating and discourages student participation of any sort, viewing it as an unnecessary interruption.

VIII. RECOMMENDATIONS

1) **Introduce English from the Early Stages:** As of now, teaching of English language in Saudi Arabia is done from only the fourth grade while in advanced countries, it is taught right from the pupil's entry into play-way/Montessori stage. Talking about Saudi Arabia, it should be taught from the first grade since, as per many research studies, and especially the Critical Age Hypothesis, it has become clear that the second language acquisition works better in the earlier stages of life along with learning of the first language. A child acquires language as a natural instinct to learn. The best time for students in school should be the English language time among the other subjects. It may be ensured that no textbook for English should be used at this time of school that is the Elementary Stage. The lessons should be packed as much with fun as possible and as much practical as feasible. We know that words and pictures speak; a picture is worth a thousand words, as the Chinese saying goes. Teaching English at this tender age using real-life situations, should be a trip to the world outside and not telling stories about it. The teacher should be able to ignite the students' love for the language. As children are curious to know more and more, relevant or irrelevant, at this age., the teacher can afford to be quite friendly and not behave authoritatively. The children will open up and ask questions thereby ensuring better learning.

2) **Ensure and concentrate on quality not quantity:** Curriculum is a big problem that we face in our English teaching class rooms. The curricula are too fat and wide for teachers to cover and too much for students to handle. What we do now is concentrating on finishing the curricula in time and in whatever possible way regardless of any benefits we get from doing this. Simply, we need to reconsider our curricula putting in mind the quality that ensures achieving the goals not the quantity that is to be finished because the student will not be asked how many pages or units did he study but, instead, he will be judged on his/her use of the language and this is the only thing that matters; it is the qualitative aspect. What is being done now, as we witness, is the opposite!

3) **Attention should be paid to Evaluation Not Examination:** It may be understood very clearly that English is a language! It should not be treated like any other school subject; it has to be dealt with in a way that suits its nature as a language; it may be taught like an art with its craft (or skill). The more natural we are in teaching English the more natural results shall we get. Studies have proven that the emotional state of the learner, either positive or negative, is reflected in the speed and quality of the learning process. Examinations are the unseen monsters most feared by the students. The only way they know of to be spared by it is by mugging up the syllabus just before the exam. While this may yield temporary result if any, the long term output can well be predicted to be failure. Instead of testing the students for skills that may be 'learned' they should be tested also for the practical skills, viz, speaking and listening.

4) **No class should encompass more than 20 students:** It is a simple equation: If you want better results, do what needs to be done! One of the important requirements of getting better outcomes in English language teaching, and languages in general, is restricting the number of students in each class, not huddle them like cattle. Each student must have an elbow room, not in physical terms only but in terms of space or territory to feel free to interact with the teachers in a conducive environment. Many schools suffer from the problem of crowding, not only in English classrooms but also in the other subject-class rooms. Since teaching English is the subject matter here, crowding the class room is a relevant and very critical problem to be solved. In English class room, each student really matters – not as a counting unit but as a human being to be treated as such. Interaction with every student is really a prerequisite for a successful English lesson. The ideal language classroom is in fact, the noisiest one with each learner being free to speak and be heard.

5) **Audio Visual Aids Should Be Used in Instruction:** We hardly bear in mind that language is the most important factor in the socialization process. Seen in this background, we feel that one of the problems we have is introducing the language theoretically as dead matter rather than using it practically as living with civilisation. Language means acquisition, imitation and practice. Every attempt by a student needs reinforcement – facilitating process carried on by the teacher – and then repeating by the student (by practice). This is how we learn and should learn and yet use the language to communicate. It is most probably communication that the Cro-Magnons survived and lack of it annihilated the Neanderthals. Language is not information to be studied and examined in; it is much more than that: it has to be used.

Many schools lack the modern technology devices and equipment that help learning English well in a more enjoyable and effective way. The learners should see and hear how language is exactly used in real situations. They should watch, hear and imitate the language through short films, stories, dramas, poetry-recitations and discussions. They can not effectively learn a language by looking at textbooks talking about the language, for instance, courses like GIL which stands for Guide Independent Learning, teaches how to find the information by yourself. This is what we call induction via reading, listening or watching in an optional way.

6) **Increase the Number of English Class Hours:** The researcher holds the opinion that four hours a week are not enough for language teaching as it requires regular practice. It came to light that once out of school or college, students tap resources such as Language Institutes to manage their proficiency issues. The point is, what they could not achieve with almost ten years of exposure cannot possibly be taught better by these agencies in two or three months' courses. English learning hours in our schools should be increased to at least come at par with Math or Science. English classes should, therefore, be held for at least six hours a week.

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The Effects of Explicit and Implicit Instruction of Vocabulary through Reading on EFL Learners' Vocabulary Development

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Abstract—Vocabulary learning and teaching has been of central concern in the field of foreign language learning. This study was aimed at investigating the effects of two different methods of vocabulary instruction through reading on EFL learners' vocabulary development: explicit vocabulary instruction through presenting definition of vocabulary before reading and implicit vocabulary instruction through narrow reading. For this purpose, 30 intermediate students from Applied- Sciences University in Bandar Abbas were chosen. At first, the students took an explicit vocabulary pre-test, then received explicit vocabulary instruction and vocabulary definitions were taught before reading followed by explicit vocabulary post-test. After taking an implicit vocabulary pre-test, students received narrow reading and an implicit vocabulary post-test was conducted. The findings of this study revealed that both methods (explicit and implicit vocabulary instruction) were effective but the effect of implicit vocabulary instruction was more efficient and the instruction's difference was significant.

Index Terms—explicit vocabulary instruction, implicit vocabulary instruction, narrow reading, vocabulary development

I. INTRODUCTION

The past fifteen years have produced increasing research in the field of second language vocabulary acquisition. Knight (1994) believes that vocabulary is the single most important aspect of foreign language learning. Muscile (2006) states that vocabulary refers to the words we must know to communicate effectively by listening, speaking, reading and writing. Vocabulary is the knowledge of words and word meanings. Read (2000) believes that words which are units of meaning, larger structures such as sentences, paragraphs and texts are made from them.

Sedita (2005) believes that it is because of importance of vocabulary knowledge that we can access our background knowledge, express our ideas and communicate and learn new concepts. The research has dealt with lexical problems. It means the problems which language learners have in vocabulary learning. The research shows that lexical problems affect communication. In fact, communication breaks down when people do not use the right words (Allen, 1983). In addition, insufficient vocabulary means that there are too many words in the text that the learners do not know and will struggle to understand the writer's intended message.

It is also accepted that people with large vocabulary are more successful readers than those with limited vocabulary. People with large vocabulary are more successful readers than those with low vocabulary.

According to National Reading Panel (2000) there are five methods in teaching vocabulary: explicit vocabulary instruction, Implicit vocabulary instruction, Multimedia methods of vocabulary instruction (vocabulary is taught through a number of modalities such as semantic maps, graphic representations, hypertext, computer assisted instruction). Capacity methods of instruction (repeated exposure to words for automatic recognition and use such as flash cards, vocabulary drills). Association methods of vocabulary instruction (students make connections by association a new word with something they know such as key word method). This study includes the first two methods of teaching vocabulary: teaching explicit vocabulary through pre-reading and implicit vocabulary instruction through narrow reading. In other words, it intends to investigate which type of instruction (implicit or explicit) is more advantageous to another.

The National Reading Panel (2000) states that explicit vocabulary instruction occurs when students are given definitions or other attributes of words to be learned. According to Adult Basic Education Practitioner's Committee (2005) explicit instruction of vocabulary can be conducted through the definition of new words before reading. Teaching specific vocabulary before reading helps both learning words and reading comprehension. It is believed that explicit vocabulary instruction can increase students' knowledge of words and help them to understand what they are hearing or reading. In addition, it helps them use words correctly in speaking and writing.

In line with the consciousness issues in cognitive psychology, implicit learning, explained as "acquisition of knowledge which occur independently of conscious attempts to learn without explicit knowledge about what was acquired" (Deitcher, 2007, p.11). Implicit learning takes place when people are not conscious of it. Bensuythen (2005)

claims that implicit learning is the acquisition of knowledge that takes place naturally, simply and without conscious operation. Implicit vocabulary instruction does not include deliberately learning words.

According to research on vocabulary teaching it can be understood that vocabulary can be though implicitly through indirect exposure to words. Vocabulary can be acquired implicitly by listening to books, reading aloud and reading widely. Reading volume is very important in terms of long term vocabulary development (Gunningham and Stanovich, 1998). They state that some kind of reading gives students repeated or multiple exposures to words. The research shows that words are best acquired implicitly from context in the course of reading.

Hunt and Beglar (2005) believe that implicit vocabulary instruction can occur as a result of reading activities such as narrow reading. Decarrico (2001) encourages learners to use "narrow reading" for multiple exposure purposes, that is, reading numerous texts about the same topic. She found these types of exposure important because meeting a word in different contexts expands what is known about it." Narrow reading means reading in only one genre, one subject matter, or the work of one" (Krshen,1981, p.1). It has the advantage of repeated exposure to the same vocabulary (Cho, Ahn & krashen, 2005).

Statement of the problem

A review of the current literature on vocabulary learning reveals a spectrum of studies about explicit and implicit vocabulary instruction. In these studies explicit vocabulary instruction directed at using dictionaries, inferring vocabulary meaning from context, memorizing word lists and some other procedures and implicit vocabulary instruction directed at activities such as wide reading, rereading, timed and paced readings and intensive reading as well as specially extensive reading. This study is conducted through reading with these approaches: first, explicit vocabulary instruction through presenting the definition of words before reading and second, implicit vocabulary instruction through narrow reading.

So, this study aims at determining if there is any difference between implicit and explicit instruction of vocabulary concerning EFL learners' vocabulary development.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Vocabulary Teaching

Vocabulary plays a very crucial role in learning another language. By understanding the important role of vocabulary learning in second or foreign language learning, the importance of vocabulary teaching becomes clear. In the past, vocabulary teaching has often ignored in language programs, but today there is a new interest in teaching and learning it.

Broadly speaking, there are five methods to vocabulary teaching which are identified by National reading panel. In other words, the National Reading Panel (2000) in its review and analysis of thirty years of research described five methods of teaching vocabulary 1.Explicit instruction of vocabulary, 2.Implicit vocabulary instruction, 3.Multimedia methods, 4.Capacity methods, 5.Association methods. The description of explicit and implicit methods that were applied in this study will be presented.

Implicit vocabulary Instruction

Decarrico (2001) describes Implicit vocabulary instruction occurs when the mind is focused elsewhere, such as an understanding a text or using language for communicative purposes. Implicit vocabulary learning has its root in Krashen's Input hypothesis (1989), he states that as a result of multiple exposures in different contexts, meaning of new words are acquired subconsciously and conscious is on form not on something else. In Line with the consciousness issues advanced in cognitive psychology, implicit learning is generally viewed as in Reber's (1993) terminology that "implicit learning is, in fact, a default mode of learning, that happens unintentionally, unconsciously and most frequently as part of our daily experience" (Reber, 1993,p.5). Huckin and coady (1999) stated that implicit vocabulary learning occurs as a by-product of a meaning-focused communicative activity, such as reading, listening and interaction. It happens thorough multiple exposures to a word in different contexts.In addition, Decarrico (2001) recommends that in order that implicit vocabulary instruction occurs, it may be appropriate for students to read numerous texts, but all on the same topic (narrow reading) so that the texts will provide multiple exposures as topic-specific vocabulary is repeated throughout.

Narrow Reading

Krashen (1989) believes that while students are exposed to a rich Proportion of comprehensible input, language acquisition is easy. While some aspects of a language can be learned consciously, some other aspects can acquired incidentally or implicitly.

He recommends some kind of reading to increase vocabulary implicitly or incidentally such as free reading, sustained silent reading, self-selected reading, and narrow reading. Cho, Ahn & Krashen (2005) studied the effects of narrow reading for beginner EFL students. They used authentic books, although students weren't high proficient learners. They used the popular Clifford (The Big Red Dog) series. They realized that previous familiarity with the character and the repeated context would insure that the stories were comprehensible. Subjects' English proficiency and enthusiasm for English increased and it was because of the advantages of narrow reading.

Krashen and Brown (2007) believe narrow reading can be applied to reading as one type of strategy. Reading texts by one author or about one topic of intrest is narrow reading strategy, it helps comprehension and repetition of same vocabulary and grammar.

The theory behind narrow reading is that by reading about the same topic, the main ideas and the vocabulary can be more easily understood. A great help in understanding and remembering words is to see repeated words and ideas (Nie 2007). Narrow reading gives several exposures to the same or similar topic(s) written by the same writer. Krashen (1989) has long argued for the power of incidental learning from exposure, with reading as a particularly good source.

Thus as Nation (1990) puts forward, due to the incremental nature of vocabulary acquisition, for consolidating a new word in learner's mind multiple exposures are essential. Put succinctly, Krashen (2004) believes that narrow reading has two more advantages: first, since each writer has his/ her favorite expressions and distinctive style and each topic has its own vocabulary and discourse, narrow reading provides a built-in review.

And second, background knowledge is a tremendous facilitator of comprehension.

Decarrico (2001) encourages intermediate foreign language learners to use narrow reading for multiple exposures. Decarrico believes that reading numerous topic-specific texts in which a word is met in different contexts expands what is known about it, and thus the quality of knowledge is improved. This is in line with what Horst (2000) proposes: the frequency effects in the input enhance the strength of long-term store of linguistic and lexical data.

Explicit Vocabulary Instruction

According to National Reading Panel (2000), explicit instruction of vocabulary is highly effective. In explicit vocabulary instruction, students are involved in activities where they learn directly vocabulary words. Hunt and Beglar (2005) stated that the goal of explicit vocabulary instruction is to direct learner's attention. To develop vocabulary intentionally, students should be explicitly taught both specific words and word learning strategies. In accordance with consciousness issue in cognitive psychology, explicit learning is generally viewed facilitative, it guarantees the chance for the acquisition of information by direct attention to it.

A way to help students develop vocabulary is by increasing word consciousness; it means an awareness and interest in words. Word consciousness is not an isolated component of vocabulary instruction; it needs to be taken in to account each and every day. (Diamond and Gultlohn, 2006). One way in which teachers can encourage acquisition of new vocabulary is by the use of pre-reading activities that shows vocabulary in the text. Previewing can increase the salience of target vocabulary; ensure more repetition in terms of input and output (Zimmerman, 1997). Adult Basic Education Practitioner's committee (2005) has stated the explicit vocabulary instruction as follows:

"Explicit instruction occurs when students are given definition of words to be learned before reading. For example, the teacher may assign a reading passage and ready the student for that reading by explicit instruction of new words. However the teacher may ask the students a text or every text that is important to them, to work on new words that need defining. Because the students have a need to know, explicit instruction of identified words is useful (Adult Basic Education practitioner's Committee, 2005, p.1).

B. Teaching Vocabulary before Reading

For reading instruction it is important to teach vocabulary and it occupies a major part of the lesson. It is justified that pre-reading instruction makes the passage easier to understand. In fact, some research suggests that pre-teaching of vocabulary facilitates vocabulary acquisition. Medo and Ryder (1993) found that vocabulary instruction prior to reading texts helped 8th grade students to learn vocabulary better. Brett, Rothelien and Hurley (1996) realized that 4th grade students who received pre-instruction of key words in the text, had better vocabulary than those students who were not given pre-instruction in control group.

Christen and Murphy (1991) emphasized that for learning to occur, there should be integration between new and previous information. Kueker (1990) also argues that pre-reading help greatly in reading comprehension and vocabulary development.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of this study consisted of 30 EFL students attending in ESP courses in Applied-Sciences University in Bandar Abass in Iran. The students ranged from 20 to 27.

B. Instruments

Nelson Proficiency Test

In order to realize the general English proficiency level of the subjects of the study, a proficiency test was needed. Before the participants took the proficiency test, the test was piloted to increase the reliability of the test. To fulfill this requirement, Nelson English Language Tests by WS Fowler and Norman Coe, (1976) was used. For this purpose a second group with the same knowledge level (i.e., a group of fourth term students in the Applied-Sciences University in Bandar Abass) took a 100-item Nelson Proficiency Tests (selected from the Intermediate section of the tests). After administering the test, the item analysis was done on the items and 40 items were deleted. The reliability of this test (applying KR formula) was estimated as 0.72.

The Textbook for Instruction

The textbook for instruction was *reading skillfully (2)* by Mirhassani and Rahmani. Three texts were selected randomly for explicit vocabulary instruction and three texts were selected randomly for implicit vocabulary instruction

from this book, too. In order to do an implicit vocabulary instruction (narrow reading), there was a need to select three other texts with the same title and the same vocabulary. Then three texts with these properties were selected from the internet. These nine texts which were selected from the book and the internet have the same readability level. The *fog* formula was applied to determine the readability of these texts. The readability of texts in reading skillfully book and the internet was 6. The Fog formula measures the grade level of a text by manipulating two factors: the average sentence length and the percentage of hard words.

Vocabulary Tests

Two vocabulary tests were taken from *Reading Skillfully (2)* by *Mirhassani and Rahmani*. They were used as explicit and implicit pre- and post-tests. Each one consisted of 25 items.

C. Procedure

The students took part in a language-learning course that lasted for 18 hours or 9 sessions, in 63 days. This study was conducted in three phases:

In the first phase, before any instruction, to determine the level of the participants' proficiency, they took a proficiency test.

In the second phase, the participants took a pre-test. This was necessary since in this study, there was just one group of students and there was not any control group. The Time Series Method was used. In order to see the effects of instruction, the treatment was introduced between the pre-test and the post-test. In other words, after the pre-test, treatment was introduced followed by a post-test.

So, after taking a pretest, the vocabulary was taught explicitly and students received definitions of new vocabularies before reading the texts. After this treatment, the post-test was given to the participants.

The third phase of this study, implicit vocabulary instruction through narrow reading was conducted. After taking a pre-test, participants read three texts. In order to do a narrow reading, 3 texts which were taken from the internet was read Implicit vocabulary instruction lasted for 6 sessions. This instruction followed implicit vocabulary post-test.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section is intended to present the results of the quantitative analyses of the obtained data and to further examine the given null hypothesis. In so doing, the beginning section of this section provides a discussion of the pre-tests in the study and the remaining sections focus on the discussion of the null hypothesis in focus

A. The Pre-test of the Study

For the scores to be comparable and for an experiment like this to be meaningful, a pre-test before each instruction (explicit and implicit) was administered to see the effects of two kinds of instruction. In other words, the researcher was going to see whether different kinds of treatment yielded different results. In order to meet the above-mentioned requirement, a pre-test was given to participants to gauge their knowledge of vocabulary. Table1. Shows the descriptive statistics of the participants' mean scores on the explicit and implicit pre-test

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON THE PRE-TESTS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Explicit pre-test	30	3	9	6.5000	1.8147
Implicit pre-test	30	4	9	6.4667	1.7564

It can be seen in the above table that the minimum score on explicit pre-test is 3 and maximum score is 9. The implicit pre-test minimum score is 4 and the maximum score is 9. The mean score of the explicit and implicit scores are statistically very close (6.50~ 6.4667). Therefore, it can be concluded that the learners' knowledge of vocabulary before any instruction was statistically almost equal.

Explicit pre-test and post-test scores

In order to investigate the effect of explicit instruction of vocabulary on the learners' knowledge of vocabulary, a paired-samples t-test was run. This t-test was intended to compare the obtained mean scores of the participants on the explicit pre- and post-test to indicate the effectiveness of the treatment. The descriptive statistics, along with the results of the t-test for explicit scores, are presented in Tables 4.2 and 4.3., respectively

Inferential statistics for explicit scores

TABLE 2
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS FOR EXPLICIT SCORES

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error Mean
Explicit pre-test	30	6.5000	1.8147	.3313
Explicit post-test	30	18.8667	4.6218	.8438

TABLE 3
 PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR EXPLICIT SCORES

Domain	N	Mean Difference	Standard Deviation	Standard Error Mean	T	Sig.
Explicit pre-test	30	12.3667	4.3508	7944.	15.568	.000
Explicit post-test	30					

Given the information in Table 2., one can clearly see that the mean score obtained on the post-test (18.8667) is higher than the one obtained on the pre-test (6.50). However, a paired-samples t-test was run to ensure that the observed difference was significant. In the table 3. the final column labeled as sig. (2- tailed) represents the probability value. If this value is less than 0.05 (the critical value), then it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in scores obtained from the pre- and post-test because the probability value is substantially smaller than the specified critical value ($0.000 < 0.05$).

Accordingly, explicit instruction was shown to exert a positive effect on the vocabulary learning by EFL learners. In fact the subjects performed better on explicit vocabulary post-test after receiving the treatment.

Implicit pre- and post-test scores

In order to compare the implicit pre and post-test scores or show the effects of implicit treatment, a paired-samples t-test was conducted. Tables 4 and 5 provide the descriptive statistics, along with the results of the given paired-samples t-test.

Inferential statistics for implicit scores

TABLE 4
 PAIRED-SAMPLES DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR IMPLICIT SCORES

	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard Error Mean
Implicit pre-test	30	6.4667	1.7564	.3207
Implicit post-test	30	21.6333	3.2851	.5998

TABLE 5
 PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR IMPLICIT SCORES

Domain	N	Mean Difference	Standard Deviation	Standard Error Mean	T	Sig.
Implicit pre-test	30	15.1667	2.6008	.4748	31.940	.000
Implicit post-test	30					

On a closer inspection of the mean scores given in Table 4 one can clearly see that the subjects on implicit test (narrow reading) gained a higher mean score on the post-test after receiving the treatment (post-test=21.6333 pre-test=6.4667). However, the researcher had to go further to find out whether or not the observed difference was significant. Therefore, the results of the t-test were taken in to account. It can be concluded from the information presented in Table 5 that there is a significant difference in the performance of the participants on the implicit pre- and post-test. This conclusion can be drawn because the probability value in Table 5 is observed to be 0.00 which is less than the (0.05).

B. The Null Hypothesis

The null hypothesis states that "there is no difference between explicit and implicit (narrow reading) instruction of vocabulary through reading on EFL learners' knowledge of vocabulary.

In order to investigate the impact of explicit and implicit (narrow reading) instruction of vocabulary through reading on EFL learners' knowledge of vocabulary, a paired samples t-test was run. (since there was one group of participants, the paired t-test was used in the following way). This t-test was intended to compare the obtained mean scores of the participants on explicit test (taught via presenting definition of new words before reading) and the mean ones on implicit test (the participants received narrow reading), to indicate the effectiveness of this instruction. The descriptive statistics, along with the results of the T-test for these scores, are presented in the following Tables.

Descriptive statistics on post-tests scores

Table 6 presents the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation of explicit and implicit post tests scores.

TABLE 6
 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON EXPLICIT AND IMPLICIT POST-TESTS

	No.	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Explicit post-test	30	4	23	18.8667	4.62179
Implicit post-test	30	12	25	21.6333	3.28511

As the table suggests the implicit post-test lowest score was 12 and the explicit lowest score was 4. (it should be mentioned that the explicit and implicit tests had a total score of 25)

The implicit highest post-test score was 25 and the explicit highest post-test score was 23.

TABLE 7
SHOWS THE FREQUENCY AND PERCENT OF PROFICIENCY SCORES

groups	frequency	percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
1.00	9	30.0	30.0	30.0
2.00	19	63.3	63.3	93.0
3.00	2	6.7	6.7	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

As the table 7 Shows, in the first column by considering proficiency scores, the students were divided to three levels: pre-intermediate (1), intermediate (2) and upper-intermediate (3). In order to divide the participants into three groups of pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate the mean and standard deviation of proficiency scores were calculated. It was decided to consider the scores which were 1 standard deviation above the mean as the upper intermediate and the scores which were 1 standard deviation below the mean as pre-intermediate and the scores that were in between as the intermediate. 9 participants were pre-intermediate, 19 and 2 participants were intermediate and upper-intermediate, respectively. The third column shows the percent level of students. It means that 30 percent of participants are pre-intermediate. 63.3 percent of them are intermediate and 6.7 are upper- intermediate.

TABLE 8
SHOWS THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF IMPLICIT AND EXPLICIT POST-TEST SCORES OF THREE LEVELS OF PRE-INTERMEDIATE, INTERMEDIATE AND UPPER-INTERMEDIATE.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Explicit post-test	9	14.7778	6.41829
	19	20.4737	1.98238
	2	22.0000	.00000
	30	18.8667	4.62179
Implicit post-test	9	18.1111	3.65529
	19	22.9474	1.47097
	2	25.0000	.00000
	30	21.6333	3.28511

*The table 8 shows that the mean of implicit scores of nine pre- intermediate students was 18.11 and the mean of explicit scores was 14.77

*The mean of implicit scores of nineteen intermediate students was 22.94 and the mean of explicit ones was 20.47

*The mean of implicit scores of two upper-intermediate students was 25 and the mean of their explicit ones was 18.86

In general, by considering the information in Table 8, one can clearly realize that the implicit mean scores of pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate students of implicit scores are higher than their mean in explicit ones. Inferential statistics for Explicit and Implicit post-tests

TABLE 9
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR EXPLICIT AND IMPLICIT POST-TESTS

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error Mean
Explicit post-test	30	18.8667	4.6218	.8438
Implicit post-test	30	21.6333	3.2851	.5998

TABLE 10
PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR EXPLICIT AND IMPLICIT POST-TESTS

Domain	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error Mean	T	Sig.
Explicit post-test	30	2.7667	2.5418	.4641	5.962	.000
Implicit post-test	30					

A cursory look at the table 9, might lead one to see that the obtained implicit post-test mean scores is 21.6333 which is higher than the one obtained on the explicit scores 18.8667.

However, a paired-samples t-test was run to ensure that the observed difference was significant. If one looks at the final column labeled sig.(2-tailed) at the table 10, he can see that this value is less than .05, then we can conclude that there is a significant difference between these two sets of scores.

Accordingly, the null hypothesis was rejected because implicit instruction of vocabulary was shown to exert a positive effect on the learning of vocabulary by EFL students. In fact, the subjects received implicit vocabulary instruction through narrow reading got better scores than when they receive explicit vocabulary instruction through presenting definition of vocabulary before reading.

Discussion

As mentioned in the previous chapters, this study has incorporated two approaches: first, explicit vocabulary instruction and second, implicit vocabulary instruction. Rieder (2003) explains explicit learning as involving the learners' online awareness, and Decarrico (2001) believes that explicit vocabulary learning occurs when learners engage in activities that focus attention on vocabulary. Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) have stated that implicit learning is learning without learners' deliberate decision to commit information to memory. In other words, explicit and implicit vocabulary instructions can be distinguished simply by pre-learning instructions that either do, or do not, forewarn subjects about

the vocabulary learning. This means that, if we present to students the definition of vocabulary before reading, the outcome will be explicit vocabulary learning and if they do not know that the focus of instruction here is on vocabulary, and receive vocabulary in the text, the learning will be implicit. But in addition the term implicit learning, when is referred to the learning without conscious to lean or for example, learning vocabulary, as learners' primary goal is on reading, has more general, educational meaning. Based on the data obtained in this study, it is found that the participants' scores on implicit vocabulary post-test, which received implicit vocabulary instruction through narrow reading, is better than participants' scores on explicit vocabulary post-test, who received definitions of vocabulary before reading. Referring back to the table 10 and considering $P < .05$ value, it is revealed that the mean difference between the post-tests of vocabulary in two tests is significant at .05. Considering the results of the descriptive statistics of the post-tests on the table 6 also support this assumption .so the result of this study shows the positive effect of implicit vocabulary instruction. It means that participants, who received narrow reading, enjoyed the advantages of repeated exposure to the same vocabulary, had better scores in comparison with scores in explicit instruction in which participants received definition of vocabulary before reading. Thus this study shows that repeating the same vocabulary has effective advantages than presenting definition of vocabulary before reading.

V. CONCLUSION

The investigation of the results obtained from the study yielded the following conclusions:

1. The results of the descriptive statistics of the participants' mean scores on the explicit and implicit pre-tests revealed that the learners' knowledge of vocabulary before instruction was almost equal. On the other hand, this finding shows that the participants possessed almost the same level of knowledge in vocabulary, too. After the participants received treatment, i.e., explicit vocabulary instruction and implicit vocabulary instruction, the results of the t-test showed that both instructions was effective but the effects of implicit instruction was more effective and the instruction's difference was significant.

2. The mean of implicit post-test scores of 9 pre-intermediate, 19 intermediate, 2 upper-intermediate students were higher than their mean in the explicit ones.

3. The result of t-test of explicit and implicit post-test scores produced significant difference between them. In the light of this finding, it can be concluded that the implicit vocabulary instruction has more positive effects than the explicit one. In other words, the results of the t-test between the mean scores of participants' post-tests showed a significant difference at the .05 level of significance, which is indicative of the implicit treatment or narrow reading. Results and findings of this study regarding the effectiveness of implicit vocabulary teaching and learning is in line with the studies and findings of Krashen (2004); Lamme (1976); Cho, et al., (2005); Krashen and Brown (2007) and many other studies conducted in this regard. According to Krashen and Brown's assertion (2007) narrow reading is to read texts about single topic of interest, which helps ensure comprehension and natural repetition of vocabulary. This procedure which was approved by Krashen and other practitioners (e.g. Brown & Krashen, 2007, Cho & Krashen 1994, 1995) is similar to the second instruction (implicit vocabulary instruction) which was applied in this study and as the investigation of the results in the previous chapter showed, the amount of vocabulary acquisition in the explicit vocabulary instruction through presenting the definition of vocabulary before reading was lower than that of the implicit vocabulary instruction which students received repeated exposure to the same vocabulary.

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Spelling Errors Analysis in College English Writing

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Abstract—How English learners master and use vocabulary in writing is not only an important criterion for their English writing, but also a crucial aspect to show their ability to express in English. Moreover, the use of English vocabulary in their writing can further represent how well they learn English vocabulary. However, it can also reflect some existing faults in the vocabulary teaching and learning. How to improve vocabulary teaching and how to help learners use words effectively are the main problems to deal with during vocabulary teaching. This paper tries to do an empirical investigation, helping both teachers and language learners locate the difficult points in the target language and get prepared to acquire the language in a more oriented way. This study is carried out by collecting 68 compositions written by non-English majors. The errors are classified into three categories: local syntactic errors, global syntactic errors and semantic errors. As required, each category is further divided according to different criteria. Major causes are offered by illustration. Finally, some suggestions on vocabulary teaching are offered.

Index Terms—error analysis, real-word spelling errors, causes of errors

I. INTRODUCTION

Error analysis is a very important branch in the research field of second language acquisition (SLA) no matter in our country or abroad. For example, there is a whole chapter in the famous work about SLA by Ellis and even an entire book dedicated to error analysis by James, not to mention tons of reference books of grammatical errors for learners and teachers of English as a second or foreign language, such as Turton. In our country, a world famous corpus on English learners' errors (CLEC) was built years ago and plenty of researches have been published since then, including Yang, Gui and Yang.

“Among the grammatical errors made by writers, spelling error occupies the most prominent position, no matter in the writers of native speakers or language learners” (Leacock *et al.*, 2002, p.15-17). Nowadays, along with the fast development of computational techniques in automated spelling error detection, especially the broad using of spelling checker in Microsoft Word, students are being able to eliminate most of the spelling errors by themselves in their daily writing practice. Yet, spelling checkers are usually not good at detecting those real-word spelling errors and it is hard for students to find those errors by themselves.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Learner Errors and Error Analysis in SLA*

1. Second language acquisition

In the term second language acquisition, “‘second’ can refer to any language that is learned subsequent to the mother tongue” (Ellis, 1987, p.3). “The activity of acquiring a second language is often referred to as a L2. ‘L2 acquisition’, then, can be defined as the way in which people learn a language other than their mother tongue, inside or outside of a classroom, and ‘Second Language Acquisition’ (SLA) as the study of this” (Ellis, 1987, p.4). “The goals of SLA are to find out what learners actually do by collecting samples of learner language which provide evidence of what the learners know about the language they are trying to learn and describe how learner language changes over time. SLA also focused on the formal features of language the linguists have traditionally concentrated on, such as pronunciation, words, and grammar.” (Ellis, 1987, p.4-5). This paper studies the word spelling errors made by Chinese students in their English-written compositions. Therefore, L2 refers English in this paper.

2. Errors

“It may seem odd to focus on what learners get wrong rather than on what they get right. However, there are good reasons for focusing on errors. First, they are a conspicuous feature of learner language, raising the important question of “why do learners make errors?” Second, it is useful for teachers to know what errors learners make. Third, paradoxically, it is possible that making errors may actually help learners to learn when they self-correct the errors they make (Ellis, 1987, p.15). As to the definition of errors, Rod Ellis wrote errors reflect gaps in a learner’s knowledge. Carl James defines a language error as an unsuccessful bit of language. Brown holds that an error is a noticeable deviation from an adult grammar of a native speaker, resulting from the inter-language competence of the learner.

B. *Spelling Errors and Automated Spelling Error Detection*

1. Spelling errors

According to Kukich, spelling errors can be divided into two parts: typographic errors and cognitive errors “Typographic errors have something to do with keyboard adjacencies (insertion, deletion, substitution, or even transposition)” (Kukich, 1990, p.350), for example, ttheir (their), whre (where). While “cognitive errors usually stem from phonetic similarity” (Kukich, 1990, p.352), for example, tirm (term), acedemy (academy). Other factors include shifting key characters, shape similarity.

Formal misselection occurs when words that looks and sounds similar. For example, *This is the course [cause] of the accident*. The student wants to use *cause*, however, he chooses the wrong word. Unfortunately, the error is a real existent word, which makes the error more serious.

Misformation refers to the words that do not exist in the target language. They can originate either in mother tongue or be created by the learner from the resources of target language itself. Chinese students usually will not make interlingual misformation errors, because Chinese and English belong to quite different language families. But if the Chinese students have learned some other languages, it is possible for them to make such errors. For example, in the sentence *The preise [price] of tomato is high* (preise means price in German). The student uses German word preise. It seems that the student has learned some German words.

Distortions refer to the intralingual errors of form created without recourse to first language resources. The outcomes are forms non-existent in the target language. They result from the misapplication of one or more of the processing operations: omission, overinclusion, misselection, misordering and blending. Here are some examples: (1) omission: seris [serious]; (2) overinclusion: polloution [pollution]; (3) misselection: folgen (follow); (4) misordering: soceity [society]; (5) blending: popolution [population + pollution].

2. Automated spelling error detection

The writer has found that the above-mentioned error categories cannot cover most of the spelling errors. Therefore, the paper will focus on whether the form is existent or not in the target language. For those which are not existent in the target language we call them non-word errors. While those which are existent in the target language called real-word errors.

That is to say, in this paper we can classify all the spelling errors into two parts; one is non-word errors, while the other is real-word errors. For those non-word errors, it is easy to check against words list, and flag them if they are not in list. So we do this with the aid of Microsoft Word and correct them. However, those real-word errors are also in list, only unsuitably used in the context. Therefore, it is difficult for writers to notice them. What makes things more complexity is that real-word errors written by learners always have a large deviation from target words, contain multiple errors and misspell the first letter?

In practice, there is no agreed-upon list of confusable real words. It is also hard to predict which words will be confused.

III. RESEARCH METHOD

A. Objects and Data Collection

In this study, more than 600 compositions are collected from non-English majors to be the data of the study. These compositions are the students' writing exercises. The topics in these writings are diverse and the students do not know their compositions will be samples of the research. Therefore, they are all free productions that provide the best research materials. After using Microsoft Word automatic spelling checker to correct all the non-word errors, the writings of two topics were chose as research subjects.

B. Research Procedures

The process of this study extends more than four months and includes the following stages.

The first step is data collection. The writer randomly chose more than 632 copies of compositions, including the following topics: My Experience of Learning English, Family is more/less important than in the past. In the beginning, the writer collected different kinds of compositions of non-English majors. And the total amount of words is more than 120,000. The writer input all the data into one document and corrected all the spelling errors that Microsoft Word automatic spelling checker could detect.

The second step is to identify those real-word spelling errors that Microsoft Word automatic spelling checker cannot find out. At this stage, the writer only analyzed 68 compositions including 11,503 words, which focused on two topics, namely, “My Experience of Learning English” and “Family is more/less important than in the past”.

The third step is to describe errors. There are many different kinds of classification systems that are mentioned in chapter two. In this paper, Atwell and Elliott's error categories will be used. These researchers analyzed errors in four categories: (1) non-word errors; (2) local syntactic errors; (3) global syntactic errors; and (4) semantic errors. This paper only focuses on real-word errors, so the last three categories will be adopted.

The fourth step is to explain errors. Explanation is concerned with establishing the source of the errors.

TABLE 1.
THE TOPICS OF THE SAMPLES

Topic	Amount (68)	Total Words
My Experience of Learning English	51	9,823
Family is more/less important than in the past	17	3,029

C. Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis

Qualitative and quantitative analysis are two basic approaches to language study.

Qualitative analysis is a kind of research that the data are not in the form of numbers. On the contrary, the data in quantitative analysis are in the form of numbers. In detail, the focus of qualitative analysis is to use language to describe the study. This kind of method mainly depends on the researchers' experience, intuition as well as the information and situation of the research object to make a judgment. While quantitative analysis refers to a method, which uses mathematical language to describe the study. It is based on statistical data to set up mathematical models and then make conclusions. Qualitative analysis is the basis of quantitative analysis. Quantitative analysis makes qualitative analysis more accurate and scientific, and it can also promote qualitative analysis to draw an extensive and in-depth conclusion. Therefore, in this paper the writer combines the two methods to do the research. In the aspect of qualitative analysis, the writer will divide all the real-word spelling errors into three parts: local syntactic errors, global syntactic errors and semantic errors. In the aspect of quantitative analysis, the writer will discuss the relative proportions of real-word spelling that fall into each of the three categories.

In this paper, I use quantitative analysis describe the proportion of each category, which can make us easy to know the easiest wrongly written words and the categories they are belong to. The qualitative analysis in this paper can give us a detailed description of different errors, which make us have a deeper understanding of them and help us avoid making such errors.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Some researches in China have shown that the biggest difficulty in the process of learning of a foreign language is lexis. Language is a sequence of words. People from different culture have different systems of languages. They differ greatly in way of thinking and ways of expression. Therefore, the fundamental difference between native language learning and target language learning is how the second language learners use the target language to express the same idea in the native language context. It is known that Chinese and English language belong to different language systems. They differ much in pronunciation, spelling, grammar, lexis and usage. That is why Chinese learners make errors in such aspects.

A. Quantitative Analysis of Real-word Spelling Errors

The following table describes the quantitative features of the three kinds of errors.

From the table below, local syntactic errors take up the biggest proportion.

TABLE.2
DISTRIBUTION OF REAL-WORD SPELLING ERRORS

Total	Local Syntactic Errors	Global Syntactic Errors	Semantic Errors
55	32	6	17
100%	58%	11%	31%

B. Qualitative Analysis of Real-word Spelling Errors

1. Local syntactic errors

The local syntactic violations involve local incongruities within 1 or 2 words, which can be divided into three kinds: grammatically misspelled errors, errors in word class and errors in lexical relations.

TABLE.3
DISTRIBUTION OF LOCAL SYNTACTIC ERRORS

Total	Grammatically Misspelled Errors	Errors in Word Class	Errors in Lexical Collocation
32	13	8	11
100%	41%	25%	34%

(1) Grammatically misspelled errors

TABLE.4
DISTRIBUTION OF GRAMMATICALLY MISSPELLED ERRORS

Type of Errors in Grammatically Misspelled Errors	Number	Percent (100%)
Singular and Plural Forms of Nouns	3	23.3
Superlative of Adjectives	2	15
Infinitives	3	23.3
Past Participle of Lexical Verbs	2	15
Subject-verb Agreement	3	23.3
Total	13	100

Errors in singular and plural forms of nouns

- 1) He recommends me to see some interesting English [film] <films> and listen to some cool music.
- 2) Now, I am an undergraduate, many [exam] <exams> of English level will be challenge to me.
- 3) As the saying goes, all [road] <roads> lead to Rome.

In the above three sentences, they all wrongly use the singular forms of countable nouns to describe the concept of many. Therefore, they all should be replaced by the plural forms of these countable nouns.

Errors in superlative of adjectives

4) The teacher didn't teacher us patiently and the interesting has been missing, this time is the [worse] <worst> time although I learn English.

5) But this is just the [worse] <worst> part for me.

Instead of comparative forms of adjectives, superlative of adjectives should be used here.

Errors in infinitives

6) Although my English is not good now, I believe that nothing is impossible if you want to do it. I will try my best to [learning] <learn> English in my university.

7) Because in my heart, English is a mysterious language so that so many people learn it and I wanted to [learning] <learn> English well was a hard work.

8) At that time, I thought that it is unnecessary for me to [learning] <learn> a Chinese course.

Here we should use infinitives instead of present participle of verbs.

Errors in past participle of lexical verbs

9) From then on, I have [make] <made> up my mind to learn English well.

10) Come to the college, everything has been [change] <changed>.

The past participle of lexical verbs should be used in the above two sentences to replace the past tense verbs.

Errors in subject-verb agreement

11) I lost my interest of English, because I thought I [were] <was> the top of our class.

12) Firstly, competitions that children face are more and fiercer nowadays, so parents' support and encouragement for their kids [is] <are> more vital.

13) When I was failed on study, I never given up because of my dad's encouragement, he help <helps> me find back my confidence and cheer me up.

This kind of errors in examples 11) through 13) is subject-verb number disagreement, which is more commonly happened in Chinese students writings.

(2) Errors in word class

Sometimes nouns are replaced by verbs, sometimes adjectives by nouns. Chinese characters don't have any obvious markers to show their word class. That's a reason why Chinese learners are not often aware of word class of English words when using them.

TABLE.5
DISTRIBUTION OF ERRORS IN WORD CLASS

Type of Errors in Word Class	Number	Percent (100%)
Noun as adjective	3	38
Adjective as noun	1	12.5
Noun as verb	1	12.5
Verb as noun	1	12.5
Personal Pronoun as Adjective Possessive Pronoun	2	25
Total	8	100

Nouns misused as adjectives (or vice versa)

14) Now, I do not afraid to write and speak English, I just try hard to do it. I will never forget her who showed me that learning English could be [interest] <interesting> and rewarding.

15) What's more, she told me an [interest] <interesting> method to remember the English words.

16) To begin with, when we as [youth] <young> as a baby, it is our parents who teach us how to step our first step and to speak first word.

17) When I told him I didn't like English and I think English is no [useful] <use> for having a deep conversation with me.

18) In senior middle school, I am very [interest] <interested> in English as much as I'm in junior school .So I always

get the bad scores.

19) I needed someone’s [encouraging] <encouragement> but nobody did so. Finally, I gave up.

The word ‘interest’ is a noun. It should be used as subject or object, but it wrongly used as predictor. The word ‘encouraging’ in example 19 is a verb. It should be added an object. However, students falsely used it as a noun.

Personal pronoun as adjective possessive pronoun

20) Form [they] <their> words, I understand life not only myself but also my parents, I should value it two times.

21) They will do [them] <their> best to take good care to us.

The above two sentences misuse personal pronoun and adjective possessive pronoun.

The use of word class needs a special attention in vocabulary teaching. Chinese has a negative effect on their English language learning. When writing in Chinese, learners don’t need to consider so much of the use of word class because Chinese language lays more emphasis on expression of meaning. Therefore, the word class of words is probably neglected when they are writing in English.

(3)Errors in lexical collocation

In Wikipedia, collocation is defined as a sequence of words or terms which co-occur more often than would be expected by chance, within the area of corpus linguistics. The question is not which word could substitute for this word, but which words typically precede or follow it.

22) Now, I can write down my experience [using] <in> English.

23) Since then, I am interested [with] <in > English.

24) As time [going] <goes> by, I found English was [hard] <harder> than before.

25) [The] <At> last I came to college with a good score of English.

26) [Thank] <Thanks> to their teaching, let us grew-up and successful.

27) [Late] <Later> on, we could touch English a little more. My mark is down at the sane tine. Also I lose interest in English slowly.

28) When I first met English I fell in love [in] <with> it.

29) I love listening to English and English songs, because [on] <in> my opinion, English sounded beautiful .But it’s so sad that my English is very poor.

30) [On] <At> that time, I was good at English that was based on my enthusiasm.

31) But one year [late] <later>, my first English teacher was gone, so I had to be taught by another teacher, who was a beautiful girl.

32) [In] <At> that time, I was a grade 4 student, and I didn’t begin to learn English in Wuxi, but other students have learnt English for 2 years, my English ability is the worst at class, so I was afraid of learning English.

In the above sentences, errors of lexical collocation occur. Seen from these eleven sentences, errors are made especially in the fixed phrases.

2. Global syntactic errors

The global syntactic errors in the following sentence are more problematic.

33) At first, we [know] <knew> little about English and didn’t understand what the teacher said if she didn’t translate the words into Chinese.

34) Because of her teaching, I like to answer the questions and never [worrying] <worry> about other people’s derision. Of course, primary school’s question was very easy.

35) She know I haven’t learnt English ,so she would self teach my English after class, I know that I learnt the first English word is “zoo”, because I think that it is likely 2 hundred, I remember [I] <it> clearly.

36) [Beside] <Besides>, family members seem to care about being together.

37) Parents should not only teach the children how to study, but also taught to something [beside] <besides> the study.

38) [One] <Once> I forget to finish homework, the English teacher very angry.

In sentence 34), readers have to finish reading the whole sentence to realize the exact tense of the sentence. When reading the last three sentences, readers can understand the meaning by considering the meaning of the whole sentence. Therefore, this kind of errors is an obstacle to people’s daily reading.

3. Semantic errors

TABLE.6
DISTRIBUTION OF SEMANTIC ERRORS

Total	Similar in Spelling	Similar in Pronunciation	Similar in Meaning
17	12	3	2
100%	71%	17%	12%

Similar in spelling

39) I had to pay more attention to my poor math. Then my English [proved] <improved> slowly.

40) But [generally] <gradually>, laziness made me not study hard

41) When I [stopped] <stepped> into the senior high school, I began my grammar learning.

42) At that time, I only learned the [sample] <simple> English.

43) Now, English is my favorite [project] <subject>, I learn it well and I always at the top of my class.

44) As we all know that family plays an important role in Chinese mind, but as the advent of modern society and progress of the age, family now [seen] <seems> to be less important than before, according to someone's opinion.

45) On the one hand, they know [must] <more> about us, high efficiency schedule, balance diet and so on.

46) During this society, with the development of [completive] <competition>, the work make us tired, the stress make us illness.

47) Nowadays, most of the people think that family is less important because children can live normally [event] <even> with the high divorce rate.

48) At last, she often instructed us to say oral English as well as [baby] <body> English.

49) She is the most responsible teacher I have [never] <ever> seen.

50) The teacher always [published] <punished> me in class.

In the above sentences, learners may confuse words in similar spelling and even in similar sounding.

Similar in pronunciation

51) In middle school, My English was very [pool] <poor> but I never give up.

52) There are many questions, why I don't like to speak English, why my English [cause] <course> was so poor.

53) I think it's the most difficult project to learn .And the thing [whish] <which> is the most difficult thing to stop me learning well is the vocabulary.

In the above three sentences, the errors are caused by phonological rules. When they write, learners may feel it difficult to tell the difference between words which show no difference in pronunciation or similar in pronunciation. Or they may not realize that English words don't always follow the pronunciation rules.

Similar in meaning

54) So I spend more time to learn English, sometimes I even learn English [until] <till> twelve o'clock.

55) Miss Deng is a beautiful and young lady, as long as she came to our class, everyone would quiet with smile, [although] <even> those naughty boys, they would stop talking about their things.

In the above two sentences, learners wrongly choose words to present their ideas and meanings.

The above sentences have shown that familiarity with pronunciation of a word and its phonological combination indeed affects accuracy in perceiving, pronouncing and remembering the word.

C. Analysis of Causes of Real-word Spelling Errors

Since a detail description about the real-word spelling errors committed by students has been demonstrated in the previous section. In the following part, I will hunt for the potential causes of real-word spelling errors.

1. Interlingual causes

Interlingual cause is mainly due to the interference of learners' mother language. Mother language can both have positive and negative influences on the target language. Chinese and English belong to different systems. There are great differences between their vocabulary, including pronunciation, spelling, word class and so on. The differences trigger negative transfer. Therefore, the big difficulty for Chinese learners is English vocabulary.

Taylor has argued that less proficient learners will rely more on mother language. "More advanced learners know more about the target language and more often make analogies between mother language and target language. Since less proficient learners have less such kind of knowledge, they will tend to pay more attention on their native language. For instance, as intermediate-low learners, when they want to express their complex ideas, they often create some expressions by translating Chinese phrases and collocation word for word. But not all L1 equivalents are absolutely the same with L2 words" (Taylor 103-104). That is to say, some sentences produced by the language learners do not make sense in English, but if translated into Chinese, they really do.

2. Intralingual causes

"Intralingual Causes are by definition not predicted on the basis of contrastive analysis (CA), they can't be traced back to differences between L1 and L2, but they relate to a specific interpretation of the target language and manifest themselves as universal phenomena in any language learning process. Technically, they are caused by the faulty or partial learning of one item of the target language upon another" (Huang 307). Therefore, this kind of errors has little connections with L1. It can be sub-divided as follows: false analogy, overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restrictions and incomplete rule application.

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Analysing the Potential of Social Networking Sites on EFL Learners' Vocabulary Mastery: A Situated-learning Approach

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Abstract—To what extent is the appearance of Social Networking Sites (SNSs), from the increased use of technology-supported online interactions, influencing EFL learners' vocabulary learning process? Answering this question is the main objective of the present study. Without a doubt, with the advent of computer-mediated learning technologies, today's students have been provided with more adjustable approaches in foreign language learning. Accordingly, the present study aimed at exploring the educational benefits of using Social Networking Sites (SNSs) such as Facebook in the development of Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge. Following a pretest-posttest design, the participants of experimental and control groups, who were 100 EFL learners from Islamic Azad University of Khorasgan (Isfahan), Iran, were compared regarding the level of their vocabulary knowledge. The findings pointed to the positive role of SNSs, as an instructional tool, in enhancing students' level of second language (L2) lexical knowledge by allowing the retention of new words in an interactional environment. Finally, as a post hoc analysis, a questionnaire was administered to the participants of experimental group so as to gauge their opinions towards the effectiveness of using such SNSs in the process of L2 vocabulary learning.

Index Terms—social networking sites, lexical knowledge, facebook, technology-mediated learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Indubitably, current dramatic improvements in technology-mediated educational settings have changed the teaching methodology in every field of study, and the field of language teaching is by no means an exception. Considering the significance of technology-mediated learning approaches, Jonassen, Howland, Marra, and Crismond (2008) assert that "Technologies support meaningful learning when they fulfill a learning need, when interactions with technologies are learner-initiated and learner-controlled and when interactions with the technologies are conceptually and intellectually engaging" (p. 7). Moreover, as Kumar and Lightner (2007) point out, today's students must be provided with the modern facilities to which they are accustomed in order for them to get deeply involved in the learning process.

Online foreign language learning, on the other hand, has recently been regarded with favour by many learners as a result of a growth in the global computer networks. Nowadays, Social Networking Sites (SNSs) such as Facebook and Twitter are believed to play a significant role in developing a foreign language in an interactive and dynamic context. Due to the rapid progression of such learning platforms, the learners are now provided with new opportunities by accessing such dynamic contexts in order to promote their learning processes. In this regard, Harrison and Thomas (2009) maintain that learning a foreign/second language in such social settings may occur unconsciously when, for example, users develop and share their profiles with their friends or provide others with comments.

Consequently, many language researchers (e.g., Firth & Wagner, 1997; Johnson, 2004; Mills, 2011) have acknowledged a paradigm shift in the way second/foreign languages are taught. They all believe that foreign language teaching methodology is now moving from a cognitive orientation to a social orientation and from classroom contexts to naturalistic settings. Considering this fact, some of the practitioners (e.g., Boyd & Ellison, 2007; Blattner & Fiori, 2011; Lim, 2012) highlight the fact that traditional classrooms are not as efficient as such online dynamic and natural environments, and that SNSs have offered an opportunity for EFL learners in order to improve their overall language proficiency. The main reason is that these dynamic learning environments, compared to traditional classrooms with blackboard, are in line with the EFL learners' interests and tendencies, which will in turn increase their motivations. Thorne, Black, and Sykes (2009) and Ziegler (2007) also support this issue and contend that social networking tools have been praised for their educational values and potentials and are heralded for their capacities in boosting students' motivations and encouraging their engagements.

However, the most important role of social networking tools is to deepen the underlying assumption of group activity in the process of language learning. Focusing on this view, in 1991, Lave and Wenger demonstrated their explanatory model of *situated learning*. By this, Lave and Wenger rightly believed that learning takes place as long as EFL/ESL

learners are situated in the *Communities of Practice* (COP). As noted by Wenger (1998), COP is defined as a group of people who interact with each other regularly with particular goals through what is called social interaction. Lave and Wenger further argue that learners incorporate into COP by active participation in order to foster their knowledge and improve their skills. Along the same line, Heeter (2005) explains that the purpose of situated learning is to encourage and motivate learners by paralleling the learning tasks with real world situations. It will provide a real world context for learners and make a progress in students' learning by highlighting the use of knowledge in that context. Heeter further states that in Situated Learning Theory, learners are involved in the social context with the aim of fostering, understanding, and improving their learning in an authentic situation.

Interestingly, the other widely acknowledged benefit of using SNSs in educational domains is the ability of individual learners in exchanging their language skills and sharing their language knowledge by participating in such authentic learning platforms. Yet, the majority of EFL classrooms are suffering from the lack of necessary characteristics of these interactive learning environments where learners can be engaged in a dynamic interaction so as to utilize and practice English for various authentic purposes (Murand & Norizan, 2012).

One of the most favored SNSs is a social platform known as Facebook. Evidently, Facebook, as a useful tool designed for social interactions, has also been recognized as a pedagogical tool for EFL/ESL learners in order to exchange and share their linguistic repertoire. In this regard, Lampe, Wohn, Vitak, Ellison and Wash (2011) comment that Facebook users may actively engage in sharing and exchanging their language abilities, which is sometimes conscious and at other times an unconscious process. In so doing, users can simply make a profile for themselves and then discuss their ideas and practice the target language with their peers or even instructors. Focusing on the potentials of using such SNSs in language learning process, Hayashi (2011) and Majid, Stapa, and Keong (2012) also point out that by using such platforms, learners would be able to identify the language setting, interact in a variety of groups, post or update the status, or have an online chat coincidentally in an enthusiastic and enjoyable way. Incidentally, this learner-learner or learner-instructor cyber communications would reconstruct a new collaborating environment in which both parties can benefit from enhancing their language abilities and skills such as speaking, writing, pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary.

Obviously, a wide number of studies have been conducted on the impact of SNSs on learning a given foreign language and, as a consequence, lots of information has been released regarding the relationship existing between these SNSs and language learning development (e.g., Lantof, 2000; Ellis, 2005; Heeter, 2005; Boyd & Ellison, 2011; Norizan, Murad & Zulkifli, 2013). However, no writer has been able to conduct any structured research in order to explore the possible impact of SNSs such as Facebook on students' level of L2 lexical knowledge. Clearly, lexical acquisition in social communicative environments is a critical stage in a way that L2 learners can learn a set of new words in the target language and get wise to the relationship between the words and their meanings. This is particularly important because the role of lexical knowledge in learners' overall linguistic knowledge takes precedence over any other linguistic aspects. In this regard, Gass (1988) maintains that the importance of lexical knowledge is stressed by the fact that grammatical errors may result in understandable structures, but vocabulary errors will definitely disrupt the communication.

The superiority of teaching lexical items in the cyber-communication environments over traditional classroom-based methods has recently been acknowledged in a number of studies (e.g., Tokac, 2005; Kilickaya & Krajka, 2010; Lin, Hsiao, Tseng, & Chan, 2014). Kilickaya and Krajka (2010), for instance, made an attempt to explore the possible differences existing between online vocabulary teaching methods and traditional methods. The results revealed that the participants who experienced online vocabulary learning process (experimental group) exhibited a better performance compared to those who were taught the same lexical items through traditional classroom-based instructions (control group). It was finally concluded that the participants of experimental group could remember the lexical categories more efficiently than participants of control group due to the fact that they had learned the words in an authentic context and were exposed to each vocabulary item repeatedly. In the same vein, in 2014, Lin, Hsiao, Tseng, and Chan conducted a study in which the participants, using hardware devices and all-in-one touch screen desktop serving as a platform for collaborative learning, were required to accomplish the pre-activities such as matching, scrambled sentences, and translation. After examining their level of lexical knowledge using an immediate and delayed posttest, the researchers concluded that collaborative learning of vocabulary in the technology-supported classrooms would result in the students' deep processing learning and retaining of unfamiliar words in the long-term memory.

Considering the above, this paper was an attempt to investigate the usefulness of SNSs such as Facebook in enhancing Iranian EFL learners' lexical knowledge and challenges they may face while practicing with such communication tools. The logic behind choosing Facebook from among other SNSs relies on the fact that Facebook has become a well-known communicative tool for people in order to interact with each other. Another reason in selecting Facebook is that Facebook is considered as a dynamic framework for EFL/ESL learners in order to develop and foster their overall language proficiency in general and their vocabulary knowledge in particular. Consequently, this study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. Do SNSs have an impact on the development of lexical knowledge of Iranian EFL learners?
2. What is the personal attitude of EFL learners towards learning vocabulary through SNSs?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The main objective of the present study was to investigate the impact of SNSs on the Iranian EFL Learners' level of L2 lexical knowledge. To this end, an initial sample of 150 students was randomly selected from the population of MA students from Islamic Azad University of Khorasgan (Isfahan), Isfahan, Iran. The participants were both male and female, all of which native speakers of Persian beginning the second term of their MA in Applied Linguistics. Then, a sample Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was administered so as to choose from among them the homogenized participants. Consequently, the final 100 students were selected and considered as the target sample. It should be noted that the participants were all approximately in the same age range; i.e., between 21 and 23. Finally, using the Nation's (2001) Vocabulary Level Test, the selected sample was divided into two identical groups (experimental and control) regarding the level of their L2 vocabulary knowledge.

B. Instruments

To reach the purpose of the study, three main instruments were employed, viz, two Nation's (2001) Vocabulary Level Test (NVLT), and a researcher-developed questionnaire. To measure the participants' vocabulary proficiency size, a sample of NVLT, serving as the pretest, was administered in which the participants were required to answer 30 multiple-choice vocabulary questions. Another sample of NVLT, which was considered as the posttest, was also used to check the possible effect of the treatment; i.e., the potential of using SNSs on students' vocabulary knowledge. Finally, to gauge the students' overall experience and opinion towards the efficacy of using SNSs in the way they learn new words in the target language, a well-organized questionnaire, as a sort of post hoc analysis, was administered to the participants of the treatment group.

C. Procedures

After selecting the final 100 students who were all at the same level of overall language proficiency, a sample of NVLT, serving as the pretest, was administered in order to determine their level of L2 vocabulary knowledge. The logic behind choosing the NVLT was that the validity of the test had already been estimated by many practitioners and claimed to be high. Using KR-21 method, the reliability of the test was also calculated, which was equal to 0.78. The test contained 30 multiple-choice items, which the participants were required to answer in 15 minutes. The main criterion determined for the students' final scores was their percentages of right answers. Based on their scores obtained from the pretest, 100 participants were ultimately selected for instructional sessions and posttest. The participants were then divided into the experimental and control group.

Both control and experimental groups were provided with the target 20 lexical items, but with different instructional procedures. The words under investigation were all taken from a passage in one of the social networks. The treatment material also incorporated such activities as matching, crossword and word search puzzles for both groups. However, what was different for experimental group was the presentation environment of the vocabulary items. In fact, for the experimental group, participants were taught the target vocabulary in a computer-supported classroom in which students were able to rehearse the lexical items interactively using a social networking site known as Facebook.

On the other hand, the control group was provided with the same target words using the same traditional instruction and activities as treatment group in order to ensure parallelism between both groups. However, they were not engaged in the dynamic and social environment to practice the learned lexical items. After each session, the teachers checked the participants' answers and made any necessary correction. During the whole instructional period, the participants of experimental group were given the necessary guidelines in order to engage properly in such online social environments. Finally, after a period of five weeks, another sample of NVLT was administered to the participants to check the possible differences existing between the two groups regarding their vocabulary learning process and the extent to which each group has retained the target words.

Moreover, in order to evaluate the participants' attitudes towards the efficacy of using Facebook in the development of their lexical knowledge, the researchers supplied the participants of experimental group with a questionnaire. The questions were all multiple choice, based on the Likert Scale (i.e., completely agree, agree, not sure, disagree, completely disagree). It should be noted that the validity and reliability of the questionnaire was acknowledged by some of the practitioners of the field.

III. RESULTS

To come up with an answer to the first research question, t-test was conducted two times; once prior to the commencement of the experiment, and once after the implementation of the experiment. The first t-test was run to compare the vocabulary knowledge of the participants in both experimental and control groups and to ensure their homogeneity regarding their level of L2 lexical knowledge prior to the experiment. The results of this t-test analysis are depicted in Tables 1 and 2.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR COMPARING THE PRETEST SCORES OF CONTROL GROUP (CG) AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (EG)

Groups		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pretest	CG	50	12.3400	2.59992	.36768
	EG	50	12.9000	2.75718	.38992

In Table 1, the number of participants in each group, mean scores, and standard deviations are displayed. The Experimental Group (EG) managed to obtain a higher mean score ($M = 12.90$, $SD 2.75$) than the Control Group (CG) ($M = 12.34$, $SD = 2.59$). However, whether this difference is statistically significant should be determined in the t-test table.

TABLE 2.
T-TEST RESULTS FOR COMPARING THE PRETEST SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL 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
Pretest	Equal variances assumed	.346	.558	-1.045	98	.299	-.56000	.53594	-1.62356	.50356
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.045	97.664	.299	-.56000	.53594	-1.62360	.50360

Since the Sig. (2-tailed) value in this table is greater than the level of significance ($.299 > .05$), it would be concluded that there is no significant difference between the pretest scores of the two groups. This means that these groups were homogeneous in terms of their vocabulary knowledge at the outset of the study.

Another t-test was also conducted to compare the performances of the two groups on the posttest. The results of this end-of-the-experiment analysis are presented in Tables 3 and 4. Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics of the analysis.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR COMPARING THE POSTTEST SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

Groups		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Posttest	EG	50	20.7600	2.42066	.34233
	CG	50	18.3000	2.20621	.31200

On the posttest, the EG once again obtained a higher mean score ($M = 20.76$, $SD = 2.42$) than did the CG ($M = 18.30$, $SD = 2.20$). To find out the possible significance of this difference in the mean scores, the p value under the Sig. (2-tailed) column in the t-test table should be checked.

TABLE 4.
T-TEST RESULTS FOR COMPARING THE POSTTEST SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL 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
Posttest	Equal variances assumed	.355	.553	5.311	98	.000	2.46000	.46318	1.54083	3.37917
	Equal variances not assumed			5.311	97.169	.000	2.46000	.46318	1.54073	3.37927

The p value here is less than the significance level ($.000 < .05$), indicating that the differences between the two groups on the posttest scores were indeed statistically significant. As a result, it could be inferred that SNSs were more effective than traditional methods of instruction for teaching vocabulary to Iranian EFL learners.

In an attempt to find an answer to the second research question, the answers to the items of the questionnaire were analyzed. The questionnaire, with the frequencies of responses to each choice, is reproduced as Table 5 here. In order to analyze the questionnaire data, the average of the five values of the Likert scale questionnaire was calculated ($5 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1 = 15$; $15 / 5 = 3$) and determined to be 3. Then for each item in the questionnaire, the average of the responses was calculated (the frequencies for each response were multiplied by the related value of the response; the numbered

were then added up and subsequently divided by the total number of the participants). The mean response, then, was compared with the average value (i.e. 3). In case where the mean response was greater than 3, it could be argued that the participants gave more concurring responses. The greater the mean response than 3, the more affirmative the participants' responses to the questions were. Conversely, values under 3 would indicate that the participants responded negatively to the questions.

TABLE 5.
FREQUENCIES OF RESPONSES AND THE MEAN RESPONSE IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Questions	Completely Agree (5)	Agree (4)	Not Sure (3)	Disagree (2)	Completely Disagree (1)	Mean Response
1. Do you believe in learning vocabulary via SNSs?	*59	21	11	7	2	4.28
2. Do you agree that learning vocabulary through SNSs is more enjoyable and profitable?	*63	18	5	9	5	4.65
3. Do you make faster progress in L2 vocabulary learning by means of SNSs?	17	*43	27	12	1	3.63
4. Do you think that learning vocabulary in dynamic environments is an adequate strategy in foreign language classes?	18	*39	13	16	14	3.31
5. Do you agree that learning L2 vocabulary through only traditional classroom-based instruction is not sufficient anymore?	16	21	*29	16	18	2.99
6. Do you think that SNSs such as Facebook have a negative effect on your vocabulary learning process?	9	13	21	*42	15	2.59
7. Do you comprehend the meaning of L2 vocabulary easier via SNSs than traditional strategies?	*44	24	19	13	0	3.99
8. Do you support the idea that by learning L2 vocabulary through traditional instructions you are under lots of pressure and stress?	25	*37	10	19	9	3.50
9. Do you agree that by learning L2 vocabulary through SNSs you will be able to retain the words in your long-term memory more efficiently?	*33	28	24	13	2	3.67
10. Do you confirm that collaborative learning in authentic environments foster and improve your L2 vocabulary learning?	42	*58	0	0	0	4.42
11. Do you agree that today most students tend to attend in technology-supported classes?	*43	36	18	3	0	4.16
12. Do you acknowledge that repetitive exposure to the target words in the SNSs especially Facebook improve the quality of your vocabulary and communication?	*32	23	6	18	21	3.45

* The choice receiving the most number of responses in each item

In terms of the first question, the mean response is 4.28 (which is greater than 3), indicating that the participants mostly gave an affirmative response to the first question which asked whether they agreed with learning vocabulary via SNSs. Another piece of evidence for this finding is the frequency of responses to the Completely Agree response (that is, 59). Likewise, most of the students gave positive responses to the second question ($f_{\text{completely agree}} = 63$, $M = 4.65$) which probed whether learning vocabulary through SNSs was enjoyable and profitable. The mean response to the third question also exceeded 3 ($M = 3.63$). This question asked whether the participants made faster progress via SNSs and 43 participants marked Agree.

The next question (question 4) aimed at finding out whether vocabulary learning in dynamic environments was sufficient or not. Thirty-nine learners checked the Agree response and the mean response for this item was calculated to be 3.31. In the fifth question, which asked whether traditional methods of vocabulary learning were insufficient, most of the participants marked the Not Sure choice, and the mean response turned out to be 2.99. To question 6, most of the responses (42%) were Disagree. This question asked whether SNSs had negative effects on vocabulary learning. Question 7 related to the ease of vocabulary learning via SNSs compared to traditional methods, and 44% of the participants completely agreed that vocabulary learning via SNSs was easier ($M = 3.99$).

The next question (question 8) asked whether the traditional way of learning entails a lot of pressure and stress, and more than one thirds of the respondents (37%) agreed ($M = 3.50$). Most of the responses to the 9th question (33%) were of those who completely agreed that vocabulary learning via SNSs took place more efficiently and quickly. The Agree response of Question 10 was selected by most (58%) of the respondents. This question aimed to explore the participants' opinion regarding whether learning in authentic environments fostered L2 vocabulary development or not. The penultimate question was about the tendency of the EFL learners to learn in technology-supported environments and most (43%) of the learners marked their tendency to do so by choosing the Completely Agree response. Finally, Thirty-two percent of the participants completely agreed that continued exposure to SNSs would bring about improvements in their vocabulary knowledge and communication skills. The mean response for this question was 4.42.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

A strong positive relationship between the computer-mediated vocabulary instruction and learners' level of L2 lexical knowledge has always been reported in the literature. However, in reviewing the literature, no research has been found to be conducted on the association between SNSs such as Facebook and vocabulary learning process. Accordingly, this study set out with the aim of assessing the effectiveness of SNSs such as Facebook on the development of Iranian EFL learners' lexical knowledge.

Considering the first research question, it was hypothesized that SNSs such as Facebook do play a positive role on the way students retain their L2 lexical items. To investigate the first question, an independent-samples T-Test was conducted on the participants' posttest scores. The results revealed that the participants of experimental group outperformed those of control group regarding the extent to which they learned the target lexical items, indicating that SNSs did have a positive effect on the students' level of L2 vocabulary knowledge. This finding is consistent with the findings of Nakata (2008) and Fehr et al. (2012) who found that students who were rehearsing the instructed lexical items in a computer-based environment using online social platforms had a chance to retain more vocabulary items and, as a result, their size of vocabulary knowledge was enhanced. One possible explanation for the efficiency of SNSs would then be the repeated exposure of learners to the target words during their interactions in these social environments. However, with the small sample size of this study, caution must be applied as the findings might not be extrapolated to all EFL learners or to all types of instructions.

Following the experimental phase of the study, an attempt was also made to gauge the learners' opinions and attitudes towards the effectiveness of SNSs in the process of L2 vocabulary learning. As such, the participants of experimental group were provided with a questionnaire comprising of 12 items. Overall, the results of the questionnaire analysis indicated that most participants believed that learning L2 (in this case, English) lexical items in an online environment would have a positive effect on their vocabulary retention process. The means of students' answers to the items supported the fact that SNSs would be considered as a useful communicative tool in which EFL learners can practice the target language lexical items. Such social platforms, then, would facilitate the L2 vocabulary learning process. The main reason is that students would be able to retain the words in their long-term memories more efficiently due to the fact that they are repeatedly rehearsing them.

It is worth mentioning here that despite the fact that the findings of the present study supported the idea of the usefulness of SNSs in improving the vocabulary knowledge of EFL learners, the generalizability of the results may be challenged due to some limitations experienced in this study. As an example, to determine the effectiveness of the treatment, such short period of time (five weeks) might not be appropriate enough. Another limitation has something to do with the validity of the NVLT in that such test may not measure the intended vocabulary properly.

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On Grammatical Borrowing: The Case of Arabic Plurals in the Urdu Language

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Abstract—The Urdu language, which represents a large-scale borrowing situation, has not only borrowed thousands of Arabic lexical items but also some grammatical aspects of Arabic. This paper deals more specifically with Arabic plurals in Urdu in terms of grammatical borrowing that is mediated by lexical borrowing. The paper supports the view that, though scarce, grammatical borrowing does nevertheless occur. The evidence is drawn from Urdu where some significant Arabic structures are adopted. The case of Arabic plurals has been taken as an example. The incorporation of Arabic plurals into Urdu plays an important role in plural formation in the language, particularly the use of Arabic broken plural (BP) patterns. BPs represent almost 86% of the collected data (150 items out of 175). However, it is worth mentioning that plural inflection is only restricted to those noun stems which have been already borrowed from Arabic. It is, then, a clear indication that Urdu has benefited from the richness of Arabic not only in the domain of beliefs and philosophy but also in the structure of Arabic grammar.

Index Terms—grammatical borrowing, lexical borrowing, Urdu, Arabic, morphological patterns, broken plural

I. INTRODUCTION

The Urdu language belongs to the Indo-European language family. It came into existence due to the interaction of Muslim soldiers with the native speakers of the region. In this regard, Katzner (2002) states that “Urdu is the official language of Pakistan and is also widely spoken in India. In Pakistan, it is the mother tongue of about 10 million people, but is spoken fluently there as a second language by perhaps 100 million more. In India, where it is spoken by some 50 million Muslims, it is one of the official languages recognized by the constitution.” (p. 174)

During the process of its growth, Urdu underwent many influences. The words taken from Turkish, Prakrit, Sanskrit, Hindi, Persian, and of course Arabic are now Urdu's own and very much urdunized. It is this remarkable process in which foreign words are accommodated and adapted in a manner and fashion that it seems as if they were its own by origin. The efforts made by the scholars and lexicographers of the standard Urdu for enriching it and making it dynamic and culturally open are really appreciated. It can be easily claimed that the Urdu of today is a good amalgamation. The process of lexical innovation in the Urdu language is still very fast and continuous in comparison with other languages.

Arabic, being the language of Islam, has deeply penetrated all the Muslim nations, Turkish, Persian and Hindustani. It has also contributed to the enrichment of European language vocabularies. In this sense, Arabic is considered a major donor language of the world. It is generally thought that the Arabs came into contact with India only after the rise of Islam when Muhammad Bin al-Qasim invaded Sindh. However, the complete Muslim domination over the subcontinent took place only in the 16th century, during which “a large number of Persian, Arabic, and Turkish words entered the language via the military camps and the marketplaces of Delhi.” (Katzner, 2002, p. 175)

It is no denying fact that Persian has the main role in crystallizing and standardizing Urdu, but all through, Arabic has been playing an important role in enriching Urdu with its own vocabulary as well as some of its own morphosyntactic rules. A respectable number of scholars have conducted several studies on the influence of Arabic language and literature on Urdu (Hasan, 1949; Zaidi, 1989). So far as the Urdu literature is concerned, the impact of Arabic literature on Urdu is not only strong, it has sustained dominance as well. It is not only in the domain of beliefs and philosophy that Urdu has benefited from the richness of the Arabic language, rather Arabic has influenced the very core of Urdu grammar. It is worth mentioning here that the Urdu not only has a direct link with Arabic, but Persian also serves as a strong link between the two. The contribution of these two dominant languages of West Asia, i.e. Arabic and Persian, to Urdu is so deep and powerful that Urdu would perhaps lose its existence without them. In building its vocabulary, Urdu is dependent on Arabic and Persian to a great extent, though, during the post-independence period, as Zaidi (1989) emphasizes, “Perso-Arabic influence is being reduced day by day and Sanskritized Hindi is influencing Urdu more and more”. (p. 102)

II. STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

It is commonly believed that grammar serves as the foundation of a language. The Urdu grammar has borrowed a few, but valuable classical structural rules from Arabic. One of these rules is the adoption of Arabic plurals by the Urdu

language, which is the focus of the present paper. Many linguists studied Arabic plurals in Urdu by only providing lists of those plurals as their aims of such studies were to prescribe and discuss the grammatical structure of the Urdu language. Of these researchers are Beg (1988, 2000), Platts (1990), and Schmidt (1999), with Platts' account being the most comprehensive one. I would argue that this paper is the first to deal with Arabic plurals in Urdu in terms of grammatical borrowing that is mediated by lexical borrowing.

In the literature on linguistic borrowing and contact linguistics, there is almost an anonymous agreement that despite the fact that grammatical borrowing is so rare, it does occur; some structural, syntactic and functional elements of the borrowing language may be incorporated into the structure of the recipient language (Haugen, 1950 & 1992; Mithun, 2007; Poplack, Sankoff, & Miller, 1988). This descriptive study, therefore, is an attempt to seek out more evidence to confirm this view. To achieve this aim, the pluralization process in the Urdu language, as a recipient language, is investigated.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW: GRAMMATICAL BORROWING VS. LEXICAL BORROWING

Linguistic borrowing, by definition, is the incorporation of foreign elements into the native language by the speakers of that language. The expression "foreign elements" here may either refer to the lexical items (vocabulary), grammatical particles or even to the syntactic rules that might be borrowed. So, based on the nature of materials borrowed, we have two types of borrowing: lexical and grammatical. Lexical borrowing is referred to as the integration into a recipient language of both form and meaning of a lexical item originating in another language, while grammatical borrowing involves the incorporation of foreign rules into a recipient language. It is a well-known fact that as the latter rarely occurs in a language contact situation, the former is the common practice (Appel & Muysken, 2005; Haugen, 1950 & 1992; Mithun, 2007; Poplack, et al., 1988; Weinreich, 1966; Winford 2003). Urdu has adopted a large number of lexical items from Arabic such as *qalam* 'a pen' (Ar. qalam), *kursi* 'a chair' (Ar. kursi), *tasvīr* 'a picture' (Ar. taṣwīr), *taqrībān* 'approximately' (Ar. taqrībān), *šauq* 'a hobby' (Ar. šawq), and so on. In this paper, I limit myself to the notion of grammatical borrowing for which the evidence is drawn from Urdu as a recipient language.

The adoption of structural elements (e.g. prepositions, inflectional affixes, etc.) and syntactic rules has been among the most resistant features of language to contact-induced change. According to Weinreich (1966), "the fuller integrated (i.e. structurally coherent or bound) the morpheme, the less likelihood of its transfer". (p.35) Languages vary considerably in their receptivity of grammatical borrowing. In incorporating English loans in its lexicon, Modern Standard Arabic, for example, shows a great resistance against such kind of borrowing (Al-Athwary 2004). Arabic never borrows verbs directly and there is no room at all for function words like pronouns, prepositions or any structural rules. The overwhelming majority of the borrowed materials is only nouns (Al-Athwary, 2004, pp. 126-29). On the contrary, other languages are found receptive to foreign grammatical rules to some extent. McCarthy (1985), for instance, notes "Arabic and Persian grammatical rules were brought into Turkish" (p. 13). Among others, McCarthy provides the example of Arabic endings for feminine gender and dual number, which had to be attached to Turkish adjectives to make them agree with the noun. Similarly, exotic relative clauses are argued to occur in such languages as Konkani, Turkish, Quebec French, and Bolivian Quechua from Kannada, Persian, English, and Spanish, respectively (Appel & Muysken 2005). On the whole, grammatical borrowing does occur but at the same time it is limited and rare. The scarcity of this kind of transfer is due to certain semantic and structural constraints. Semantically speaking, content words (nouns, verbs, etc.) have a clear link to cultural content whereas function items (like articles, prepositions, affixes, etc) do not. Among content forms nouns rank as the form with the most lexical content whose role is to extend the referential function of the language. Nouns are the only category to which reference of various new inventions, discoveries and concepts is essentially made. Structurally, Nouns are transferred as such because they are less integrated or less coherent in the structure of the recipient language than function words or even other content words, hence being more easily to be borrowed. In other words, nouns are said to cause fewer disturbances to the paradigmatic and syntagmatic coherence of the borrowing language.

In effect, Appel and Muysken (2005, pp. 154-62) suggest that there are five "scenarios" in which grammatical borrowing could potentially take place. They are repeated below for convenience:

- a) Through gradual convergence due to prolonged coexistence
- b) Through cultural influence and lexical borrowing
- c) Through second language learning
- d) Through relexification
- e) Through imitation of prestige patterns

Scenarios (a), (b) and partially (e) seem to be mainly responsible for the influence of Arabic and Persian as the languages of cultural and political superiority on Urdu since the Islamic conquest of the Indian subcontinent. During its historical development, Urdu has shown to be more inclined than any other languages to swallow foreign elements raw, so to speak, instead of preferring to translate them into some native equivalents. Therefore, it is through such rapid process of massive lexical borrowing, Perso-Arabic constructions like Arabic plurals have found their syntactic slots in the structure of the Urdu language. This transitive influence of lexical borrowing has been found operative cross-linguistically. Based on the intensity of contact, Thomason & Kaufman (1988), as cited in Nuckols (2003, pp. 109 -110), provide a similar account on possibilities of structural borrowing by devising a scale of five levels of intensity of

contact. They believe that the more intense the cultural pressure is, the higher the degree of the structural borrowing will be. During the Islamic rule in India, the subcontinent was intensively influenced by the Arabic culture and Arabic Language.

In the most interesting studies on grammatical borrowing, King (2000, 2002), in his analysis of English borrowings in Canadian French, argues for the centrality of lexical borrowing to grammatical change, i.e. contact-induced grammatical change is usually mediated by the lexicon. He further points out that small differences in the inventory and properties of borrowed lexical items account for a wide range of structural variation in the recipient language. King's view is supported by Winford (2003) who confirms that certain structural innovations in a recipient language appear to be mediated by lexical borrowing, and are therefore not clear cases of "pure" structural borrowing. Mithun (2007) adds the factor of "time" which affects the susceptibility to borrowing of grammatical structures. He concludes that "an appreciation of the diachronic dimension in studies of language contact permits to enlarge our view of the kinds of grammatical developments that can be attributed to contact" (p. 164). Mithun (2007) and Winford (2003), however, both agree that "direct" grammatical borrowing is only possible provided that the two languages involved are "typologically" very similar. Therefore, it can be concluded that the adoption of Arabic plurals in Urdu grammar is induced by lexical borrowing and there is no direct transfer of Arabic structures into Urdu due to the fact that Arabic and Urdu are typologically dissimilar languages.

In fact there are many works which are conducted on the issue of Arabic borrowings in Urdu. The most recent ones that the researcher has come across include (Ahmad 2011); (Khan & Alward 2011); and (Khan, Koka, & Anwar 2013). Using a relatively large corpus of Arabic loanwords, Ahmad (2011) is purely lexical, focusing on the semantics of such borrowings and analyzing them from a point of view of the theory of semantic fields. He comes out with eleven semantic domains of Arabic elements used in Urdu including the domains of religion, language and literature, society, medicine, education and politics. The data collected for the present study belong to almost all these domains. This indicates that Arabic loanwords are usually adopted in the literary/ written variety of the Urdu language. Similar to this study, though much smaller in corpus and scope, is the work conducted by Khan & Alward (2011). In addition to discussing briefly the lexical fields of Arabic loanwords in Urdu, the authors focus on the morphological aspects of these loans; they provide and illustrate a list of Arabic prefixes, suffixes and infixes in the morphology of Urdu. None of these aspects, however, is tackled in detail as the present paper does with the issue of Arabic plurals in Urdu. When exemplifying the plurality of some Arabic loans like *masajid* 'mosques', *mahāfil* 'gatherings', and *tarātib* 'arrangements' (p. 35), they claim that such plural nouns are formed by inserting the Arabic infix -ā- to the singular forms. This is not the case, however. What is involved here is a totally different process of plural formation. As will be discussed in the subsequent sections, the three Arabic plurals stated above are called broken plurals, and formed by following specific morphological pattern in Arabic. It is fəəlil in this case. As also another example from Urdu, the plural of the Arabic *ālim* is *aulama*; no infix is added here; it is formed by vowel change according to another morphological pattern, that is fuəalā?. Finally, (Khan, Koka, & Anwar 2013) is a sociolinguistic study which traces diachronically the Arabs' contact with the population of the Indian sub-continent and discusses the socio-cultural circumstances under which word-borrowing has taken place. Many of the points mentioned in (Khan & Alward 2011) are repeated, but a little bit elaborated here.

The present study differs from the studies reviewed above in that it deals with grammatical borrowing rather than lexical borrowing, focusing on one specific aspect of grammar, i.e. the Arabic plurals in Urdu. In doing so, it seeks a supporting evidence for grammatical borrowing which takes place through lexical borrowing.

IV. DATA COLLECTION AND METHODS

The data of the present study is a list of 175 Arabic plurals which are used in Urdu. The data have been collected from two online Urdu newspapers: the Daily Express (Pakistan) and the Daily Urdu Times (India) from the 15th to 30th of September 2014. The list of the 175 items was given to six native speakers of Urdu from both India and Pakistan. The informants were asked some questions in order to check and verify the pronunciation, meaning and plurality of these items. Their feedback to the list was so significant and helpful, especially in the verification of the transcription and lexical meaning of these loanwords (see Appendix A). In addition, the researcher draws on his own observations as a native speaker of Arabic.

The data collected include all types of Arabic plural, namely masculine sound plural (mas.SP), feminine sound plural (fem.SP) and broken plural (BP). With regard to BP, the patterns of Arabic BP found in Urdu are checked with the thirty-two basic Arabic patterns (the so-called ?awzān in Arabic) of BP stated in Wright (1995) in order to know which BP patterns, out of the thirty two, are in actual use in the grammar of Urdu. The whole data, therefore, are statistically analyzed and critically described in order to provide a clear-cut account of the phenomenon.

The concept of "morphological pattern", as a key-term in this paper, needs some elaboration. According to pattern-to-root morphology approach (Neme and Laporte, 2013, p. 222), a pattern is defined as "a template of characters surrounding the slots for the root letters" and "between and around the slots, patterns contain short vowels, and sometimes consonants or long vowels." In Arabic morphology, a distinction is usually made between two abstract terms: root and pattern. The root generally consists of three consonants and carries the core lexical meaning, while the word pattern contains vowels and conveys syntactic information. Thus, the Arabic BP *hijārah* 'stones' will consist of the root

/ħjr/ and the word pattern fiĕālah, where the letters f-ĕ-l- indicate the slots into which the root consonants map. Similarly, the pattern of Arabic PB sufūn ‘ships’ is fuĕul, the pattern of kawākib ‘planets’ is faĕālil, and so on. In the Arabic BP pattern system, the consonantal root is usually the trilateral f-ĕ-l- or the quadrilateral f-ĕ-l-l-. Both types of patterns are found in the data collected from Urdu, though the former is much larger in number than the latter.

V. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

A. Plural Formation in Arabic and Urdu

There are three numbers in Arabic: singular, dual and plural. Dual is usually formed by suffixing -ān to masculine and feminine singulars (e.g. walad ‘a boy’ waladān, bint ‘a girl’ bintān). Traditionally, Arab grammarians distinguish two types of plural formation: the sound plural (SP) and the broken plural (BP). SP is usually formed by suffixation to internally unchanged nominal stems. SP is either masculine marked by the suffix -ūn (murāsīl ‘a correspondent, reporter’ murāsīlūn) or feminine marked by the suffix -āt (ṭālibah ‘a female student’ ṭālibāt). BP, on the other hand, involves internal vowel manipulation and thus assumes various fixed morphological patterns as in the native nouns (kalb ‘a dog’ kilāb on the pattern fiĕāl, and walad ‘a boy’ ?awlād following the pattern ?afĕāl).

Modern Urdu, on the other hand, has two numbers: singular and plural. Broadly speaking, Urdu makes use of two kinds of plural, one is native and the other is borrowed. The former is related to the indigenous plural system commonly found in languages of the Indo-Aryan origin. In this system, the formation of plurals in the direct case depends on the termination and gender of the singular. The following plural markers are used: a) -∅ (zero morpheme): with masculine ending in a consonant, or the vowel ā, ū, or ī, (ghar ‘a house’ pl. ghar, motī ‘a pearl’ pl. motī, sahrā (Ar.) ‘a desert’ pl. sahrā), b) -e: with masculines ending in /ā, a/ (laṛkā ‘a boy’ pl. laṛke, parda (Per.) ‘a curtain’ pl. parde), c) -(y)ā with feminine ending in /ī/ (laṛkī ‘a girl’ pl. laṛkiyā, saxtī ‘a difficulty’ pl. saxtiyā), and d) -ĕ: with feminine ending in any sound rather than /ī/ (bahen ‘a sister’ pl. bahnĕ, kitāb (Ar.) ‘a book’ pl. kitābĕ). All these plural inflections are equally applicable to both native as well as foreign nouns, mainly those of Perso-Arabic origin.

The latter plural system used in Urdu, i.e. the borrowed one, is adopted from Arabic and Persian, with Arabic plurals being the most common. They will be discussed in the subsequent section.

B. Statistics of Arabic Plurals in Urdu

The data of 175 loanwords is analyzed statistically. The numerical data in Table (1) show that the overwhelming majority of Arabic plurals in Urdu belong to BP (85.7%), while SP (both mes. and fem.) represents only 14.3% of the data. This finding is very interesting. It explains how borrowing languages behave towards grammatical borrowing; when grammatical borrowing is inevitable, they tend to incorporate those aspects of lending language’s grammar which are received with less resistance on the part of the recipient language. In the process of forming plurals in Arabic, and as discussed in the earlier section, SP, which is considered the “regular” plural form, involves attaching certain suffixes to the singular noun, but BP, which is the irregular plural form, is formed by changing the internal structure of the singular nouns. The incorporation of the SP suffixes and using them productively to form plurals in Urdu seems very difficult. So, Urdu prefers to borrow BPs and their singulars through the process of lexical borrowing.

TABLE 1.
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF ARABIC PLURALS IN URDU

Type of plural	frequency	percentage
Mas. SP	8	04.6 %
Fem. SP	17	09.7%
BP	150	85.7%
Total	175	100%

Table (2) presents the 150 Arabic BPs used in Urdu. They are analyzed statistically in terms of the morphological patterns they follow in the process of plural formation. It is obvious that out of the thirty-two basic Arabic BP pattern, twenty of them are in use in Urdu. Seven of them are the most frequent; their frequency is ranging between 39 and 10 patterns in the collected data. The remaining thirteen patterns are less common; some of them, especially those which have only one or two examples in the data, are rare even in Arabic (McCarthy and Prince 1990, Wright 1995). There are three BPs attested in the data, but they don’t match with the 32 Arabic patterns, namely saḥāba ‘prophet Muhammad’s companions’, nās ‘people’, and aḡāni ‘songs’. In the same time, the BPs mudun and madāen, meaning ‘cities’ refer to one and the same stem, madīna ‘a city’. The same can be said about ḡilma and ḡilmān, meaning ‘boys’, which are two BPs of the singular ḡulām ‘a boy’. The twenty patterns of Arabic plurals attested in Urdu will be elaborated more shortly.

TABLE 2.
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF ARABIC BPS IN URDU BY PATTERNS

Pattern	fucala	faċāʔil	fawāʔil	ʔafāla	ʔafāl	fucāl	faċāl	faċāl	faċāla	fucul	faċāl	fīrāl	fucūl	ʔafāl	fīrāl	ʔafāla	fīrāl	faċala	fucala	fīrāla	TOTAL
Frequency	12	20	11	5	39	4	10	10	3	3	2	4	13	1	2	3	2	1	1	1	147
percentage	8.2	13.6	7.5	3.4	26.5	2.7	6.8	6.8	2.0	2.0	1.4	2.7	8.8	0.7	1.4	2.0	1.4	0.7	0.7	0.7	100%

C. The Analysis of Arabic Plurals in Urdu

Arabic plurals are very well-marked in Urdu. It is an obvious linguistic need and practice to express the ideas. As stated above, Arabic has the dual as well as the plural numbers, and plural is of two types SP and BP. Dual and SP are used in Urdu but they are not very frequent. Examples of the dual are *vāldain* ‘parents’ < *valid*, *kaunain* ‘the two worlds’ < *kaun*, and *jānibain* ‘two sides’ < *jānib*. SP or the so-called regular plural is formed either by attaching the Arabic suffix *-īn* to mas. singulars as in *nāzirīn* ‘beholders’ < *nāzīr*, and *mauminīn* ‘believers’ < *maumin* or by the suffix *-āt* to fem. singulars as in *taḥqīqāt* ‘researches’ < *taḥqīq*, and *maxlūqāt* ‘creatures’ < *maxlūq*. In case of dual and mas.SP, the suffixes added are always those of the Arabic accusative-genitive case; the nominative form, *-ān* (for dual) and *-ūn* (for mas.SP), don’t exist in Urdu.

Arabic mas.SP used in Urdu should be dealt with as purely lexical borrowings because they are very few and their occurrences are generally limited to literary or sophisticated styles. In less Arabicized styles the same word will be found with an Urdu plural suffix. Hence, the Arabic mas. Sp suffix *-īn* doesn’t have a significant grammatical status in Urdu structure. On the other hand, Arabic fem. SP suffix *-āt* is more common in written Urdu and in more sophisticated styles of spoken Urdu also. It is attached to Arabic loanwords of all sorts (including some to which it cannot be added in Arabic) and also to many purely Persian words: examples of adding *-āt* to Arabic loanwords in Urdu have been given above; examples of adding *-āt* to Arabic loanwords to which it cannot be added even in Arabic are *makanāt* ‘buildings, ‘houses’ and *savalāt* ‘questions’, in Arabic these plural forms are odd and not used and *ʔamākin/ʔamkinah* and *ʔasʔilah* are used instead, respectively; finally examples of adding *-āt* to purely Persian loanwords are *kaḡzāt* ‘papers’ and *begmāt* ‘ladies’.

As for BP, it is the most frequent Arabic plural form in Urdu. BPs in Arabic are formed by modifying the stem ((Neme and Laporte 20130), that is by changing the vowel pattern of the singular nouns and assume many morphological patterns or measures (ʔawzān). Wright (1995, pp.199-231) provides a complete list of thirty-two BP patterns in Standard Arabic (see Appendix B) including both those which are derived from trilateral as well as quadrilateral (or more) verbal roots. As the data show, twenty of these are in the actual use in modern Urdu, out of which only seven are very common and constitute day-to-day conversation and writing and thirteen are considered the less common ones. An account of these patterns adopted by Urdu are elaborated below.

1. The common patterns

TABLE 3.
THE COMMON PATTERNS OF ARABIC BP IN URDU

S. No.	Pattern	Examples of Arabic BP in Urdu	Singular form and gloss
1.	ʔafāal (39)	<i>axbār</i> <i>autān</i> <i>arbāb</i>	<i>xabar</i> ‘a piece of news’ <i>vatan</i> ‘a homeland’ <i>rab</i> ‘a lord’
2.	faċāʔil (20)	<i>rāsāel</i> <i>fāzāel</i> <i>dālāel</i>	<i>risāla</i> ‘a letter’ <i>fāzīla</i> ‘a virtue’ <i>dālīl</i> ‘a proof’
3.	fucūl (13)	<i>buhūr</i> <i>šuhūd</i> <i>sutūr</i>	<i>bāhar</i> ‘a sea’ <i>šāhid</i> ‘a witness’ <i>sātar</i> ‘a line’
4.	fucalāʔ (12)	<i>fūqara</i> <i>aulama</i> <i>hākama</i>	<i>fāqīr</i> ‘a poor’ <i>ālim</i> ‘a scholar’ <i>hākīm</i> ‘a wise man’
5.	fawāʔil (11)	<i>qavālib</i> <i>fāvaed</i> <i>hāvādis</i>	<i>qālib</i> ‘a pattern’ <i>fāeda</i> ‘an advantage’ <i>hādisa</i> ‘an accident’
6.	faċāʔil (10)	<i>šayātīn</i> <i>tāsvīr</i> <i>sultān</i>	<i>šaiṭān</i> ‘a Satan’ <i>tāsvīr</i> ‘a picture’ <i>sultān</i> ‘a sultan’
7.	faċāʔil (10)	<i>māqāsīd</i> <i>kāvākib</i> <i>mādrās</i>	<i>māqsad</i> ‘a purpose’ <i>kāvkab</i> ‘a planet’ <i>mādrasa</i> ‘a school’

2. The less common patterns

TABLE 4.
THE LESS COMMON PATTERNS OF ARABIC BP IN URDU

S. No.	Pattern	Examples of Arabic BP in Urdu	Singular form and gloss
8.	?afēilā? (5)	<i>ambiya</i> <i>aqrība</i>	<i>nabī</i> 'a prophet' <i>qarīb</i> 'a relative'
9.	fuccāl (4)	<i>kuffār</i> <i>aššāq</i>	<i>kāfir</i> 'an infidel' <i>āšiq</i> 'a lover'
10.	ficāl (4)	<i>riyāz</i> <i>jibāl</i>	<i>rauza</i> 'a garden' <i>jəbāl</i> 'a mountain'
11.	faēlilāh (3)	<i>asātiza</i>	<i>ustāz</i> 'a master, teacher'
12.	fusuul (3)	<i>kutub</i>	<i>kitāb</i> 'a book'
13.	faēlā (3)	<i>fatāwi</i>	<i>fatwa</i> 'a religious ruling'
14.	?afēilāh (3)	<i>amsila</i>	<i>māsāl</i> 'an example'
15.	fielān (2)	<i>sibyān</i>	<i>sabī</i> 'a boy'
16.	fiēal (2)	<i>qisas</i>	<i>qissa</i> 'a story'
17.	?afēul (1)	<i>ahruf</i>	<i>haraf</i> 'an alphabet letter'
18.	faēalāh (1)	<i>tālaba</i>	<i>tālib</i> 'a student'
19.	fuccalāh (1)	<i>qazāt</i>	<i>qāzi</i> 'a judge'
20.	fiēlāh (1)	<i>gilma</i>	<i>gūlām</i> 'a boy'

The existence of the twenty Arabic BP patterns in Urdu indicates the great grammatical influence of Arabic on this language. But, it is important to note that these patterns are only applied to Arabic loanwords which are in tens if not in hundreds. At the same time, many of Arabic borrowed nouns may be inflected for both Urdu and Arabic plural forms (e.g. *kitāb* 'a book' may be pluralized as *kutub* or as *kitābē*). Furthermore, some of Arabic plural patterns are treated as singulars and consequently assigned the native plural marker, as *aulama* 'religious scholars' becomes *aulama ā ashāb* 'companions' becomes *ashābō*, etc. The reason why Arabic BP forms are much more frequent than Arabic SP forms in Urdu can be explained as follows. As mentioned in the literature review above, the adoption of bound and structural morphemes has been among the most resistant features of language to contact-induced change. Unlike BP, the formation of SP involves the attachment of the bound morphemes *-īn* and *-āt* to singulars. So, the transfer of these plural suffixes into Urdu seems to be so difficult in comparison with BP forms which only involve change in the internal vowels of these forms, and hence emerging with lexical patterns rather than adding any suffixes. In this regard, Haugen (1950) notes, "in the lexicon, foreign patterns may predominate over the native, but the structural elements persist". (p. 225) So, Arabic BP patterns are borrowed along with their singulars and keep the singular-plural function within, at least, the circle of Arabic loanwords, while SP forms with the suffixes *-īn* and *-āt* remain as lexical borrowings since they have no organic function in the Urdu language.

BP patterns, like other Arabic loans in Urdu, undergo phonological adaptations so as to conform to the sound system of Urdu. It is well known that Arabic has a number of throaty and emphatic phonemes such as /ʔ/, /ε/, /ġ/, /ħ/, /x/, /q/, /ʃ/, /t̤/, /d̤/, and /z̤/, most of which are characteristic to Arabic and lack in other languages of the world. What is interesting here is that such Arabic sounds appear in their original form only in the Urdu script (i.e. the written form) since Urdu has adopted the Perso-Arabic writing system. However, almost all Arabic loanwords together with Arabic plurals used in this paper are transcribed according to their spoken form, not as they are used in the written form of the language. In the spoken form, they are pronounced differently. They are adapted in the following way (examples given below are only from the collected data of BP):

- /d̤/, /z̤/, and /ð/ become homophonous and are pronounced as /z/, e.g. *agrāz* 'purposes' (Ar. *agrād̤*), *nāzirīn* 'beholders' (Ar. *nāzirīn*), and *zunūb* 'sins' (Ar. *ḍunūb*); note that *nāzirīn* is an example of SP; it is used here because no BP containing Arabic /z̤/ is attested in the data.

- /ʃ/, and /θ/ become homophonous and are pronounced as /s/, e.g. *tasāvīr* 'pictures' (Ar. *taṣāwīr*), and *amsila* 'examples' (Ar. *amṡilah*).

- /ʔ/ and /ε/ become homophonous and are pronounced as /a/, e.g. *axbār* 'news' (Ar. *?axbār*), and *aššāq* 'lovers' (Ar. *euššāq*)

- /w/ is pronounced as /v/, e.g. *vāsāeq* 'documents' (Ar. *waṡāʔiq*), and *jəvanib* 'sides' (Ar. *jawānib*).

- /ħ/ is pronounced as /h/, e.g. *haqqāeq* 'facts' (Ar. *ḥaqqāʔiq*)

- /t̤/ is pronounced as /t/, e.g. *tālaba* 'students' (Ar. *ṡalabah*)

The Arabic uvular /ġ/, /x/, and /q/, which are not usually used in the languages and dialects spoken in Indian subcontinent, are maintained in Urdu as confirmed by the informants. The original pronunciation of the ten Arabic sounds stated above is, however, maintained to some extent by highly educated speakers of Urdu and those who are bilingual in Arabic to show prestige and social status. For example, the pharyngeal /ε/ and the emphatics /t̤/ and /ʃ/ are obviously uttered in words like *eulama* and *ṡalāʔīn* instead of pronouncing them as *aulama* and *salāʔīn*.

As for the morphological make up of the patterns (1-20) above, there are some morphophonemic alterations that may take place as shown below:

- In patterns 4 & 8: These patterns originally end with a glottal stop /ʔ/ in Arabic, i.e. fuʕalāʔ and ʔafʕilāʔ. In Urdu, the final glottal stop of the Arabic patterns is not pronounced for the sake of linguistic simplification, though Urdu has the hamza grapheme in its alphabet.

- In patterns 11, 14, 18, and 20, the Arabic tā marbūṭah (which is realized as the glottal -h in pause forms and as -t in connected speech) is omitted. In pattern 19, however, tā marbūṭah is retained in *qəzāt* (< Ar. quḏāh ‘judges’) in the form of -t. In other contexts also, the Arabic tā marbūṭah, when occurred in Urdu, is always realized as -t, not as -h, even in the pause forms as in *jannat* ‘paradise’ (Ar. jannah), *kisbat* ‘dress’ (Ar. kiswah), *mahabat* ‘love’ (Ar. mahabbah), etc.

- In pattern 13, faʕāla is modified into *faʕāli* in Urdu, so instead of fatāwa we get *fatāwi* (final a > i).

- All the above patterns of BP adopted from Arabic shown in Tables (3) and (4) are derived from Arabic “trilateral” verbal roots. Only three patterns (6, 7, and 11) are patterns of BPs that are based on “quadriliteral” or more roots.

Finally, it can be inferred that the use of Arabic plurals is usually typical of a formal and literary style. In fact, the intake of Arabic language and literature in Urdu is largely of religious (Islamic) nature. The Islamic scholars of India and Pakistan generally write in Urdu, but due to their religious content it becomes compulsory for them to use Arabic elements (including Arabic plurals) in great numbers as, for example, while mentioning and explaining a verse from the Holy Quran or a piece of the prophet’s saying. It could be unnatural if some of the Arabic elements are not used. In this regard, I would like to mention only one book in support of my claim and that is of course written by none other than a towering and a giant scholar of *Islamiyyaat* (Islamic studies), Abul Kalam Azaad. His book “*Tazkira*” contains Arabic elements quite frequently and delicately in a way that I do not think that anybody without the background of Arabic will be able to read. In a nutshell, it can be said that the plural of both natures (SP and BP) are mostly used by the Islamists and religious preachers as well as poets out of their poetical compulsion and necessities.

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper supports the view that, though being so scarce, the grammatical borrowing does occur. The evidence is drawn from the Urdu language where some significant Arabic structures are adopted. The case of Arabic plurals has been taken as an example. As the discussion has shown, the incorporation of plural rules of Arabic into Urdu plays an important role in plural formation in the language, particularly the use of Arabic BP patterns. However, it is worth mentioning that plural inflection is only restricted to those noun stems which have been already borrowed from Arabic. Still, the immense use of such Arabic plural patterns, though restricted to nouns of foreign origin, is a clear indication that the influence of Arabic language and literature is deeply rooted in both lexicon and structure of the Urdu language.

This attempt leaves the door open for further investigations within the framework of grammatical borrowing, especially in the domains of Arabic prepositions (*fī* ‘per’ as in *fī sadī* ‘per cent’ and *fī sāl* ‘per year’, etc.), Persian genitive case inflection (*hukūmat-e-pākistan* ‘the Government of Pakistan’, *jazba-e-dil* ‘emotion of the heart’, and *dīvān-e-xās* ‘private hall of audience’), and loan hybridization (Arabic words like *sāhib* ‘companion’ and *sadr* ‘chest, upper part’ are prefixed productively in the form of hybrid loanwords, e.g. *sāhib khana* ‘drawing room’, *sāhib takh* ‘place of sitting’, *sadr bazar* ‘main market’, *sadr board* ‘committee of heads’, etc; loan hybridization is also clearly manifested in the prefixation of the Arabic negative marker *bila* to Urdu words like *bilazarūrat* ‘unnecessarily’ and *bilachuk* ‘unmistakably’).

APPENDIX A

The following is a list of 175 Arabic plurals used in the Urdu language which have been collected from two online Urdu newspapers: the Daily Express (Pakistan) and the Daily Urdu Times (India) from the 15th to 30th of September 2014. The loanword data are presented alphabetically in Urdu script along with their phonetic transcription in Roman characters. A gloss of their meaning in English is also provided.

ائمة <i>aema</i> 'imams' آباء <i>abā</i> 'fathers' ابرار <i>abrār</i> 'pious believers' أبطال <i>abtāl</i> 'heroes' أبعاد <i>abād</i> 'dimensions' أبواب <i>abvāb</i> 'doors' آثار <i>asār</i> 'ruins' اجناس <i>ajnās</i> 'races' احاديث <i>ahādīs</i> 'talks' احباب <i>ahbāb</i> 'sweet hearts' احرف <i>ahraf</i> 'alphabets' احكام <i>ahkā</i> 'judgments' اخبار <i>axbār</i> 'news' ادوار <i>advār</i> 'eras' ادوية <i>advia</i> 'drugs' انكياء <i>azkia</i> 'smart people' آراء <i>arā</i> 'opinions' ارباب <i>arbāb</i> 'lords' أزواج <i>azvāj</i> 'pairs/ spouses' اساتذة <i>asātiza</i> 'instructors' اسانيد <i>asānid</i> 'references' اسرار <i>isrār</i> 'secrets' اشعار <i>asār</i> 'poems' اصحاب <i>ashāb</i> 'friends' اصول <i>asūl</i> 'principles' اضداد <i>azdād</i> 'opposing forces' اطراف <i>atrāf</i> 'sides/ parties' اطفال <i>afṭāl</i> 'children' اعوان <i>avān</i> 'assistants' اغاني <i>agāni</i> 'songs' اغراض <i>agrāz</i> 'purposes' اغنياء <i>agnia</i> 'rich people' آفت <i>āfāt</i> 'pests' افراد <i>āfrād</i> 'individuals' افعال <i>afāl</i> 'actions, verbs' افواج <i>afvāj</i> 'groups of army' افواه <i>afvah</i> 'mouths' اقارب <i>aqāreb</i> 'relatives' اقدار <i>aqdār</i> 'fates' اقدام <i>aqdām</i> 'feet' اقرباء <i>aqriba</i> 'relatives' اقوال <i>aqvāl</i> 'sayings' اقوام <i>aqvām</i> 'nations' اكابر <i>akāber</i> 'elite' آلام <i>alām</i> 'pains' امثلة <i>amsila</i> 'examples'	امراء <i>amara</i> 'princes' انبياء <i>ambia</i> 'prophets' اوتال <i>avāel</i> 'ancestors' اوراق <i>aurāk</i> 'papers' اوزار <i>auzār</i> 'sins' اوزان <i>auzān</i> 'weights' اوطان <i>autān</i> 'homelands' اوقات <i>auqāt</i> 'times' اوقاف <i>auqāf</i> 'endowments' اولاد <i>aulād</i> 'kids' اولياء <i>aulia</i> 'guardians of God' اوهام <i>auhām</i> 'illusions' بحور <i>buhūr</i> 'seas' بصائر <i>bāsāer</i> 'insights' تجار <i>tajār</i> 'merchants' تحقيقات <i>tahqīqāt</i> 'investigations' تحويلات <i>tahvilāt</i> 'transfers' تحيات <i>tahiyāt</i> 'greetings' تصاوير <i>tasāvīr</i> 'pictures' تفاسير <i>tafāsīr</i> 'interpretations' تفاصيل <i>tafāsīl</i> 'details' تكاليف <i>takalīf</i> 'pains/ costs' تواريخ <i>tāvārīx</i> 'dates' جبال <i>jābāl</i> 'mountains' جوارح <i>jāvarih</i> 'raptors' جوانب <i>jōvanib</i> 'sides' جواهر <i>jāvahir</i> 'jewels' حدائق <i>hadāeq</i> 'gardens' حروب <i>hurūb</i> 'wars' حصص <i>hāsas</i> 'shares' حقائق <i>haqāeq</i> 'facts' حقوق <i>haqūq</i> 'rights' حكام <i>hakām</i> 'rulers' حكماة <i>hakama</i> 'wise men' حوادث <i>havadis</i> 'accidents' خدمات <i>xidmāt</i> 'services' خصائل <i>xāsāel</i> 'features' خلفاء <i>xulafa</i> 'caliphs' خنازير <i>xanāzīr</i> 'pigs' خيام <i>xayām</i> 'tents' دفاتر <i>dāfātīr</i> 'notebooks' دلائل <i>dālāel</i> 'evidences' ذرات <i>zarāt</i> 'atoms' ذنوب <i>zunūb</i> 'sins' رسل <i>rusul</i> 'messengers' رسائل <i>rāsāel</i> 'messages'	رؤساء <i>ruasa</i> 'presidents' روابط <i>rāvābit</i> 'connections' رياض <i>riyāz</i> 'gardens' زعماء <i>zuama</i> 'leaders' سامعين <i>sāmīn</i> 'listeners' سطور <i>sutūr</i> 'lines' سلاطين <i>sālātīn</i> 'sultans' سوالات <i>səvalāt</i> 'questions' شرائط <i>šarāet</i> 'conditions' شرفاء <i>šurafa</i> 'noble people' شركاء <i>šuraka</i> 'partners' شروح <i>šuruh</i> 'explanations' شمائل <i>šamāel</i> 'features' شهود <i>šahūd</i> 'eye-witnesses' شياطين <i>šayātīn</i> 'devils' صبيان <i>sibyān</i> 'boys' صحابه <i>sahāba</i> 'companions' صدقات <i>sədaqāt</i> 'charities' صفحات <i>səfahāt</i> 'pages' صلوات <i>səlavāt</i> 'prayers' طلبة <i>təlabā</i> 'students' عزائم <i>azāem</i> 'determinations' عساكر <i>asākīr</i> 'soldiers' عشاق <i>aššāq</i> 'lovers' عضلات <i>azlāt</i> 'muscles' علماء <i>aulama</i> 'scholars' علوم <i>ulūm</i> 'sciences' غلمان <i>gilman</i> 'boys' غلمة <i>gilma</i> 'boys' فتاوى <i>fātāva</i> 'fatwas' فرائض <i>fōrāez</i> 'ordinances' فصحاء <i>fəshāh</i> 'eloquent speakers' فصول <i>fusūl</i> 'seasons/ chapters' فضائل <i>fāzāel</i> 'virtues' فقراء <i>fukara</i> 'poor people' فقهاء <i>fuqaha</i> 'jurists of Islam' فلاسفة <i>fālāsifa</i> 'philosophers' فنون <i>fumūn</i> 'arts' فهارس <i>fəhāris</i> 'contents' فوائد <i>fāvāed</i> 'benefits' فواحش <i>fāvāhīš</i> 'obscenities' قبائل <i>qəbāel</i> 'tribes' قصص <i>qisas</i> 'stories' قضاة <i>qəzāh</i> 'judges' قضايا <i>qəzāya</i> 'issues' قطع <i>qəta</i> 'pieces'	قواعد <i>qāvāid</i> 'rules' قوالب <i>qāvālib</i> 'templates' قوانين <i>qāvānīn</i> 'laws' قيود <i>qiyūd</i> 'restrictions' كائنات <i>kaenāt</i> 'the world' كبائر <i>kəbāer</i> 'deadly sins' كتب <i>kutub</i> 'books' كرام <i>kirām</i> 'generous people' كفار <i>kuffār</i> 'atheist' كواكب <i>kəvākīb</i> 'planets' قناديل <i>qanādīl</i> 'lamps' لطائف <i>lətāef</i> 'nice jokes' لواحق <i>lavāhiq</i> 'appendices' لوازمات <i>lavazimāt</i> 'needs' مجاهدين <i>məjāhidīn</i> 'jihadists' مخلوقات <i>məxluqāt</i> 'creatures' مدارس <i>mādāris</i> 'schools' مدائن <i>mədəen</i> 'cities' مدن <i>mudun</i> 'cities' مراجع <i>mərāja</i> 'references' مراحل <i>mārāhil</i> 'stages' مسائل <i>māsāel</i> 'issues' مساجد <i>māsājīd</i> 'mosques' مسلمين <i>muslimīn</i> 'Muslims' مشايخ <i>māšāhīx</i> 'sheikhs' مشاهير <i>māšāhīr</i> 'celebrities' مفردات <i>māfradāt</i> 'vocabulary' مقاصد <i>məqāsīd</i> 'intentions' مكانات <i>məkanāt</i> 'places' ملائكة <i>mālāeka</i> 'angels' مواصلات <i>māvāsəlāt</i> 'telecom.' مؤمنين <i>muminīn</i> 'believers' ناس <i>nās</i> 'people' ناظرين <i>nāzirīn</i> 'bholders' نواقض <i>nəvāqīz</i> 'nullifiers' وثائق <i>vāsāeq</i> 'documents' وزراء <i>vazara</i> 'ministers'
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APPENDIX B

The following list is the 32 patterns of BP as used in Arabic adopted with examples from Wright (1995). All patterns are derived from three radicals (consonants) except the last three patterns which are derived from quadrilateral or more radicals. Patterns in bold represent those 20 forms used in the Urdu language.

PATTERN	SINGULAR	PLURAL
fūcal	qubbah 'a dome'	qubab
fūel	?aşfar 'yellow'	şufr
fūcul	safīna 'a ship'	şufun
fīcal	xaymah 'a tent'	xiyam
fīcāl	bahr 'a sea'	biḥār
fūcūl	jayş 'a military force'	juyūş
fūccal	sājid 'prostrating oneself'	sujjad
fūccāl	ḥākīm 'a judge'	hukkām
faecalāh	sāḥir 'a conjuror'	saḥarah
fūcālāh	jāni 'a sinner'	junāh
fīcalāh	ḍik 'a cock'	diyakah
fīcālāh	fata 'a youth'	fityah
?afeul	lisān 'a tongue'	?alsun
?afeāl	ʿīd 'a festival'	?aeyād
?afeilāh	zamān 'time'	?azminah
fawācīl	nādirah 'a joke'	nawādir
faḥāʿil	risālah 'a letter, massage'	rasāʿil
fīcālān	jār 'a neighbour'	jīrān
fūcālān	balad 'a country'	buldān
fūcālāʿ?	?amīr 'a prince'	?umarā
?afeilāʿ?	nabī 'a prophet'	?anbiyā
fācāla	qatīl 'a slain'	qatla
fācāl	Layl 'a night'	layāl
faḥāla	fatwa 'a judicial opinion/ fatwa'	fatāwā
fācāl	ʿabd 'a slave'	ʿabīd
fūcūlah	ʿamm 'an uncle'	ʿumūmah
fīcālāh	ḥajar 'a stone'	ḥijārah
faecal	xādīm 'a servant'	xadam
fāel	şāḥib 'a companion'	şāḥb
faḥālīl	kawkab 'a planet'	kawākib
faḥālīl	şulṭān 'a sultan'	şalāṭīn
faḥālīlah	mulhid 'a heretic'	malāḥidah

APPENDIX C

In transliterating Arabic forms, the following reading conventions are used:

ʔ	glottal stop
ħ	voiceless pharyngeal fricative
x	voiceless uvular fricative
ʃ	emphatic voiceless alveolar fricative
t̤	emphatic voiceless denti-alveolar plosive
d̤	emphatic voiced denti-alveolar plosive
z̤	emphatic voiced interdental fricative
g	voiced uvular fricative
ɛ	voiced pharyngeal fricative
q	voiceless uvular plosive

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A Sociocultural Perspective on Everyday Interactions Stressing Grammatical vs. Communicative Competence: The Case of Iranian Taxi-discussions

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Abstract—Conversation analysis as a branch of the vast field of discourse studies, aims to show the structure and the process of social interaction between people in any genre of conversation. This aim is traced in this study as well. This study focuses on Dell Hymes' idea on the notion of communicative competence which is going beyond the structural linguistic properties of language. The purpose of this study is to make a link between communicative competence and sociocultural dimensions of language, which has a determining role in building up interlocutors' shared ground and enabling a course of communication to take place. For this purpose, a case of Iranian taxi discussions is selected. The conversational codes are identified and the reason why a specific code occurred is provided according to the contexts of that taxi discussion (the context is provided by the narrator's detailed description of the detail about that situation and condition). This was a discussion that interlocutors opposed each others' ideas; therefore, the most frequent code was FTA which occurred 6 times.

Index Terms—conversation analysis, communicative competence, sociocultural dimension, Iranian taxi-discussion, background knowledge

I. INTRODUCTION

Language comprises many components of which grammar consists a part and which brings with itself an array of discussions who admit, reject, or modify the previous discussions. One of the prominent figures theorizing on grammar and grammatical competence is Chomsky. He believed that just as physics aims to determine exactly the class of physical processes, and biology the class of biological processes, it was the responsibility of a linguist to bring about 'a precise specification of the class of formalized grammars' (Chomsky, 1962, p. 534). Thus grammatical competence was assumed to be enough for the needs of individuals in every day speech and interactions. This is in contrast with what Hymes believed about socially in/appropriateness of un/grammatical utterances. She stressed that an utterance may be ungrammatical but socially appropriate; and also it may be grammatical but socially inappropriate (Hymes, 1972b, 1989).

The term communicative competence was coined by Dell Hymes in 1966, who aimed to stand against the inadequate notions of competence and performance, formerly coined and introduced by Chomsky's (1965). In his book *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*, Chomsky (1965) makes a distinction between competence and performance. In his words, competence refers to the whole knowledge individuals possess in a completely homogenous society. Such an underlying knowledge enables a language user to produce and comprehend an infinite set of sentences out of a set of infinite set of rules. This is justified by Chomsky's cognitive ideas of the innate grammar and the language acquisition device (LAD) that is within the brain of every human infant. Performance, on the other hand, is concerned with the process of applying the underlying knowledge to the actual language use. From these two definitions, it seems that Chomsky obviously equates the term competence with knowledge, and separates it from socio-cultural features. Furthermore, he considers the term "competence" as an absolute quality. That is to say, a static concept that characterizes individuals, and which cannot be compared with another person's competence (as cited in Taylor, 1986).

Hymes criticized Chomsky's definition of linguistic competence. She justified her new ideology by explaining the lack that a child might have when s/he learns the whole grammar with no awareness of social behavior and norms; accordingly Hymes put it: 'a child from whom any and all the grammatical sentences of a language might come with equal likelihood would be a social monster. Within the social matrix in which it acquires a system of grammar, a child acquires also a system of its use' (Hymes, 1974, p. 75).

Chomskyans believe that humans' capacity for acquiring linguistic competence is something innate and it just happens when they are born; communicative competence, however, is not innate but it is something which is learned and is thus more flexible. This shift from grammar to communicative competence stresses the inability of grammatical/linguistic competence in establishing appropriate interactions among individuals in a society. Whereas grammatical competence ignores the sociocultural as well as contextual factors which are vital to communication among people, communicative competence encompasses such factors. Accordingly, Hymes argues:

...that the study of language must concern itself with describing and analyzing the ability of the native speakers to use language for communication in real situations (communicative competence) rather than limiting itself to describing the potential ability of the ideal speaker/listener to produce grammatically correct sentences (linguistic competence). Speakers of a language in particular communities are able to communicate with each other in a manner which is not only correct but also appropriate to the sociocultural context. This ability involves a shared knowledge of the linguistic code as well as of the socio-cultural rules, norms and values which guide the conduct and interpretation of speech and other channels of communication in a community ... [T]he ethnography of communication ... is concerned with the questions of what a person knows about appropriate patterns of language use in his or her community and how he or she learns about it. (Farah, 1998, p. 125, as cited in Johnstone and Marcellino, 2010, p. 4)

From this quotation, Hymes' emphasis on a shared background knowledge for communication among individuals becomes evident. What shapes this background knowledge, based on the above quotation, is considered to be a shared knowledge of the linguistic code, contextual clues, the socio-cultural rules, as well as specific norms and values. Every individual, who is to establish an appropriate and non-offending communication have to be aware of the appropriate patterns within a specific community which has its specific sociocultural rules and patterns.

Speech does not occur alone and out of context, but it occurs in a context. Hymes, does not separate speech from sociological and cultural features of language. The importance of sociolinguistic elements of language is because they are important in the quality of the meaning which is created by the very words and verbs (which are the linguistic aspect of language). So the frame Hymes offers assign equal importance to both aspects of speech.

Conversation analysis (CA) as a branch of discourse studies, is a way which enables researchers to investigate the structure and social interaction processes among people. Per äkyl ähttp (n.d.) explains that CA approaches not only focus on talk, but also brings in focus all the nonverbal factors of interaction in its domain. In CA studies, the data may consist of videos or audio recordings which show a naturally occurring interaction (Per äkyl ähttp, n.d.). From CA perspectives, the social actions of humans are to large extents structured and organized. When interacting, the interlocutors have to obey the rules and conventions that make their speech meaningful to the other party. According to Sacks et al. (1974) there are some rules concerning turn taking in conversations: one *turn constructional unit* (that is TCU, smallest amount of talk that is counted as a turn when two interlocutors are talking in a conversation context). The interlocutors of a conversation aim to complete a TCU in *transition-relevance place* (TRP, where speakers change their turns). Speakers sometimes self-select turns, which occurs when a current speaker does not select or permit the other party to talk. In such cases, participant can *self-select* at the TRP. The specification of these simple rules gives useful insights on how to analyze social interactions. Drew and Heritage assert many institutional settings involve specific applications of these rules (1992).

Discourse analysis can be divided into five categories as far as method is concerned, and Wu (2010) specifies these categories as structural analysis, cognitive analysis, social cultural analysis, critical analysis and synthetic analysis (Wu, 2010). Discourse is regarded as an interactional activity by social cultural analysis; also the social function of language is emphasized in this field (ibid.). This method, Wu asserts, besides analyzing word and sentence form and meaning, analyzes social and cultural factors related to discourse; this method is rooted on the conception that an individual within a society wants both to transfer information, express ideologies or thoughts and to engage in specific social activities with other individuals in different social settings. Wu continues that discourse analysis mainly focuses on aspects of form, meaning, interaction and cognition, whereas social cultural analysis highlights the role of context. The importance of contexts is underlined in Wu's expressions on this issue. He specifies that on differing levels of discourse, there are degrees of social features related to the participants in a conversation which can be accounted as a crucial factor in the formation of the context in which a conversation takes place. Such factors are gender, classes, ethnics, age, and social status, etc. Wu pinpoints to the relationship between discourse and context and believes it is a dialectical one. He asserts that discourse is not only under the effect of context, but also influences, establishes or transforms context (ibid.).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Sociocultural research is not a pure discipline, but it make connections with other aspects like communication, thinking and learning, and assumes them to be interrelated processed which are formed by culture. Human activity is possible and that is because of the shared knowledge among individuals which enables them to construct understandings of this shared knowledge and experience. The origins of sociocultural and shared knowledge of individuals can be found in the work of the Russian psychologist Vygotsky (e.g. 1978). Mercer pinpoints the fact that when individuals work together, they do not only interact, but they inter-think (2000). There are some studies done by a number of sociocultural researchers who aim to show that for fulfilling a common task, people use language to combine

their thoughts and ‘intellectual resources’ (as Mercer, 2004 cites) in a specific situation. In similar veins, Mercer points to studies done in such perspectives such as Middleton and Edwards (1990), who put ‘collective remembering’ under investigation; to Elbers (1994), who studied ‘children’s play’; and also to O’Connor and Michaels (1996) who scrutinized ‘classroom group discussions’ (In Mercer, 2004, p. 139). In all these studies the process of joint intellectual activity is stressed.

Mercer (2004) explains that studies of joint knowledge construction can familiarize us about the inherent features of spoken language since such cooperative knowledge building is a crucial mandatory requisite in every conversational interaction. Conversations are built on a shared knowledge and it encompasses the formation of shared mutual understanding.

III. DATA

The data consists of a conversation among two individuals in a taxi. Taxis, in Iranian context, are places where rich natural conversations could be recorded. Adhering to ethical issues, the interlocutors remain anonymous. This data is recorded by the present researchers and then transcribed meticulously. For analyzing the data, this conversation was read carefully so that the conversational codes are identified; then, the pertaining extracts were chosen and the relevant codes are elaborated on in more details.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

This section is devoted to the analysis and detailed discussion of the extracts of the taxi-conversation. All the codes, along with their frequency of occurrence will be illustrated in the following table (Table I.). Then, the extracts in which these codes are identified, will be presented. An extract might have several codes within itself, all of which will be explained in details.

TABLE I.
FREQUENCY OF THE CONVERSATION CODES

code	frequency	code	frequency
FTA (face threatening act)	6	TCU (Turn Constructional Units) violated	2
FSA (face saving act)	3	Attributed silence	1
Flouting Grice maxims: manner	1	Minimizing imposition	1
Adhering to Grice maxims: relevance	1	Hesitations/hedges	1
Flouting Grice maxims: informative	1	Self-selecting a turn	2
repeating	2	Floor-holding	2
Insertion sequence	2	Repair segment	2
Overlap	2	Dis-preferred second part	4
LMS (Local management system) violated	2	Sheer turn by turn violation	2
TRP (Transition relevance place) violated	2	interruption	2

As Table I. shows, the most frequent code is FTA, as a general code, with 6 times of occurrence, albeit it encompasses other specific codes like dis-preferred second part, LMS/TRP/TCU violations, etc. Since this conversation is a sort of argument between two individuals who had different/opposing views, the cooperative principle, which is manifested in Grice maxims, is weak, e.g. the dis-preferred second part in this short conversation allocates the number of ‘4’ to itself which is high considering the length of this conversation.

Extract 1.

Taxi-driver: My brother-in-law wanted to get a six-million-dollar loan, and he had to use his car as a bail. Poor he, now he has faced a problem and his car is being seized. **Some thieves are embezzling milliards** and no one is aware and nothing changes. **Now see how they’re giving him the runaround!**

The bold parts of this extract show a general strong FTA. In a process of objection to the present status of economy and the difficulties of life, the taxi driver starts and actually opens the course of conversation like this.

Extract 2.

Passenger: Good appetite to him.

This concise answer, is an evident case of dis-preferred second part or dis-preferred sequence. This answer is opposite to what the taxi driver has expected. In fact, he expected the passenger to comply with and accompany him in the conversation. Furthermore, it can be justified that there is an instance of flouting Gricean maxim of manner because this answer is somehow vague; that’s why it aroused the driver’s surprise. Also, there is no reason why the passenger answered like this in that context, because in such speech events passengers agree with what the driver says!

Extract 3.

Taxi-driver (looking with surprise): Good appetite to whom?

Passenger: Good appetite to the one who has embezzled 3000 milliard tomans.

Taxi-driver (with an angry sneering tone): Isn’t he your relative?

There are two instances of repetition in this very extract. I think it is because of the weird use of this phrase by the passenger. This repetition shows a kind of emphasis; the taxi driver wants to make sure his ears are not faulty! Thus, he asks the passenger by repeating the same words. The 2nd line of this extract, the passenger explains what he exactly

mean, so it can be considered as a repair segment since it clarifies the intentions and meanings behind the sentences. At the same time, this utterance can be considered a dis-preferred second part because it does not meet the expectations of the taxi driver. The last line is an FTA aiming to assert this idea that your relatives are thieves (refer to extract 1. for the word 'thief').

Extract 4.

Passenger: No, he isn't my relative. But he is one like these people, like you! Did he come from Mars to do the embezzlement? Or another bank manager who has become a head, is he from Uranus?

Taxi-driver: No, dear. They are people who are better than us. I have to go to the cooperative-shop for 3 days to buy a pair of tiers, then he has embezzled 3000 milliard tomans and he was dead cool.

The passenger repeats the word 'relative' to stress the fact that the taxi driver is false. Both in his guessing and his ideology. In fact, one reason of this repetition that comes to my mind is that the passenger aims to show the driver's simplistic attitudes. The two questions that are in this utterance can be analyzed as being insertion sequences where instead of a positive answer to a previously stated question, again a question functions as the answer.

Extract 5.

Passenger: Well, if you're not ok with that don't buy; don't buy tiers.

Taxi-driver (with a loud voice): why you're saying a cock and bull story, man? I have to buy; if I don't buy tiers, how should I work with this car?

This extract is the one in which many codes are identified. A dis-preferred second part is the passenger's answer, which in turn rises the taxi driver's anger who then loudly addresses the passenger. The two times repetition of the word 'don't buy' poses a significance. This significance will be clear when the conversation proceeds and it becomes evident that all the naggings of the taxi driver are in vain since he himself is accused of robbery and not being honest, exactly as the bosses and managers who have important roles in the government, a fact that the taxi driver is ignorant of. In the surface and not considering the rest of the conversation, the answer of passenger seems to be irrelevant, but in fact it is not. By this answer, the passenger wants to create a sort of implicature and make the driver curious about his words. That is why I called this 'flouting' of the maxim of relevance.

The words of the passenger become incomplete as this is shown by the three dot marks (...) and it seems that he is interrupted by the taxi driver in an overlap. This overlap is, of course, a case of objection. Here, the LMS, the TRP, as well as the TCU are all violated by the taxi driver. He is also successful in taking the floor from the passenger. His loud voice implies an FTA. But there is an FSA when he says: 'I have to buy' since he is giving reasons of why he buys tires. As there are two questions and one declarative sentence, I assumed this is another case of insertion sequence.

Extract 6.

Passenger: When you -a simple driver who does not have a say in this society- see it's raining and passenger have to get to their destinations as quickly as possible, instead of getting the usual lease, get the lease of an exclusive ride...

The taxi-driver interrupted him and said: Well, if you're not ok with that you could just not take this taxi.

What the passenger says is a dis-preferred second part because it causes the objection of the driver. This objection takes place in an overlap (because of what the narrator tells us: 'The taxi-driver interrupted him'). This can be seen as a case of interruption as well. The sheer turn by turn is violated because of this interruption. The TCU of the passenger is not complete because he was not allowed to complete his words because of the taxi driver's self-selecting turn strategy. Furthermore, the TRP is not managed well here, thus we can say all the instruments that lead to a good LMS are violated. LMS manipulation is therefore weak here.

Extract 7.

Passenger (calmly): You see? Now I have exactly the same situation with you when you were buying tiers for your car. You man, you think now that we've taken this taxi and are forced to pay a lease 3 times more than the usual lease, are satisfied with this? We have to take it. When you, as a simple usual citizen, are misusing the situation, what do you expect a bank manager who has in his hands an investment of million dollars? He is one like you, but in a bigger scale.

The taxi-driver had no choice and thus geared his looks on the steering wheel...

This extract can be analyzed considering the floor-holding techniques. Floor-holding and not letting other interlocutors interrupt you, needs delicate use of words as well as hiring good intonation patterns i.e. good rise and fall in pitch and intonation, and also stress. Of course there are a number of other factors which show you are to continue and say something important, these can be: connectors, asking rhetorical questions (which do not require an answer from listeners, but it is a kind of reinforcement to what you are saying). Three question forms are made and addressed to the driver, and 4 connectors are used to show that his words are still in flow and not ending. As it is clear from what the narrator says about the drivers' reaction, one can infer that this non-backchannelling is a case of attributed silence which, considering the context, is because the fact that the taxi driver finds the passenger's speech logical. Actually he is deprived of any reasoning therefore he cannot continue the discussion (or argument).

Extract 8.

The passenger, who by now, was the winner of this discussion, continued calmly: Robbery is robbery... of course I do not mean you. But honestly, how many of us do our responsibility perfectly, that we expect a bank manager does his responsibility perfectly? But when we don't feel any qualms in faults we do when doing our responsibilities, no one

becomes aware of that. But when a bank manager does such a thing everyone becomes aware. Dear fellow, you correct yourself, so, that bank manager doesn't dare do such a thing.

In that cold weather, the driver whose ears, by now, became red from embarrassment, said: well, what shall I say!

This extract is the continuation of the previous one, and that is why the techniques are similar, like the use of floor-holding strategies (asking rhetorical questions, use of connectors). But there is one difference and it is the FTA used in 'robbery is robbery', and the immediate FSA in the form of minimizing imposition technique that the passenger uses in: 'of course I don't mean you'. The taxi-driver's answer is mixed with a sort of hesitation or hedge like utterance which alludes to his acceptance of the passenger's words and reasons.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Focusing on the communicative sociocultural dimensions of everyday interactions, this study aimed to investigate and analyze a sample of such an interaction. This conversation could not go on as such if one of the interlocutors was not familiar with the social, cultural, economic, political and so many other aspects of an Iranian society. It was this shared background knowledge which made the conversation go. The conversation had not come to any conclusion if the interlocutors were not aware of how and what to say. Whereas some researchers like Middleton and Edwards (1990) tried to show the importance of interactions using a shared background knowledge by the participants in order to come to a common goal, this study showed that interactions sometimes are developed and proceeded in order to show and prove an opposing idea. Surprisingly, this is done by using the share background knowledge which is be the sociocultural status among other factors mentioned earlier. This dialogue was what Mercer (2000) calls 'inter-think'; This dialogue is a kind of inter-thinking because what is said in it is the product of mutual thinking and speaking, i.e. what one interlocutor said is not isolated from what another said. This inter-thinking creates a chain of speech which helps the dialogue or conversation go on, whether to come to a common idea or an opposing one. The whole process which leads the conversation go on, is said to be the result of this inter-thinking. Elbers (1994) and O'Connor and Michaels (1996) also stress the importance of class discussions and the joint construction of knowledge on the improvement of children's remembering. The concept of joint knowledge formation is what was also evident in the results of this study; because such joint knowledge-building, according to Mercer (2000) is an essential requirement of conversational interaction. The results of this study show no break-down in this instance of interaction and we see that this conversation, against all the FTAs, went on well till it reached a sort of agreement; though this agreement was not satisfactory for the other interlocutor (i.e. the taxi driver). In the present dialogue, context was crucial. Its role is so important that if one of the interlocutors were not familiar with the political, economic, and societal issues not only could not continue the conversation, but also could not understand what his partner is trying to convey. This is a sort of contextual support of which Mercer 2004, Gee and Green 1998 also talk. They admit that talk is a means to providing such contextual foundations which helps a shared understanding among interlocutors. What the present study has in common with the existing literature, is the importance of sociocultural aspects of language which effects the mutual understanding and the surviving of the interlocutors in this conversation; but this study differs in that it does not use this shared knowledge for coming to a wholehearted agreement. Instead, it uses the shared knowledge, along with the sociocultural dimensions to let the conversation go and more importantly to convince the other interlocutor an opposing but logical argument.

APPENDIX

The Persian extracts (1-8) are in this part:

Extract 1.

راننده تاکسی: برادر خانم یه وام 6 میلیون تومنی میخواست بگیره مجبور شد ماشینش رو بذاره به عنوان وثیقه. بنده خدا الان خورده به مشکل دارنند ماشینش رو مصادره می کنند. **یه عده دزد دارن تو این مملکت میلیارد میلیارد اختلاس می کنند** کسی هم خبردار نمی شه و آب از آب هم تکون نمی خوره اونوقت این جوون رو ببین **چجوری سر می دوونند!**

Extract 2.

مسافر: نوش جونش!

Extract 3.

راننده: (نگاه متعجب) نوش جون کی؟

مسافر: نوش جون کسی که 3000 میلیارد تومن خورده!

راننده: (با لحن عصبی آمیخته به تمسخر) نکنه اون بابا فامیل شما بوده؟

Extract 4.

مسافر: نه! فامیل من نبوده اما یکی بوده مثل همین مردم. مثل شما! مگه این یارو از مریخ اومده اختلاس کرده؟ یا اون مدیر بانک از اورانوس به ریاست رسیده بوده؟

راننده: نه آقا جان اونا از ما بهترن اند. من برای یک جفت لاستیک باید 3 روز برم تعاونی اون وقت اون 3000 میلیارد تومن رو خورده یه آبم روش!

Extract 5.

مسافر: خب آقا جان راضی نیستی نخر! لاستیک نخر...

راننده: (با صدای بلند) چرا نا مربوط میگی مرد حسابی؟ مجبورم بخرم! لاستیک نخرم چجوری با ماشین کار کنم؟

Extract 6.

مسافر: وقتی شما که دستت به هیچ جا بند نیست و به راننده عادی هستی وقتی می بینی بارندگی شده و مسافر مجبوره زود برسه به مقصد میای ماشین که باید تو خط کار کنه رو دربست می کنی...
راننده پرید وسط حرف طرف که: آقا راضی نبودی سوار نمی شدی!

Extract 7.

مسافر: (با خونسردی) می بینی؟ من الان دقیقاً حال تو رو دارم وقتی داشتی لاستیک ماشین می خریدی. مرد حسابی فکر کردی ما که الان سوار ماشین تو شدیم و 3 برابر کرایه رو داریم میدیم راضی هستیم؟ ما مجبوریم سوار شیم! وقتی تو به عنوان یه شهروند عادی اینجوری سو استفاده می کنی از مدیر بانک که میلیاردها تومن سرمایه زیر دستشه چه انتظاری داری؟ اون هم یکی مثل تو در مقیاس بالاتر.
راننده آچمز شده بود و سرش تو فرمون بود...

Extract 8.

مسافر که حالا کاملاً دست بالا رو داشت با خونسردی ادامه داد: دزدی دزدیه... البته منظورم با شما نیستا ولی خدا وکیل چقدر درصد از مردم ما اون کاری رو که بهشون سپرده شده رو خوب انجام می دن که انتظار دارند یه مدیر بانک کارش رو خوب انجام بده؟ منتها وقتی اونا وجدان کاری ندارند کسی بویی نمی بره اما گند کاری یه مدیر بانک رو همه می فهمند. برادر من تو خودت رو اصلاح کن تا اون مدیر بانک جرات همچین خلافی رو نداشته باشه...
راننده که گوشاش تو اون هوای سرد از شدت خجالت حسابی سرخ شده بود گفت: چی بگم والا!

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Power Struggle between the Adult and Child in *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*

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Abstract—Lewis Carroll portrays the struggle of power between the adult and child in *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* and displays a strong sympathy for the child Alice who is thrown into a mad and disorderly world of adults. Those adult figures are all anxious to dominate Alice and infantilize her. But the powerless child shares and asserts her power in the adult world. By describing Alice's struggle against the adult figures for power, Lewis Carroll exposes and challenges the power relationships of adult and child, and subverts the social conventions and binary opposition between the adult and the child.

Index Terms—*Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*, power struggle, adult, child

I. INTRODUCTION

Lewis Carroll's *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* remains as one of the greatest classic work not only for children but also for adults ever since its publication in 1865. The tale was originally told for the amusement of three Liddell girls, daughters of the Dean of Oxford College, where Carroll was teaching as a mathematics tutor. He wrote it down in memory of their fun on a boat trip, naming it *Alice's Adventures Underground* and presented it to Alice Liddell as a birthday gift. Later, he altered the title to the present one when he was preparing it for publication. Darton called the publication of this fantasy "the spiritual volcano of children's books." (Darton, 1932, p. 267) Unlike the heavily moralistic and didactic children's books of the time, the Alice book is famous for its playfulness. It is purely of entertainment, with no instruction or morality whatsoever. As noted by *The Oxford Companion to Fairy Tales*, it is "the first literary fairy tale for children with no moral purpose whatever. Alice moves in a dreamworld, remote from ordinary laws and principles" (Zipes, 2000, p.88) Carroll's Wonderland story "cleared away the dead wood in children's literature and marked the arrival of liberty of thought in children's books" (Carpenter, 1985, p. 68) Readers young and old have been especially fascinated by the little heroine Alice endowed with her numerous qualities. She inherits the typical femaleness of a Victorian woman such as politeness and good manners, yet she also displays features of a male hero like assertiveness and independence.

Ever since its publication, critics and researchers have attempted to analyze this baffling yet fascinating work from many different perspectives. Humphrey Carpenter rightly asserts that "*Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* and *Trough the Looking-Glass* are so well known that trying to re-examine them with a fresh eye is rather like attempting to make a new estimate of the Bible or Shakespeare." (Carpenter, 1985, p.57) Deeply influenced by the Romantic images of childhood, Lewis Carroll adores the innocent children especially little girls and holds them as ideal company. He finds himself often at his happiest in the company of children, talking to them happily and freely without any barrier or embarrassment he feels in an adult society as a poor stammerer. Carroll as an adult surely suffers in the adult society, but his inner and real self is finally free with children, for he becomes a child himself. There is always a power imbalance between the adults and children, as children are considered by the adult society as insufficient and in need of guidance to grow up and become socially acceptable. Different from many Victorian writers who exploited children's books as a means of dominating children, Lewis Carroll exposes and challenges the power relationships of adult/child. He portrays the struggle of power between the adult and child in *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* and displays a strong sympathy for the child Alice who is thrown into a mad and disorderly world of adults. By sending the child into an adult world, Lewis Carroll subverts the social conventions and binary opposition between the adult and the child.

II. DISCUSSION

In *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*, the heroine Alice follows a talking White Rabbit down a well, and enters a garden where she attends the Mad Hatter's tea party, a game of the Queen's croquet, and a trial of the Knave of Hearts. Almost all the figures that the child Alice encounters in Wonderland are adults, such as the White Rabbit, the Caterpillar, the Duchess, the Mad Hatter, the King and the Queen of Hearts. Very often, Alice comes face to face with those adults and she has to struggle with them for power. At a close look, those adult figures, no matter human or animal or card, are all anxious and try their best to dominate Alice and infantilize her. As a matter of fact, power is the primary source of their anxiety. Power and adulthood are closely related. We are more powerful than others because we are more mature or adult-like; the opposite is also true: we are more grown than others because we have more power. Tim Morris uses the term "juvenilize" to refer to the imposition of power over another person by placing one's self in the role of adult to

the person, who turns out to become implicitly a child (Morris, 2000). This happens again and again in Alice's encounters with them.

Children have been relegated to the position of the inferior, the weaker, and the other in western culture. Children should obey the wishes of adults and succumb to their authority. In the third chapter, after getting out of the Pool of Tears, Alice and the other animals discuss ways of getting them dry, but she can not reach any agreement with the Lory and they begin to argue. The Lory finally interrupts her with impatience: "I am older than you, and must know better". (Carroll, 1993, P.32) The Lory takes it for granted that Alice is just an immature child who is therefore quite unable to make any sensible suggestions. Finally, Alice and the other animals accept the proposal from the oldest animal among them the Dodo and have a running race. When the race is over, Dodo declares that everybody wins and he assigns Alice to give out the prizes. In despair, Alice pulls out a box of comfits out of her pocket and hands them around. Given that each person wins, at the request of the Mouse, Alice is forced to surrender her little thimble to the Dodo, who gives it back to her in a solemn prize-giving ceremony. Alice as a winner deserves to take the prize offered by the adults. However, she is forced to surrender her own personal belongings to the whole party, which is definitely unfair for the child. Moreover, sweets are closely connected with happiness, while the thimble is linked to the role of sewing and womanly duty. Alice is rather reluctant to be treated that way, but a child's concerns are never of too much weight to the adults. With no power of her own, Alice has to submit herself to the arrangement of the adults. The relationship between adults and children is never equal in real life, more so in the underground. The powerless child has to endure all the injustice in an adult-dominant world.

In the real world, the adults try to infantilize the child in order to remain in power. They will not allow a child to challenge their position or threaten their power. In Chapter five "Advice from a Caterpillar", Lewis Carroll mocks the adults' desire for power by portraying an arrogant caterpillar. When the creature meets Alice, he addresses Alice in a languid voice, demanding her to answer the question: "Who are you?" As Alice has undergone several physical transformations earlier that day and becomes very confused about her own identity, she cannot offer any explanation. Alice takes it for granted though that the Caterpillar is an infant, as he is the larva of a butterfly. If a butterfly marks the state of being an adult, then the Caterpillar must be a baby. Therefore, Alice believes that the Caterpillar can understand her feelings of confusion over her bodily changes: "When you have to turn into a chrysalis—you will someday, you know--and then after that into a butterfly, I should think you'll feel it a little queer, won't you?" (Carroll, 1993, P.50) However, the Caterpillar denies her bluntly, saying "Not a bit", and then continues to demand Alice to answer the mysterious and baffling question "Who are you". Only a child will be puzzled by the bodily change, as an adult who has experienced this process of growth will take it lightly. By demonstrating his difference, the Caterpillar takes hold of his dominant position. Alice would not like to be defeated so easily; she works up her courage to ask him back the same question. The unpleasant Caterpillar ignores this question and changes the subject of the conversation, advising Alice to keep her temper. Considering the fact that the Caterpillar is very bad-tempered himself, this advice demonstrates the hypocrisy of the adults. The Caterpillar's intention to control Alice is further shown in his demanding Alice to recite nursery rhymes. Alice obeys this order and when she finishes, she is criticized for being "wrong from beginning to the end". (Carroll, 1993, P.54)

The process of growing up involves a pursuit of knowledge. Alice is a very curious girl, but her desire for knowledge is never encouraged by the adult figures in Wonderland. Quite on the contrary, she is scorned for her questions and reduced to silence. In Chapter 6 "Pig and Pepper", Alice enters the Duchess' house, where she sees a large cat grinning from ear to ear. She asks the Duchess timidly why the cat grins like that. The Duchess answers that it's a Cheshire cat, adding a final word "Pig". "She said that word with such sudden violence that Alice quite jumped". (Carroll, 1993, P.62) "Pig" is a synonym of "fool" and "idiot", a most scornful and insulting term used to address to a child, which causes much alarm in Alice. Alice is attacked as being a fool for asking questions. When the discouraged Alice admits that she does not know cats can grin, the Duchess replies that "You don't know much, and that's a fact." (Carroll, 1993, P.63) In the eyes of the adults, the child is ignorant. The innocence of the child lies with his/her ignorance. The child should remain that way and never venture to ask stupid questions, especially when that question challenges the position of the adult as the powerful. In Chapter 7 "A Mad Tea-Party", Alice encounters three adult figures engaged in a tea-party: the March Hare, the Hatter and the Dormouse. Alice wants to join them, but when they see her coming, they cry out: "No room! No room!" in spite of the fact that the table is a large one. Alice is indignant by their behavior, and sits down in a large armchair at one end of the table. When Alice sees these creatures wasting their time asking riddles with no answers, she asks them questions, which is evaded by the March Hare: "Suppose we change this subject." (Carroll, 1993, P.75) The Dormouse then tells a story of three little girls living at the bottom of a treacle-well, which quite amazes Alice and prompts her to ask more questions. As a matter of fact, Alice begins to question the validity of the story, for she believes there is no such thing and utters her doubts:

'There's no such thing!' Alice was beginning very angrily, but the Hatter and the March Hare went 'Sh! sh!' and the Dormouse sulkily remarked, 'If you can't be civil, you'd better finish the story for yourself.' (Carroll, 1993, P.76)

They attempt to silence her to obedience, yet the curious Alice would not be silenced. She continues to ask more questions, expressing her own ideas and thoughts, and continued to be interrupted and scorned by the adult figures. The Hatter even calls her "stupid" in the same way that she is called a pig by the Duchess. They ask her questions, but interrupt her again before she answers:

‘Really, now you ask me,’ said Alice, very much confused, ‘I don’t think—’

‘Then you shouldn’t talk,’ said the Hatter. (Carroll, 1993, P.77)

Alice can not bear this piece of rudeness and she gets up in great disgust and walks off. They take no notice of her leaving, not caring about her at all. The adults seem to be happy to get rid of a child with many questions.

The same thing happens again in Chapter 9 “the Mock Turtle’s Story”. The Mock Turtle who tells his story stands on the ledge of a rock, while Alice sits in front of him, and their relative position mirrors the relationship between a teacher and a student in the classroom. For Alice’s question, the Turtle scolds her angrily: “Really you are very dull”; at the same time, the Gryphon says that “You ought to be ashamed of yourself for asking such a simple question.” (Carroll, 1993, p.95) They stare at Alice in angry silence, thus degrading Alice to a subordinate position, and then ordering her to recite moralistic poems. Despite unwillingness, Alice is forced to the authority of the adults and dare not challenge their authority. What the adults are doing is trying to repress Alice the child and assure their own mastery. In order to attain this goal, they sometimes resort to threats of violence, so that the child might be frightened to submission. The Duchess and the Queen of Red Hearts are very good examples.

The Duchess is in brutal mania and treats her child in an abusive way. When Alice enters the Duchess’s house, she finds the Duchess sitting on a stool in the middle of the kitchen, carrying a crying a baby in her arms. There is the pepper in the air; the cook is doing things roughly and the baby is howling very loudly, all of which makes the Duchess very annoyed and tense. The cook is throwing about her cooking appliances, so Alice warns her to be careful for fear that the baby be hurt, but the Duchess asks her to mind her own business and threatens to chop off her head. Her verbal threat has an apparent purpose: to silence Alice. The child should never ask the adults too many questions when they are busy or bad-tempered, or he or she will be threatened with punishment. The Duchess then sings a lullaby to the baby to be quiet: “Speak roughly to your little boy, /and beat him when he sneezes: / He only does it to annoy, / Because he knows it teases...” (Carroll, 1993, p.64) In the same time, she shakes the baby violently, and then tosses it up and down so as to frighten it to stop crying. To the Duchess, if the baby annoys the authoritative adult with howling, the adult surely has the right to punish it. The children must submit to the power and wills of the adults, for they have no power to compete with the bigger and stronger adults. If they dare to defy the authority of adults, they will receive violent and terrible threats of death. The Queen of Hearts is a most threatening adult figure in Wonderland. When Alice refuses to answer the Queen’s question regarding the identity of the cards, the Queen instantly becomes furious and again threatens to chop her head off. She also constantly orders the execution of her subjects and commands with “off with his head!” Later in the trial scene, when Alice criticizes the Queen’s judgment “Sentence first, verdict afterwards” (Carroll, 1993, p.121) and refuses to obey her order, the Queen shouts at her loudly, demanding her to hold her tongue and threatens angrily “Off with her head!” in an attempt to make her surrender.

Judging from the child, those adult figures are quite absurd, cruel, irrational and emotional. They are inclined to lose their temper and behave badly, yet they are quick to punish those deemed inferior. The disempowered child has no choice but to surrender to their wills if he or she intends to stay in the power contest. Alice as a Victorian little girl of middle-class is very polite and good-mannered when she encounters the strange creatures in the Wonderland. However, she learns from her environment and quickly adapts herself to it. She does have the boldness and courage to utter her own thoughts and to rebel against those absurdities. Lewis Carroll employs a fantasy structure, a legitimate way of being playful to give her more power to resist the adult authority. Alice’s power comes from her unusual ability to change her appearance into different sizes. When Alice is sitting at the bank with her sister, she has the body of a little girl of seven-year-old. However, when she enters the Wonderland, her body is no more restrained by the physical growth in real life and she has the chance to experience physical changes again and again within a short time.

In Wonderland, Alice undergoes bodily changes for several times. It is worth noting that almost all her changes in bodily size are related to eating and drinking. Food is closely associated with the children’s daily life, and children tend to display an intense interest in food. To the child, food very often is crucial and irresistible. In Chapter 1, Alice first drinks from the bottle with the words “Drink Me” and shuts up like a telescope; she then eats up the small cake in a little glass box marking “Eat Me” and turns to be as tall as nine feet high. In Chapter 4 the Rabbit’s fan makes her small again. When Alice enters the Rabbit’s house, she spots a bottle near the looking-glass, and intuitively draws the conclusion that if she drinks it, something interesting might happen. Indeed, it turns out that the drink makes her much larger than her usual self. Alice becomes so big that she gets trapped in the Rabbit’s small house and can not move. Then her attention is caught by the falling pebbles and she immediately eats them, which changes her size and makes her smaller than a puppy. Alice is very confused by her frequent changes of body size, causing her to wonder about her identity: “...I wonder if I’ve changed in the night? Let me think: was I the same when I got up this morning? I almost think I can remember feeling a little different. But if I’m not the same, the next question is, who in the world am I? Ah, that’s the great trouble!” (Carroll, 1993, P.26) She wonders whether she has been changed for another poor girl named Mabel, and if that is the case, it would be very unfortunate since Mabel is not very clever in her lessons and lives in a “poky little house, and have next to no toys to play with” (Carroll, 1993, P.27). That kind of life is rather unpleasant, so Alice makes up her mind that she would refuse to leave the rabbit hole.

Alice’s intends to make sense of the crazy adult world with her body as a tool. It is not difficult to find that Alice is often unhappy with her body for not being the right size. Alice’s change of her body size can be understood as a wish-fulfillment of the child to be free from the control of the adults. Children very often imagine themselves acquiring

the ability to change at will. Sometimes they desire to become so tiny that they can be free from the adults; sometimes they long to get so large that the adults can do nothing with them. In the beginning of her change of body size, Alice is very puzzled about her identity. However, she gradually comes to realize that being big has more advantage than being small, for big size is associated with greater power. When Alice is in the White Rabbit's house, she gets sick of being so little and treated with no respect. She looks around the house, hoping to find something to make her large. After she drinks a potion, she gets so huge as to be entrapped in the Rabbit's little house. In spite of the awkward inconvenience, she enjoys her large bodily size, for it gives her enough power to fight back. Alice stretches her hand out to prevent the Rabbit from entering the house and kicks Bill the lizard up the chimney like a sky-rocket and injures him. When Alice hears the Rabbit talking about burning down the house, she utters a threat: "If you do, I'll set Dinah at you." (Carroll, 1993, p.45) When they attack her with pebbles, Alice shouts loudly to force them to stop. Alice is no more afraid of the creatures. In this situation, Alice becomes the powerful because she has larger body than the other creatures. Therefore, she is no longer afraid of the adult figures, as she can rely on her own power to protect herself and fight against the adults. Her physical growth "is apparently symbolic of her personality growth, her growth in confidence, assertiveness, and courage" (Honig, 1998, p.84). Later on, Alice gets more and more powerful and aggressive as she can change her body at will with the help of the mushroom.

After Alice eats the pebbles-turned cakes, she becomes small again. Coming out of the Rabbit's house, she runs into an enormous puppy which makes her terribly frightened, for she is very likely to be eaten with her small size. The puppy is a pet for human beings in real life—Alice still calls it "Poor little thing" (Carroll, 1993, p.45) despite its big size, but one very important rule in Wonderland seems to be "size matters", or big size is tantamount to more power. Alice had so much power to defeat all the animals just a moment ago, but now she is powerless again with the big size gone. It is doubtless to say that being bigger means more power, so when asked later by the Caterpillar what size she wants to be, she is very certain about one thing, that is, she "should like to be a little larger", because "three inches is such a wretched height to be." (Carroll, 1993, p.55) She would not be wretched as a small one, but rather someone with big size and great power. Having tasted the sweetness of being powerful, Alice is very delighted to find that her neck would bend about easily in any direction like a serpent and curve down in a graceful zigzag after she eats one side of the mushroom and becomes huge again. As A.S. Neil asserts, "No one really wants to remain a child. The desire for power urges children on." (Neil, 1960, 52) Even Peter Pan, the boy who never grows up and remains eternally young, does not resist growth itself. He just cherishes too much the value of childhood and hates the hypocritical and unnatural state of adulthood.

When Alice gets the ability to change her bodily size at will with the magical mushroom, she can do things more freely: she enters the Duchess' house without permission; she barges into the mad tea party, ignoring their loud protests of "No room"; she refuses to obey the Queen's orders in the garden, and snatches away the pen of a juryman at the trial. The empowered Alice can boldly challenge the adult values, even when the adults are royal members, ---the Duchess, the Queen and the King.

When Alice finally comes into the Queen's garden, she finds that the gardeners are busy painting the white roses red because it is the Queen's wish. In the presence of the Queen, Alice acts respectfully but thinks to herself that she needn't be afraid of them for "they're only a pack of cards". To the Queen's demands to know who the cards lying on their faces are, Alice bravely retorts: "How should I know? ... It's no business of *mine*." Alice goes on to interrupt the Queen's order that the girl's head be chopped off: "Nonsense!" She pronounces the word so "very loudly and decidedly" that the Queen is silenced immediately (Carroll, 1993, p.82). Alice wins her first battle with the adult who happens to be a very powerful figure, which takes on a deeper meaning. Alice even assumes the role of a powerful protector for the gardeners. When the Queen orders to chop off their heads, they run to Alice for protection. During the Queen's croquet tournament, in a conversation with the Duchess, Alice keeps a polite demeanor while harboring thoughts of how unpleasant and ugly she is. When the Duchess chides, "Thinking again?" Alice answers severely, "I've a right to think" (Carroll, 1993, p. 91). It is indeed of great significance for Alice to boldly assert her right to think. The child not only is aware that she has a right to think, but also a right to speak out what she thinks. In the trial of the Knave of Hearts, many witnesses are summoned, interrogated and threatened by the King and the Queen to give evidence or face execution. At this moment, Alice feels that her body is growing larger. When the Dormouse argues with her: "You have no right to grow *here*" (Carroll, 1993, p. 99), Alice boldly retorts to his criticism by saying that is nonsense since he is growing too. When Alice is called to the witness stand and asked to give her evidence, she honestly replies she knows "Nothing whatever." (Carroll, 1993, p.116) The truth is that Alice does not even know the accused Knave of Hearts and whether he has stolen tarts is not to her knowledge or concern. The King deliberately invents a rule in an attempt to banish her out of the courtroom, but clever Alice sees through his trick and questions the validity of his rule. When the Rabbit shows the court an unsigned letter as the most important evidence, the eager King is ready to charge the accused with theft, but Alice declares that there is no meaning in the rhyme at all. She also challenges the whole court's ability to interpret it. When the King asks the jury to consider their verdict, the Queen flies into rage and demands "Sentence first---verdict afterwards". Alice considers it as absolute nonsense, since a sentence can only come after the verdict.

"Stuff and nonsense!" said Alice loudly. "The idea of having the sentence first!"

"Hold your tongue!" said the queen, turning purple.

"I won't!" said Alice.

“Off with her head!” the Queen shouted at the top of her voice. Nobody moved.

“Who cares for you?” said Alice (she had grown to her full size by this time). “You are nothing but a pack of cards!” (Carroll, 1993, p. 121)

As the whole pack of cards fly at Alice, she gives “a little scream, half of fright and half of anger, and tried to beat them off, and found herself lying on the bank, with her head in the lap of her sister.” (Carroll, 1993, p. 121) Threatened with execution, Alice boldly shows the injustice of the trial, the invalidity of the law, and absurdity of the adult world. By defying the order of the adults, Alice has deconstructed their authority and asserted her own right as an independent, courageous and self-confident child. Alice faces the circumstances so calmly and bravely that she even fights back with anger by beating the cards off. She throws away her fear and emerges as triumphant and victorious to return happily to her afternoon tea and carefree days in reality.

III. CONCLUSION

The underground Wonderland is just like a competition whose rules are made and altered at will by the powerful adults. Alice brings the unfair play to an end with her rebellion. Confronted with those underground creatures in Wonderland, such as the White Rabbit, the Duchess, the Caterpillar, and the Queen, etc., Alice always suffers a feeling of helplessness, frustration, and even despair. When the adults put on an air of insufferably arrogant and domineering air, giving her a variety of disciplines and proverbs, Alice tries to get rid of their control and to maintain independence. By shifting the bodily size and using an oral aggression, Alice escapes from her disadvantaged position and shows to the adults that her power as a child should not be belittled. Children, like adults, have their unique needs and they also long for power. The powerless child shares and asserts her power in the adult world. The adults in Wonderland are very childlike, being unreasonable, passionate and absurd; while Alice is more mature and rational in front of them. Those adult figures in Wonderland order, ignore or belittle Alice in the way they treat children in real life. But Alice does not conform to the behaviors of real children in her dream journey. She scorns their absurdity, defies their orders, and deconstructs their authority. The adult/child relationship is not a fixed one, but rather relative and arbitrary. In this fantasy, Lewis Carroll uses the little child’s journey for power and self-reliance to subvert the fixed hierarchal structure of adults and children. Instead of exploiting children’s books as a means to transmit ideology to children and repress them, Lewis Carroll recognizes the child’s value and defends the child’s rights for power. The adults should not impose their values on the child, but respect the child as an individual having inner value. No wonder this fantasy has remained a popular classic for the children and adults, “the first children’s book that could be read with equal pleasure by both children and adults” (Senick, 1989, p.38) and “a book of that extremely rare kind which will belong to all the generations to come until the language becomes obsolete.” (Carpenter, 1985, p.68)

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Challenges of Mediation Theory and Gender Differences in Iranian EFL Contexts

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Abstract—According to the Feuerstein mediation theory, a social mediator who monitors the process of interaction is required to facilitate the communication process and promote learning outcome (Dendrinis, 2006); however, researchers found that every language teaching context is unique and conducting this theory might face learners with some challenges; therefore, this study investigated the significance of mediation theory and gender difference in Iranian EFL context. To conduct the study, 86 teachers of Kashan high schools were chosen. To elicit the attitudes towards mediation theory between male and female high school teachers, Warren teacher mediation questionnaire (1995) was administered and to deepen the obtained data, interviews were conducted with ten teachers. The results of both quantitative and qualitative data have shown that conducting mediation theory in language teaching contexts needs some prerequisites that cannot be ready normally in every teaching environment. Moreover, the findings demonstrated that there is a general difference between male and female teachers in the order of mediation theory in Iranian EFL context.

Index Terms—Feuerstein mediation theory, interactionism, gender difference, mediation, mediator, teacher mediation

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning in the presence of others, learners are faced with some challenges that might be different from context to context and from gender to gender. Learning in a social setting is obviously attributed to Vygotsky and interactionism theory (Alred and Byram, 2002; Ridley-Duff and Bennett, 2010). Vygotsky and Feuerstein as the main components of social interactionism have seen that cognitive approaches to psychology that highlighted learner's cognitive developments in learning are not enough for effective teaching (Lantolf, 1994; Schneider and Watkins, 1996; Ellis, 1996). In contrast to Piaget's cognitive theory, in social interactionists view, children are born into the social world and learning occurs through interaction with other people. These people function as mediator, facilitator, and supporter, help children to reach their potential. In the early ages, these mediators are parents and in school period, teachers and their pupils play this role (Vygotsky, 1978; Williams and Burden, 1997; Antón, 1999). The significant feature of Vygotskian tradition is Genetic method that differs from mainstream SLA research in two key concepts: First, it focuses on the situational contexts in that learners learn through interaction and communication rather than on language learning in isolation; second, it focuses on the process by which new functions emerge (process-oriented learning). Zone of proximal development (ZPD) and challenges in the teaching process lead learning in the context rather than the products of learning (Vygotsky, 1979; Appel and Lantolf, 1994; Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyev, and Miller, 2003; Ellis, 2008). Vygotsky invented the concept of ZPD and advocated that children's thinking and meaning making is socially constructed and emerged out of their social interaction with their environments. According to this concept task is an activity that a child cannot do alone, but could do with the help of more competent peers or adults that are teachers and parents (Feuerstein and Feuerstein, 1991; Ohta, 1995).

Sociocultural theory accepted that humans have a genetic inheritance that supply the basis for development, therefore, it tries to elucidate how mediated minds developed out of the social activities and transform the culture of particular communities that is fixed and stable. Feuerstein, in accordance with sociocultural theory, works on mediation theory that is based on the solid belief that anyone can become a fully effective learner. Central to the psychology of both Vygotsky and Feuerstein is the concept of mediation (Vygotsky, 1986; Feuerstein, Klein, and Tannenbaum, 1991; Cheng, 2011). Sociocultural theory brings the social and psychological learning into contact through the notion of mediation. In Lantolf and Thorne (2006) words, mediation is a procedure that individuals organize their culturally constructed skills, beliefs, and activities to self-regulation (as cited in Ellis, 2008).

Gibbons (2003) believed that mediation provides a means of studying social processes and requires construction in language learning contexts which facilitates and promotes educational development. Mediation is also central to the

study of collaborative interactions in which group working is the main principle of mediation. Vygotsky (1981) argued that individuals' physical and mental tasks are mediated and facilitated by different tools and cultural practices. The main concerns of mediation that are useful to administer collaboration and group working in learning context are ZPD, scaffolding, joint construction, and contingency.

Dendrinios (2006) defines a mediator as follows:

A social actor who monitors the process of interaction and acts when some type of intervention is required in order to help the communicative process and sometimes to influence the outcome; a facilitator in social events during which two or more parties interacting are experiencing a communication breakdown or when there is a communication gap between them; a meaning negotiator operating as a meaning-making agent especially when s/he intervenes in situations which require reconciliation, settlement or compromise of meanings (P. 11.)

He also explains that in the past, mediation was a "political act of diplomacy", but today mediation is more significant than before as of the social change lately from the production of goods and tools to the production of knowledge and technology.

Research studies ignored the particular culture of learning environments that might cause learners some unanticipated problems and demotivate them; therefore, the present study investigated the latent facts of applying mediation theory in language classrooms. The findings are important, especially to teachers and curriculum designers that are mediation theory disciples.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Lots of literature studies advocated mediation theory as a universal theory that is applicable to any situation and learning context: Scaffolding is a term that is pivotal to Vygotskian descriptions of learning that is in accordance with the socioconstructivist view of human functioning. Scaffolding is an effective tool that is employed by teachers to promote the development of learning (Gibbons, 2003). The two theories that are mostly related to the development of the mediation approach to learning are the Vygotskian sociocultural theory and Feuerstein theory of Mediated Learning Experience (MLE) (Vygotsky, 1986). These theories put emphasis on the importance of sociocultural forces – parents, teachers, pupils, and communication between them in society- in shaping a child's development and learning. Both emphasized the significant role played by teachers, parents, peers and the community in determining the types of learning interaction occurring between learners and their near environments. The proponents of sociocultural theory did not deny the role of cognitive development, but they believe it has a peripheral effect on development (Ohta, 1995).

Singh and Richards (2006) confirmed that theories of teacher-student learning center on the concept of learning as cultural-social practice, which includes peer-interaction, mediation, discourse, social interaction and participation structures. Lantolf (2005) stated that one of the fundamental concepts of sociocultural theory is it's argue that the individuals' mind is mediated. Lantolf claimed that Vygotsky discovers a significant function for what he called "tools" in people understanding of the whole world and also of them. Wertsch (1985) advocated that humans do not act directly on the physical world without the intermediary of tools. Feuerstein and Louis (1990) point out that the main roles of the mediator are the stimulus, the organism, and the response to interpret, regulate, elaborate, and reinforce the learner's experience (as cited in Chang, 2004).

Many studies worked on the notion of mediation and clarified the function of it in children's social development. Mediation theory originates mainly in Social Interactionism (Bruner, 1966); in a school in educational psychology which is along with the constructivist school (Kelly, 1955; Piaget, 1972); and in humanistic thoughts (Erikson, 1968; Maslow, 1970; Rogers, 1982) that focused on social interaction (Preacher, et al. 2007; Lantolf, 2005). The main premise of Social Interactionism that is reflected in the works of Vygotsky (1978, 1981) and Feuerstein (1991) is that learning occurs in a social context through interaction with other people including parents, teachers, and pupils (Zafeiriadou, 2005). Zarate, et al. (2004) defined the notion of cultural mediation in language teaching as follows:

The teacher's role as mediator and facilitator is fundamental. Taking account of the cultural dimension of the language, the language teacher needs to be able to raise students' awareness of the cultural patterns and prepare the students to embrace them in intercultural encounters. Hospitality is just one example among others of subjects that vary widely within Europe and which are, consequently, totally relevant to the language teaching context (P. 219).

Lande (2000) suggests that using a facilitative approach is a good tool for mediators for many of the reasons. Facilitation emphasizes the principals' abilities by mediators to do their own critical evaluation and creative problem solving. He explains that mediation is not useful for everyone and it is not a cure-all, but mediation truly offers a distinctive opportunity for parties to exercise responsibility over their own disputes and their own lives. Other dispute resolution processes generally do not promote this important social value.

The findings of Cheng (2011) indicated that mostly EFL instructors in China have no knowledge of mediation and therefore are unable to mediate learners' learning. Cheng and Kia (2011) tried to elucidate EFL teachers' mediation functions that learners reach their potentials in the subsequent four dimensions: teachers as mediators interact with students, teachers as mediators facilitate learner-learner interactions, teachers as mediators develop interactive classroom tasks or activities, and teachers as mediators generate new classroom tasks or activities. They concluded that the teacher's role of mediator is theoretically acceptable and practically feasible, but there is a long way to the interactive society settings. To obtain this goal, EFL teachers should re-orient their instructional roles to adapt to the

development process and new challenges. Teachers as mediators can play a significant role in learning through mediation. Cheng (2011) also concerned China secondary school teachers' use of mediation to investigate why there are so few meditative-oriented classrooms and what can be done to make language classrooms more meditative-oriented. In his research, he concluded that most of the teachers which participate in the survey argued that they played the roles of situational and cultural mediators rather than the universal mediators and showed that the teachers' constraints and impedances involving the lack of knowledge of mediation that prevented them from implementing it effectively. His research also confirmed that most secondary school EFL teachers fail to mediate their learners' learning in China's present educational setting. Teachers faced with a complex task in the application of teacher mediation principles in the classroom.

However, the mediations' principles are culture-bound as every teacher, student, and context is unique; therefore, application of this theory needs special skill on the part of teachers. It means that the notion of mediation can get different meanings in different contexts. Few researches carry on the significance of Feuerstein mediation theory and gender difference. The Feuerstein mediation theory consists of twelve principles. The purpose of this study is to investigate the significance of order in Feuerstein mediation theory, gender difference in Iranian ELT context, and throw light on different aspects of this theory between teachers of Iranian language contexts.

The first research question is general and covers a broad domain and the second one is more specific. They are as follows:

Q₁: What is the order in teacher mediation principles based on Iranian EFL teacher beliefs?

Q₂: Is there any gender difference between Iranian teachers in the order Feuerstein mediation principles?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

This study investigated the significance of order in mediation theory and gender difference for teachers in Iranian EFL context. The researchers chose 86 teachers of Kashan high schools randomly. The participants' age were ranged between 23-40 years old. Fifty-six of them were male and 30 were female. They were at different levels of education; 37 teachers in B.A., 49 teachers in M.A. level and different records of experiences that ranged from three to more than 10 years. They were taking part in the in-service programs in which teachers learned how to teach more effectively so they were familiar with modern methods of language teaching. It is possible that these programs cause some confusion for teachers to choose the best method in their teaching contexts.

B. Instrumentations

The first instrument for collecting data in this mixed method research was Teacher Mediation Questionnaire (TMQ) (Warren 1995) that is based on Feuerstein mediation theory. This questionnaire consists of two parts; theoretical and practical that in the present study, just theoretical one that is related to the teachers' beliefs or attitudes about language teaching was used. Every question of this questionnaire is an underpinning to a special feature of mediation theory. To provide truly educational learning tasks, teachers or adults can mediate in a number of different ways. Feuerstein identifies twelve features of mediation that is described in the Warren questionnaire. This questionnaire was piloted with 40 teachers of the similar participants at different schools. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of this questionnaire was 0.81 ($r = 0.81$). To avoid misunderstanding, the researchers translated it into the fluent Persian and administered it among participants.

To enhance the findings of the questionnaire and shed light on the latent aspects of educational frameworks that formed in teachers' minds based on their teaching experiences and teacher education programs, the researchers conducted interviews with ten teachers. In these semi-structured interviews, teachers explained about the significance of mediation principles and practicality of them in their actual teaching environments.

C. Procedures

Teachers had some theories and methods about teaching language in their minds and based on them, they established lesson plans and curriculums to teach more effectively and organized methods that fit the learners and the context. To actualize their educational frameworks, determining their teaching priorities from their point of views was a fundamental step. To investigate the order in Feuerstein mediation theory's principles and gender difference in Iranian EFL context, at first, 86 teachers of Kashan high schools were chosen. They all accepted to participate in this study; therefore, their participation was voluntarily. They were informed about the study from the beginning, and that they could withdraw their contributions at any time without penalty. All participants were provided with written information about the nature and purpose of the research project. All of them were insured that the identity of them to the survey would be held in strict confidence. As the teachers' first language was Persian, to avoid misunderstanding, Warren's questionnaire translated into the fluent Persian. Before administration of the questionnaire, the researchers explained the procedure to the participants; therefore, they were informed of the instruction and purpose of the study. Warren teacher mediation questionnaire (1995) was administered with no time pressure; however, they had 20 minutes to answer this questionnaire. Next, semi-structured interview was conducted with ten teachers to enhance the quality of the questionnaire's findings. Finally, participants' answers to the questionnaire were collected and entered into a data file

and analyzed statistically using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 18. Some collected data were qualitative. The procedure for analyzing qualitative data was as follows: Each data set was read several times to gain some sense of the main ideas being expressed. Then the data were coded and analyzed manually and subjectively.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

To determine the significance of mediation principles in EFL Iranian context, the results of the questionnaire were analyzed through SPSS software. To answer the first research question, which states, "What is the order of teacher mediation principles based on Iranian EFL teacher beliefs?", as the results has shown in table 1, question four has the highest mean $n = 86$, $m = 4.6$, $SD = .968$ and question two has the lowest mean $n = 86$, $m = 3.45$, $SD = .702$.

TABLE I.
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF EACH QUESTION IN DESCENDING MEAN RANK ORDER

Questions	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Q4	86	4.6	.968
Q9	86	4.4	1.019
Q5	86	3.84	.925
Q7	86	3.76	.885
Q6	86	3.76	.764
Q12	86	3.75	1.129
Q10	86	3.75	1.055
Q1	86	3.63	.799
Q3	86	3.63	.894
Q8	86	3.63	.916
Q11	86	3.49	1.046
Q2	86	3.45	.702

Note. This table shows the mean and standard deviation of all questions in descending rank order.

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the results of the questionnaire for the male and female participants and there is a significant difference in scores for males ($M = 46.21$, $SD = 9.069$) and females ($M = 41.53$, $SD = 8.287$; $t(84) = 2.349$, $P = 0.021$ (2-tailed). The magnitude of differences in the means (mean differences = 4.681, 95% CI: .719 to 8.643) was very small (eta squared: .006). The eta squared of .006 indicates that the differences have a moderate effect. As the results of Table 2 reveals, there is a meaningful difference in the significance of mediations' principles between male and female teachers in Iranian EFL contexts.

TABLE 2.
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST OF TMQ FOR MALE AND FEMALE TEACHERS

Independent Samples Test		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	Equal variances assumed	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Scores	Equal variances assumed	.057	.812	2.349	84	.021	4.681	1.993	.719	8.643

Note: <0.05 is significant.

Feuerstein's mediation theory has twelve key features that are as follow respectively: "Significance", "purpose beyond the here and now", "shared intention", "a sense of competence", and "control of own behaviors", "goal-setting", "challenge", "awareness of change", "a belief in positive outcomes", "sharing", "individuality", and "a sense of belonging". Feuerstein believes that the first three principles are central to language learning and the others are peripheral and function in some special contexts (Williams and Burden, 1987). He classifies these principles into three categories:

The first three principles are the central principles of this theory and Feuerstein emphasizes that the main factor of "significance" of one task is the transmission of culture from one generation to the next; the key feature of this theory emphasizes that any learning task must have value or personal meaning to the learners. "Purpose beyond here and now" that Feuerstein called it "transcendence" refers to the reason of learning. Feuerstein believes that every task should learn something of value that is more general rather than the actual point of the task. Why learners should learn a special point in their classrooms? When the reason of learning is clear, students learn more effectively. Third feature is "intentionality" or "reciprocity". In the learning tasks, teachers should explain precisely what they want learners to do by providing a clear set of instructions. This procedure in the writings of Feuerstein is referred to as 'state of vigilance'.

The next category is factors concerned with taking control of learning. These factors are peripheral to language learning. They are useful just in some situations and particular cultures. "A sense of competence" is culture-bound; therefore, self-confidence has diverse definition in various cultures. Teachers should stimulate or encourage senses of positive self-image, self-esteem, self-confidence, and a feeling of "I can" in learners. Schwarzer and Hallum (2008)

claimed that self-efficacy has great influence on preparing action because self-related cognitions are major elements in the motivation process. Self-efficacy levels can enhance or impede motivation and learners with high self-efficacy choose to perform tasks that are more challenging. Closely related to “*a sense of competence*” and “*control of behavior*” is the notion of “*goal setting*”. Individuals need to learn how to set their own goals in learning situations and more importantly, learn how to plan to achieve them.

The last category of Feuerstein mediation theory is factors concerned with fostering social development. “*Sharing*” and “*individuality*” are the main features of this category. Sharing or working cooperatively is a pivotal part of every social situation. Co-working is one of the main principles of mediation theory and the notion of ZPD. The help of other people happens in a social setting and group working. To Feuerstein and mediation theory, the notion of individuality has the same importance as sharing and co-working.

To Feuerstein, the first three principles are the foundation of mediation theory, but as the results of Table 1 show, Iranian EFL teachers’ attitudes are not along with it. The results show that principles four, nine, and five are the most important principles of mediation theory from the Iranian EFL teachers’ point of view. Question number four that has the highest mean $m = 4.06$, $SD = .968$ refers to “*a sense of competence*”. Iranian EFL teachers believe that “*a sense of competence*” is the most important feature for effective language teaching. In their point of view, teachers’ primary function is encouraging positive self-image, self-esteem, and self-confidence among learners; however, to Feuerstein, a feeling of competence is necessary but not sufficient for learning to be effective.

Iranian EFL teachers believe that students learn best when they have a clear purpose for learning and when they learn skills or knowledge that can be quickly applied in daily life. In their point of view, a sustainable solution to such impedance is working on contextualized instruction that means assist learners to see real-world applications or purposes for their learning. “Just under such circumstances, teachers would be able to create and enhance “*a sense of competence*” in their learners’ minds”, teachers claimed in interviews.

In contrast to Feuerstein beliefs, Iranian EFL teachers believe that the second important principle of mediation is “*a belief in positive outcomes*”, $m = 4.04$, $SD = 1.019$. They supposed that after positive image and self-confidence, learners need to learn how to solve a problem; deciding that a solution is impossible will automatically prevent learners from seeking out an appropriate way and trying alternative ways to solve a problem. Feuerstein also mentions the importance of this principle, but he believes that the first three principles are more important than a belief in positive outcomes.

The next important principle is “*control of own behaviors*”, $m = 3.84$, $SD = .925$. Iranian EFL teachers believe that after self-confidence and belief in positive outcomes the most important principle is control of behavior. Learners should learn how to solve a problem, gather information, process the information, and express the results logically. Even within the same context, the significance of sociocultural principles varies; the results of the present study indicated that male teachers carry different attitudes towards language teaching. Variability of these principles or any other fixed prescriptions for every learning context is highly intense that teachers recommended overlooking their order, significance, and priority in their classrooms.

In his theory of the development of the human mind, Vygotsky focused on natural, individual, and social forces and that their cooperation leads to consciousness. In its theoretical foundation, sociocultural theory works effectively to promote learners’ knowledge with the help of others that are tools, teachers, or even parents. Quite contrary, in its practical framework, teachers and instructors face with challenges that are not as motivating as mentioned in the theoretical foundation. As the results of both quantitative and qualitative analyses of this study demonstrate, Feuerstein mediation principles are highly culture-bound and vary from context to context considering both their significance and their intensity.

Considering cultural points as unproblematic curricular content reflects a rather traditional and unsophisticated perspective. In the modern century of language teaching, culture is considered as a socially constructed practice, in which language and culture are mutually constitutive and transmission of knowledge and new materials into learners’ mind inextricably tie with cultural creation. As culture is a social practice, its function in sociocultural theory has great influence on language promotion and possibly in some context is determined as an obstacle to that. Perhaps adapting these perspectives and perceptions on language teaching and cultural points would remedy some of the problems that are apparent in current approaches to teaching language in different cultures. Despite the advances made about the notion of intercultural and multicultural language, language still continues to be taught as a fixed system of formal structures and universal speech functions that is called best method, a neutral medium for the transmission of cultural knowledge. Culture is considered only as a stimulating tool and content verification and is cooperated to the extent that it reinforces. In other words, culture is a process that is imbued with issues of power and control that are exclusively culture-bound.

Teachers in the interviews claimed that language teacher education programs have failed to prepare teachers for the realities of the classroom. Theoretically professional teachers may face with crucial problems in real classrooms as they are not fully prepared for the difficulty of language teaching in real context. The multitude of differences in students, curricula, policies, materials, programs, and the socio-cultural environments that teachers are likely to face in their careers calls into question any set of best teaching tasks and activities appropriate for all contexts or any attempts to transfer the knowledge and practice from teacher education programs directly to language teaching (Crandall, 2000).

Lantolf and his colleagues (2000) contended that a comprehensive theory of SLA should incorporate principles derived from sociocultural theory. They predict that learning occurs as a result of mentorship and sociocultural activity; however, they refer to culture as a distinguishing factor in material development, content, and teaching method. Learning will happen in interaction between learner and the culture; therefore, learning is situation and culture bound, and the resulting symbols, for instance, knowledge of the L2 mediated conscious thought relating to those situations and cultural phenomena. The method of teaching metalinguistic knowledge will vary in important ways depending on the context of learning and learners' knowledge of various levels of linguistic representation such as discursive, sociolinguistic, phonological, lexical, and strategic knowledge. It will differ widely from one learning context to another because each learning context is defined by a unique set of situations, characteristics and a local culture.

Brain researchers indicated that learners might learn best when they have a purpose for their learning and when the skills or knowledge can be quickly applied directly in their daily life. Adult literacy teachers work to contextualize instruction – assisting learners to see real-world applications or purposes for their learning. There are many different ways to approach contextualized instruction. Instructors can think of contextualization as simply the examples they use to illustrate concepts in class, the topic used for a single lesson, or the theme around which all instruction will revolve for several weeks. Students should be involved in the planning process – their needs and interests pave the way to the appropriate contexts for teaching and learning.

Culture is an important aspect that influences all language learning factors just because of its dynamic nature; therefore, prescribing an ideal or best solution for language teaching/learning would be somehow impossible. Motivation, relationships, anxiety, confidence, hospitality, and social talent are some factors that are highly convertible under the influence of cultural changes. Here, the role of professional teachers highlighted as the only solution for such perplexing situation is teacher experience in that particular context. Under the acceptance of a fixed method chosen by stakeholders and policy makers, teachers and instructors pass their responsibilities- all weaknesses and drawbacks in language classrooms attributed to inappropriate teaching methods. On the contrary, when teachers have a sense of belonging and feel their responsibility for every event in their classrooms, the theoretical foundation of instructions and pedagogical tasks alter in a large extent. In teacher education programs, teachers should be fully informed of various teaching methods and different situations, shortcomings, and impedances that might be faced in their classroom; meanwhile, the appropriate decision for every teaching context is in the hands of teachers.

V. CONCLUSIONS

This study investigated the significance of mediation theory and gender differences in the EFL contexts and shed light on latent aspects of language teaching with a fixed method or process that designated as ideal or best method. The findings demonstrated that cultural characteristics are the paramount factor in any language teaching context and that prescribing an ideal and fix method is the biggest mistake in teaching process.

Mediation is not useful for everyone and it is not a cure-all, but mediation truly offers a distinctive opportunity for parties to exercise responsibility over their own disputes and their own lives. The teacher's role of mediator is theoretically acceptable and practically feasible, but there is a long way to the interactive society settings. To obtain this goal, EFL teachers should re-orient their instructional roles to adapt to the development process and new challenges.

In sum, the current study investigated the significance of order in Feuerstein mediation theory and gender difference in Iranian EFL context. The findings have shown that the order of principles of mediation theory in Iranian EFL context is different from the Feuerstein principles order. The findings of this study are also in accordance with other studies such as Chang (2004). He believes that the order of mediation principles varies in different contexts. There are also some differences between the order of mediation theory between Iranian male and female EFL teachers. Iranian teachers should consider these findings in their teaching process for more effective teaching. These findings represent that Iranian male teachers tend to encourage self-confidence in their students, but Iranian female teachers focus on social factors and tend to encourage group-working tasks in their classrooms. Institutes managements and high school principals can benefit these findings in choosing teachers regarding their learners. This research was administered at the high school level in Kashan city; therefore, its findings are not generalizable to other levels and contexts. The age of teachers and their records of experiences were not considered in the present study. Further researches can focus on such variable and investigate the effect of them on mediation order and teacher beliefs.

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Let Them Toil to Learn: Implicit Feedback, Self-correction and Performance in EFL Writing

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Abstract—This study investigates the effectiveness of implicit feedback by comparing the learning outcomes of explicit correction and implicit error feedback in EFL writing. A comp-form (Williams, 1990) was adapted to give the students a chance to find their mistakes and correct them. (See appendices 1&2) Sixty foundation year- engineering students were given a pretest and a posttest before and after the treatment. Self correction and the common mistakes were also examined. The “t” test analysis results were in favor of the experimental groups, but statistically significant only for high achievers. Self- correction and minimizing the number of errors were apparent for both experimental groups but in favor of high achievers. The findings also showed the common mistakes FYES made in their EFL writing. The study emphasized the importance of engaging students in metacognitive teaching and the right choice of feedback for the right level of students.

Index Terms—FYES, EFL, comp form, KAU, explicit correction, implicit feedback

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the main challenges for teachers of English while teaching EFL or ESL writing is direct error correction. (Ferris, 2002; Mantello, 1997 cited in Lee, 2012). It is not only time consuming, but also it doesn't get the results teachers are always dreaming of. These teachers' main concern and academic institutions' ultimate goal is to have an independent learner who can discover his own mistakes and correct them or even be aware of the mistakes and avoid doing them (Xiao, 2008; Lv & Chen, 2010). Furthermore, the danger of over-correcting is that students will lose motivation and their confidence may even be destroyed by correcting every single mistake (Lee, 2012). Indirect error feedback and self correction are expected to help students avoid at least the mistakes they correct over a certain period of training. “Feedback or no feedback” has always been present in the literature about students' errors in writing. The exchanges between Truscott (1996) and Ferris (1999) cited in (Erel and Bulut (2007)) are good examples. Truscott believes that there is no evidence that error correction helps student writers improve the accuracy of their writing; on the contrary, it diverts time and energy away from real practice in writing. On the other hand, Ferris pointed out that error correction can help some students if selective, prioritized and clear. The controversy ends with a compromise that attention should be given to investigating which method, technique, or approach to error correction is shorter and more effective.

Questions of the Study

1. Is there any statistically significant effect of implicit feedback on KAU FYES achievement in EFL writing?
2. Do implicit feedback and indirect corrections have positive effects on KAU FYES self -correction?
3. What are the common mistakes that King Abdul-Aziz University FYES usually make in EFL writing?

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Giving feedback to students about their errors is essential to EFL writing. Teachers of writing believe that corrective feedback can raise students' awareness of the rules and develop their writing skills by highlighting problems and offering suggestions for improvement while rewriting. Recent studies showed that different types of corrective feedback can benefit students when done properly and effectively (Saito, 1994; Junyi 2005; Lee, 2012 and Srichanyachon 2012).

A. Theoretical Background

While giving feedback for writing performance, there are two ways of dealing with students' mistakes: Direct (explicit) feedback which is a technique of correcting students' errors by giving an explicit written correction and indirect (implicit) feedback in which the teacher indicates that an error has been made through an underline, circle, code, etc. Both methods can improve student's writing, but a number of researchers think that indirect feedback is generally more appropriate and effective and brings more benefits to students' long-term writing development than direct feedback (Ferris, 2004). Indirect teacher feedback is useful when it is incorporated with students' self-revision. Ferris (2006) cited in Erel and Bulut (2007)) found that students utilized direct feedback more consistently and effectively

than indirect types. According to Ferris (2002), cited in Abedi et al (2010) direct feedback is appropriate (1) for beginner students; (2) when errors are not easy to deal with as sentence structure and word choice, and (3) when teachers want to draw students' attention to other error types which require student correction.

B. The Importance of Students' Perceptions and Preferences of Teachers' Feedback

Students' perceptions of the types of correction and their preferences of teachers' feedback were investigated by (Kavaliauskiene, (2003); Maarek, (2009), Srichanyachon (2012) and Lee, (2012)). They pointed out that students prefer their teachers to indicate their mistakes in providing feedback in an attempt to improve their self-correction. Saito, (1994) investigated the match between teachers' practices and students' preferences for feedback and their strategies for handling it. Srichanyachon (2012) focused on the importance of teachers' written feedback for L2 students' writing development including its effect on students' accuracy and motivation. He discussed students' feedback preferences in terms of content, compared the methods of giving feedback, and suggested practices to help teachers provide effective written feedback for their students. Norouzian and Farahani, (2012) inspected two major areas of written feedback contexts through taking learners' and teachers' written feedback perceptions and teachers' actual feedback practices into account. In his study he examined areas of mismatch between teachers and students' perceptions of feedback and teachers' perceptions and their actual behaviors.

The different components of language and level of students in writing proved to have an effect on students' preferences and attitudes towards teachers' feedback. Rahimi, (2010) explored fifty EFL learners' preferences for receiving error feedback on different grammatical units as well as their beliefs about teacher feedback strategies. The study also examined the effect of the students' level of writing ability on their views about the importance of teacher feedback on different error types.

C. The Impact of Indirect Correction and Error Feedback on the Performance in EFL Writing

Self-correction addresses a valuable need in the language classroom. It raises awareness of the language, as well as urges students to take a more active and responsible role. Self-correction makes them less reliant on the teacher and gradually become self-learners. (Kavaliauskiene (2003); Junyi (2005), starting from the assumption that self correction of mistakes might be more beneficial for language learning than teacher's direct correction, conducted studies to discover how effective the target students could self-correct their writing mistakes against the teacher's feedback. Liu (2008) reports a quasi-experimental classroom study investigating 12 university ESL students' abilities to self-edit their writing across two feedback conditions: 1) direct correction with the correct form provided by the teacher; and indirect correction indicating that an error exists but without providing the correction. Results showed that both types of feedback helped students self-edit their texts. Mourssi, (2012) hopes to build on the positive impact of direct and indirect feedback on the ability of foreign language learners to edit their own texts and improve their accuracy in writing by investigating the role of meta -linguistic feedback in encouraging and preparing L2 learners to improve their level of accuracy and fluency in writing.

Reformulation, elicitation, error detection, coded error feedback and other forms of indirect feedback on writing performance proved to outperform direct correction. Ibarrola (2013) compares the effectiveness and appropriateness of two correction strategies (reformulation and self-correction) for EFL writing. The study examines the reduction of errors in students' drafts through a writing-correction-rewriting task which includes: 1) a reformulation session in which learners received feedback in the form of a reformulated text; and 2) a self-correction session in which learners received no feedback. Results show that reformulation outperformed self-correction and both strategies had a positive effect on error reduction. Abedi and et al, (2010) explored the most effective ways to give feedback to students' errors in writing by comparing the effect of error correction and error detection on the improvement of students' writing ability. The results suggested that error detection along with the codes led to better improvement in the learners' writing than the error correction treatment. Erel, and Bulut, (2007) investigated the possible effects of direct and indirect coded error feedback in a Turkish university context with regard to accuracy in writing. The results of the study showed that an overall comparison of the control and the experimental groups for the whole semester did not yield any statistically significant differences; nevertheless, the indirect coded feedback group committed fewer errors than the direct feedback group for the whole semester.

Individual conferencing for giving corrective feedback is a new idea introduced by Pitcher et al (2005); they investigated whether certain types of feedback result in improved accuracy. These types of feedback are: direct, explicit written feedback and student-researcher 5-minute individual conferences; direct, explicit written feedback only; no corrective feedback. The study resulted in a significant effect for the combination of written and conference feedback on accuracy levels in the use of the past simple tense and the definite article in new pieces of writing but no overall effect on accuracy improvement for feedback types when all errors were included.

III. METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

A. Research Design

Participants in this study are sixty FYES enrolled at KAU for the academic year 2013/2014. The participants form four 15- students sections. The four sections are chosen randomly out of two hundred sections then assigned to two

control groups to be given writing tasks on weekly basis and corrected according to direct correction rules. The first control group includes high achievers level four- students and the second includes low achievers level-two students. The other two sections are the experimental groups to be given the same writing tasks as the control groups but given error feedback through a special form (Appendix 1). The first experimental group includes high achievers level four- students and the second includes low achievers level-two students.

B. Instruments of the Study

The instruments used in this study were: 1) A writing test given to the control and the experimental groups as a pre and post test; 2) Five writing tasks based on the New Headway plus Elementary (for low achievers) and Intermediate (for high achievers) given to all sections over six weeks. 3) The comp form mark-chart which consists of three components: a) A composition form with spaced, consecutively numbered, word-length lines for students to write their essays or paragraphs on so that each word is designated by the number underneath; b) A marking chart with an organized list of eighteen error types and blank boxes so that teachers can mark using numbers only, transferring them from the “comp form” to the “mark-chart. c) A handout (a revision guide) which more fully explains each of the mark chart error types. 4) A form showing students’ self- corrected errors over the five weeks; 5) a table that shows the common mistakes FYES made while writing; and finally 6) the “t” test used to analyze the results of the pre and post test.

IV. RESULTS OF THE STUDY

A. Results Related to the First Question/High Achievers

TABLE I
SHOWS THE MEANS OUT OF 20, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND SIGNIFICANCE ON THE “T” TEST FOR HIGH ACHIEVERS.

		Mean	N	Std. dev	Std. Error. Mean
Pair 1	post control	13.0667	15	3.69	.953
	Post experimental	16.2667	15	2.18	.564
		T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
Pair 1	post-control – post experimental	-3.491	14	.004	

Table (1) above shows the means of the high achievers control and experimental groups on the post test. They are (13, 16.2) respectively which is in favor of the experimental group. The standard deviations for the post test results of both groups are (3.7, 2.2) respectively. The t-calculated is (3.5) which is more than t- tabulated (1.96). This means that the difference between the mean scores of the control group and the experimental group in favor of the experimental group is statistically significant.

B. Results Related to the First Question/Low Achievers

TABLE II
SHOWS MEANS OUT OF 20, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND SIGNIFICANCE ON THE “T” TEST FOR LOW ACHIEVERS.

		Means	N	Std. dev	Std. Error. Mean
Pair 1	Post control	8.7	15	3.09	
	Post experimental	10.3	15	2.74	
		T	Df	Sig-(2-tailed)	
Pair 1	postcontrol- postexperimental	.079	14	.938	

Table 2 above shows the means of the low achievers control and experimental groups on the post test. They are (8.7, 10.3) respectively which is in favor of the experimental group. The standard deviations for the post test results of both groups are (3.09, 2.74) respectively. The t-calculated is (0.79) which is less than t-critical (1.96). This means that the difference between the control group and the experimental group is not statistically significant.

C. Results Related to the Second Question/High Achievers

TABLE III

SHOWS STUDENTS' RESULTS ON THE FIVE WRITING TASKS: THE NUMBER OF WORDS THEY WROTE IN EACH TASK, THE NUMBER OF ERRORS THEY MADE, AND THE NUMBER OF ERRORS THEY WERE ABLE TO CORRECT.

Sr	Students' Names	No. of Words					No. of Errors					No. of Corrected Errors				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Al-Waleed Hamadah	77	108	108	116	119	8	7	5	4	4	3	4	3	3	4
2	Bejad Al-Qahtani	104	107	109	110	112	11	6	5	2	2	4	4	4	2	2
3	Khaled Hakame	77	108	115	118	--	9	5	6	5	--	4	3	4	4	--
4	Saeed Thahaba	104	105	122	127	131	11	11	9	6	6	4	5	5	3	4
5	Abdulaziz Khan	112	120	120	122	130	9	7	7	5	3	3	4	5	4	3
6	Abdulaziz Al-Zahrani	85	100	120	120	123	16	15	10	7	7	3	6	6	5	6
7	Abdulaziz Bawazeer	86	110	112	--	128	9	9	8	--	5	4	5	6	--	6
8	Omar Al-Zahrani	69	78	78	79	110	20	14	8	5	5	5	5	4	3	4
9	Faisal Al-Qahtani	98	100	111	120	125	15	11	8	6	7	6	6	4	4	5
10	Mazin Al-Ghamdi	78	90	114	117	117	19	15	10	10	7	6	10	7	8	6
11	Mohammad Tashkendi	96	119	119	120	132	16	8	7	4	2	5	4	5	3	2
12	Yousef Jastaniah	108	--	118	134	140	12	--	8	8	7	5	--	4	5	6
13	Ali Abdullah Bahamran	74	81	85	90	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	-	-	-
14	Salman Moh'd Al-Ghamdi	85	91	--	108	115	11	8	--	7	5	3	4	-	5	4
15	Fahad Al-Zahrani	77	81	-	88	92	14	12	-	8	8	4	6	-	5	7

As can be seen in Table (3) students in the experimental group (high achievers) have done five writing tasks throughout a six week module. These writing tasks are based on Head Way Plus Intermediate (a book from a series of four books published by Oxford). The writing tasks vary between summary writing, reflection and taking a stand. The average numbers of words in the five tasks are 90, 103, 101, 115 and 122 respectively. The average numbers of errors made by the students in the five writing tasks are 13, 9, 8, 5 and 5 respectively. The average numbers of errors corrected by students are 4, 5, 5, 4 and 4 respectively.

D. Results Related to the Second Question/Low Achievers

TABLE IV

SHOWS STUDENTS' RESULTS ON THE FIVE WRITING TASKS: THE NUMBER OF WORDS THEY WROTE IN EACH TASK, THE NUMBER OF ERRORS THEY MADE AND THE NUMBER OF ERRORS THEY WERE ABLE TO CORRECT.

Sr.	Students' Names	No. of Words					No. of Errors					No. of Corrected Errors				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Hassan Abdulaziz Saleh	48	57	-	57	68	3	0	-	8	5	2	0	-	8	5
2	Khaled Nafea Khaleel	-	50	51	50	70	-	4	9	10	9	-	4	9	8	8
3	Omar Abdalrahman	50	45	55	51	64	4	3	5	7	6	4	3	5	6	5
4	Rayan Abdulkarim Saleh	50	55	54	56	67	6	3	2	3	2	0	3	2	3	2
5	Mansour Yasin Ali Ghalab	50	51	56	-	81	2	12	8	-	4	2	12	8	-	3
6	Muhammad Ali Abdullah	48	46	50	-	51	4	4	2	-	3	3	4	2	-	1
7	Wael Abdullwakeel Hejeri	50	53	-	42	63	2	3	-	5	4	2	2	-	5	4
8	Mohammed Saleh Alelyani	50	46	-	53	71	2	7	-	12	8	2	6	-	11	8
9	Ahmed Jumian Saleh	50	50	59	55	68	5	2	3	9	0	3	2	2	8	0
10	Wail Ahmed Mohammed	50	41	51	55	68	3	8	6	11	6	3	8	5	7	6
11	Mohammad Abdullah	50	59	48	-	-	4	2	3	-	-	4	2	3	-	-
12	Nasser Saeed Saad	52	48	63	60	58	5	3	9	6	3	5	3	9	5	3
13	Motaz Abdulrhman	49	55	50	53	66	4	2	7	11	9	3	2	7	10	4
14	Abdulaziz Saed Yahya	49	46	-	-	62	9	3	-	-	4	7	3	-	-	3
15	Sultan Solaiman Al zaeidi	49	48	56	-	-	9	10	4	-	-	8	10	4	-	-

As can be seen in Table (4) students in the experimental group (low achievers) have done five writing tasks throughout a module of six weeks. These writing tasks were based on Head Way Plus/Elementary. The writing tasks were based on the first five units in the book. The average numbers of words in the five tasks are 49, 50, 52, 53 and 66 respectively. The average numbers of the errors made by the students in the five writing tasks are 5, 4, 7, 8, and 5 respectively. The average numbers of errors corrected by students are 3, 4, 5, 6 and 4 respectively.

E. Results Related to the Third Question/High Achievers

TABLE V

SHOWS THE TYPES OF THE COMMON MISTAKES THE STUDENTS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP MADE IN THE FIVE WRITING TASKS, THEIR PERCENTAGES AND EXAMPLES ON EACH TYPE OF MISTAKE.

№ No.	Students' Common Mistakes	Total Number of mistakes	Percentage	Examples
1	Spelling	136	20%	busnise, negbor, avry, plase, firendly, fimely,
2	Word Missing	113	16%	Moststudents..... interested Haramain trainimportant project
3	Wrong Word	85	12%	The plane took of on time. There jobs that could earn you
4	Verb Tense	73	11%	Before I came to engineering I have been in the college of medicine. Saudi Arabia did a new car.
5	Unnecessary Words	65	9%	KSA wants to build a 16 nuclear reactors. Something I should to do.
6	Capitalization	65	9%	jeddah, king saud university,
7	Articles	56	8%	..Project cost.. lot of money. ..UK helps ...UN to do services
8	Punctuation	45	7%	mr ghamdi said the project needs 6 more months
9	Part of Speech	38	6%	The railway is resistance to hot weather You will doing a lot of things.
10	Agreement	28	4%	Nuclear engineering have the third highest salary. Which mean that will continue
11	Word order	23	3%	They don't know what means Gazal. Every year from KSA more than 30 engineers nuclear finish.
12	Wrong Preposition	17	2%	Most students are interested of industrial engineering. Most students don't join nuclear engineering as the are afraid from failing.

As can be seen in Table (5), the common mistakes in the five writing tasks for high achievers in the experimental group were spelling (20%), word missing (16%), wrong word (12%), verb tense (11%), unnecessary words (9%), capitalization (9%), articles (8%), punctuation (7%), part of speech (6%), agreement (4%), word order (3%) and wrong preposition (2%). Table 5 also shows authentic examples of the common mistakes.

F. Results Related to the Third Question/Low Achievers

TABLE VI

SHOWS THE COMMON MISTAKES THE STUDENTS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP MADE IN THE FIVE WRITING TASKS, THEIR PERCENTAGES AND EXAMPLES ON EACH TYPE OF MISTAKE.

№ No.	Students' Most Common Mistakes	Frequency	Percentage	Examples
1	Spelling	114	37.37%	beutifull, reyad, finally, smol
2	Word missing	70	22.95%	There are a lot of differences between (.....). Teacher (...) very good. I want (...) work outside.
3	Punctuation	37	12.13%	- Riyadh is more beautiful than Jeddah. Also, - I want to work in a school (--) I want to be a good teacher. My favorite job is teaching, I like this job for many reasons.
4	Wrong word	30	9.83%	-Riyadh is bigger the Jeddah. - I like this is for many reasons. - I love in assist patients.
5	Unnecessary word	27	8.85%	- You can see a famous people. - I like to work make things. - I like to work teach maths.
6	Agreement	19	6.22%	- There is many differences between them. - They was very nice. - He go to work every day.
7	Word order	8	2.62%	- He has a car red. - I job like it. - Riyadh is Jeddah bigger.
	Total	305	100%	

As can be seen in Table (6), the common mistakes in the five writing tasks for low achievers in the experimental group are spelling (37%), word missing (22.95%), punctuation (12.13%), wrong word (9.83%), unnecessary words (8.85%), agreement (6.22%), and word order (2.62%). Table 6 also shows authentic examples of the common mistakes.

V. DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS

A. Discussion and Analysis of the First Question/High Achievers

The statistical analysis related to question 1 concerning high achievers (Is there any statistically significant difference in students' achievement in writing that is attributed to indirect correction and error feedback given to FYES writing tasks?) shows results in favor of the experimental group. The mean score of the experimental group is more than that of

the control group. The t test results show that this difference is statistically significant as the value of t calculated (3.14) is bigger than the value of t critical (1.96). This difference in favor of the experimental group may be attributed to the long process students went through to recognize their mistakes and the effort they did to correct them. This procedure may have led students to gain experience in the types of mistakes and consequently to avoid them while writing. The results of this study agree with a few studies done recently about the effects of indirect feedback on students' achievement and on facilitating the process of learning. (Junyi, 2005); Liu, (2008); Hajimohammadi & Mukundan (2011) and Ibarrola (2013) found out that self correction and implicit feedback can help students self edit their writing and consequently improve writing accuracy. Furthermore; research proved that there are differences between high achievers and low achievers in terms of attitudes toward school, attitudes toward teachers, goal valuation, motivation and general academic self- perception in favor of high achievers (Mcoach and Siegle (2001). In addition, high achievers have the ability, confidence persistence and motivation and they are able to organize their study materials and study habits more efficiently and initiate more voluntary interaction (Mcoach and Siegle (2001); Wilson (1999)). The results also indicated that the high-achieving students were more likely than the low-achievers to try to understand meanings thoroughly, to regulate their learning strategies to fit the purpose of the study, and to link new knowledge to their previous learning (Addiba, 2004)

B. Discussion and Analysis of the First Question/Low Achievers

The statistical analysis related to question 1 concerning low achievers didn't show significant results. Although there are differences between the mean scores on the post test in favor of the experimental group, these differences are not statistically significant as the value of t on the t-test is (0.79) which is less than the t tabulated (1.96). This can be referred to the reasons below:

Low achievers don't have enough linguistic, semantic, syntactic and stylistic skills that enable them to deal with the indirect approach of finding and self-correcting errors.

Low achievers lack the motivation and the dedication which is necessary for the long process suggested in this research. It may work for some clear errors like spelling, capitalization and unnecessary words, but low achievers can't deal with parts of speech, word order, subject verb agreement and other errors that need high competence on the part of students (Mcoach and Siegle (2001).

Low achievers in this study have the habit of absenting themselves for the slightest reasons. Out of the 200 hours they are supposed to attend in each semester, they are allowed to be absent for thirty hours and most of them usually exceed this absence limit. This lenient approach of dealing with the absence issue should be reconsidered. The reasons mentioned above form a barrier against applying indirect correction and error feedback on low achievers. The indirect feedback followed by self correction needs to be practiced on daily bases over a reasonably enough period of time so that they affect achievement. This becomes more urgent in teaching language skills especially writing as it relies mainly on the amount of exposure and engagement. The result of this study is in agreement with a few studies done recently about indirect feedback (Kavaliauskiene (2003); Maftoon, Shirazi and Daftarifard (2011); Ibarola (2013); Rana and Perveen (2013). Although these studies didn't have statistically significant results in favor of self correction and error feedback, they revealed that such strategies enhanced the students' linguistic competence. Furthermore, students were able to identify specific problems with their written work and this in turn motivated them to revise their work until they were able to produce better quality work.

C. Discussion and Analysis of the Second Question/High Achievers

Table 3 above contains the number of words, the number of mistakes and the number of corrected mistakes for the experimental group/ high achievers on the five writing tasks students did over six weeks: a thank you letter, a description to your favorite room, two paragraphs about your favorite job, a report about a car accident and a biography. The average numbers of words in the five writing tasks in the first column are (90, 103, 101, 115 and 122) respectively. It is clear from the table that there is a gradual increase in the number of words written in each writing task which refers to the fact that there was learning taking place. Students started with an average of 90 words and ended up with an average of 122 words. This increased number of words may also refer to a psychological reason reflected in the lack of fear of mistakes as students used to correct their mistakes. The second column shows the average number of the mistakes students made in the five writing tasks which are (13, 9, 8, 5 and 5) respectively. As table 3 shows, the number of mistakes is decreasing which indicates that they were getting benefit of self correction. The time the students spent matching the numbers under the mistakes on their writing papers with the types of mistakes in the list of the common mistakes and the investigation, group work and teacher consultation they did to correct the mistakes may have a positive effect on the number of mistakes they make and consequently their performance in writing. The numbers of corrected errors in the third column echo the positive environment about the value of error feedback and indirect correction. The third column in table 3 shows the number of mistakes corrected by the students (4, 5, 5, 4 and 4) respectively. Compared to the number of errors, the results above show that students are on their way to the ultimate goal, that is, avoiding mistakes and correcting them whenever they occur.

D. Discussion and Analysis of the Second Question/Low Achievers

Table 4 above contains the number of words, the number of mistakes and the number of corrected mistakes for the experimental group/ low achievers on the five writing tasks students did over six weeks: an email about your class, a paragraph about where you live, a paragraph about meals in your country, a paragraph describing a holiday and a letter to a pen friend. The average numbers of words in the five writing tasks in the first column are (49, 50, 52, 53 and 66) respectively. It is clear from the table that there is very slight increase in the number of words written in each writing task which reflects poor progress. Students started with an average of 49 words and ended up with an average of 66 words. This slight increase in the number of words may refer to the non-serious nature of low achievers. This idea is emphasized by the many empty slots in table 4 above. The second column shows the average numbers of the mistakes students made in the five writing tasks which are (5, 4, 7, 8, and 5) respectively. As table 4 shows, the number of mistakes is almost linear; they start with 5 and ended with 5 which indicates that indirect feedback and self correction are not the right strategies for them. The time the students spent trying to match the numbers under the mistakes on their writing papers with the types of mistakes in the list of the common mistakes and the claimed investigation, group work and teacher consultation they did to correct the mistakes is not more than a loss of time and consequently their performance didn't show noticeable improvement. The numbers of corrected errors in the third column echo the modest environment about the value of error feedback and indirect correction for low achievers. The third column in table 3 shows the number of mistakes corrected by the students (3, 4, 5, 6 and 4) respectively. Compared to the number of errors the results above show that students are very slow and their way to the ultimate goal that is avoiding mistakes and correcting them whenever they occur is unpaved.

E. Discussion and Analysis of the Third Question

As shown in tables (5&6) above, the common mistakes made by the students in the experimental groups of high and low achievers are almost the same with varying numbers and percentages. These differences refer to the proficiency level of students and the amount of writing students had in the five writing tasks. Spelling, word missing, wrong word, verb tense, punctuation and subject-verb agreement are the most high-frequency mistakes. The results of this study agree with a few studies recently conducted about error analysis and common mistakes made by tertiary students (Tan (2008); Liu (2008); Tahaineh, (2010); Al-Buainain (2012); Camps, Villalobos and Shea (2012)). These studies came up with different classifications of errors and referred them to a variety of reasons and suggested different solutions to deal with them. For Tan (2008) the top four most commonly made errors were word choice, verb form, missing subject and verb tense. These mistakes were caused by limited vocabulary size, poor grammar knowledge and interference from the first language. Liu (2008) had four categories of mistakes on the paragraph level: paragraph development, coherence, unity, and inconsistency in point of view. He referred them to four kinds of negative interlingual transfer. Camps, Villalobos and Shea (2012) have grouped the mistakes according to the native speaker's understanding or not understanding of the message. Tahaineh, (2010) stated that the improper use of prepositions is prominent among EFL Arab learners even at advanced stages of their learning and referred it to transfer and overgeneralization. The studies above have more or less the same reasons and the same suggestions for dealing with these mistakes.

This study is no exception concerning the types of mistakes, the reasons and the suggestive remedial work. The reasons behind the mistakes are possibly lack of exposure to appealing texts where students can acquire vocabulary items according to their level. The lenient approach of dealing with mistakes in writing where students see the mistakes corrected in red on their papers and don't bother themselves to look at them while doing later tasks is one more reason of repeating the same mistakes. Lack of motivation for writing on the part of students makes them lose invaluable chances of progress in using language. Writing on weekly basis is not enough for students to adopt writing as a habit. Most importantly, mother tongue interference is a source of errors while writing in a foreign language. Errors like the missing verbs to be, the misuse of the present perfect occur because these concepts are not available in Arabic language. The wrong use of prepositions happens because they are arbitrary and don't follow certain rules; Arab students generally say: "I am afraid from the lion" instead of saying "I am afraid of the lion".

VI. CONCLUSION

Teachers should recognize the value of providing effective feedback for the improvement of L2 learners' writing skills. Such feedback can motivate and advance students' learning if it emphasizes development and enhancement rather than grading. To make use of its full potential, it must focus on students' metacognition where they become shareholders in the teaching learning process. When feedback involves students and makes them work on discovering and correcting their mistakes, it contributes to minimizing these mistakes and enhancing students' performance in writing. In order to reach such goal, teachers have to work hard on enabling students to get familiar with the mistakes so that they can self correct them or hopefully avoid doing them. The findings of this research proved that the level of students has much to do with deciding which kind of feedback is more appropriate for them. High achievers are a rich environment for indirect and implicit feedback where they can pay much effort to know where they are mistaken and how to correct their mistakes. On the other hand, low achievers tend to be more direct and straightforward in their approach; direct and explicit feedback is more appealing to them.

VII. RECOMMENDATION

For further research involving feedback (direct, indirect, coded, implicit, explicit or any combinations), researchers should take into consideration the students attitudes towards the kind of feedback. Without motivation on the part of students, any kind of error feedback will be meaningless and a loss of time. Furthermore, implicit or indirect types of feedback need a considerable amount of time to show clear significant results; the more students are trained, the more they get acquainted with the codes and the types of mistakes (Junyi (2005); Errel (2007). In addition, researchers are advised not to deal with all mistakes at the same time especially for low achievers; two or three mistakes at a time may be a good idea to help students gradually get familiar with the mistakes and avoid them.

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APPENDIX (1). COMPFORM

A composition form with spaced, consecutively numbered, word-length lines for students to write their essays or paragraphs on

Writing Task

LEVEL: YEAR: NAME:
 No. of Writing task: No. of Words: No. of Mistakes: No. of Corrected Mistakes:

1	2	3	4	5
6	7	8	9	10
11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30
31	32	33	34	35
36	37	38	39	40
41	42	43	44	45
46	47	48	49	50
51	52	53	54	55
56	57	58	59	60
61	62	63	64	65
66	67	68	69	70
71	72	73	74	75
76	77	78	79	80
81	82	83	84	85
86	87	88	89	90
91	92	93	94	95
96	97	98	99	100
101	102	103	104	105
106	107	108	109	110
111	112	113	114	115
116	117	118	119	120

APPENDIX (2). MARKCHART

The mark chart that contains twenty error types used in correcting the writing tasks

MARKCHART SAMPLE

No.	Error TYPE	COMPFORM ERRORS									
1	Capitalization										
2	Spelling										
3	Wrong Word										
4	Part of Speech										
5	Wrong Preposition										
6	Conjunction										
7	Word(s) Missing										
8	Article- ind/ def.										
9	Verb Tense										
10	Auxiliary										
11	Agreement										
12	Awkward										
13	Unnecessary word(s)										
14	Word Order										
15	Hyphenation										
16	Over use of and, I, he										
17	Irrelevant										
18	Punctuation										

Teacher's

Comments:

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The Impact of Different Types of Tasks (Structured and Unstructured) on the Production of Relative Clauses and Lexical Diversity of Iranian EFL University Students

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Abstract—The main purpose of the present study was to investigate the impact of different types of tasks (structured and unstructured) on the production of relative clauses and lexical diversity of Iranian EFL university students. The participants of this study were thirty upper intermediate students of English language in Iranian context. To be certain about the homogeneity of the participants, the Nelson proficiency test was administered. After this stage, they were divided into two groups. Then a cartoon about fifty minutes was played for both groups. The experimental group (unstructured) received the film from the middle, while the control group (structured) saw the film from the beginning. Then, the participants were asked to produce whatever they heard. After analyzing the participants' sentences, the results showed that the control (structured) group outperformed the experimental (unstructured) one in producing the relative clauses while there was no significant difference between the two groups in the case of lexical diversity. Based on the obtained results some recommendations are given.

Index Terms—task, structured task, unstructured task, task-based language teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

There have been different methods and approaches in the history of language teaching and learning. These methods and approaches have been revised and modified based on different theoretical, linguistic and psychological frameworks. Different aspects of languages have been the focus of these theories and methods. For example, in some cases the goal of language teaching was to train the learners to achieve a native-like pronunciation by attending listening activities and memorization of different parts of the language. But the emergence of CLT revolutionized the field of language teaching and learning and caused radical changes in this process. To put it in a nutshell, the purpose of CLT was to understand others and to be understood by others (Zandmoghadam, 2007).

In fact, CLT and Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) necessitated a serious rethinking of language presentation and emphasized on meaning based and positive involving of vocabulary to prosper an interaction-based of language learning in different contexts for different purposes (Chaudhary, 2010).

According to Swan and Walter (1984), the importance of vocabulary and lexical items cannot be ignored in the course of language teaching. It is one of the most demanding and necessary aspects of language teaching and learning that every language learner face.

The main objective of the present study is to investigate the impact of task on the production of relative clauses and lexical diversity of Iranian EFL learners. Looking for effective and appropriate language learning strategies is one of the main concerns of language learners, teachers as well as experts of this field to enable the learners to learn the language for the sake of communication. The purpose of TBLT is to equip the learners with tactics and strategies to recognize different situations and meet their interactional needs based on the setting in which they are in. Satisfying the learners' different needs is the core of Task-based strategy.

The purpose of this study is to teach English through different types of tasks (structured and unstructured) on the production of relative clauses and lexical diversity of Iranian EFL University Students. The intention of this work is to demonstrate teaching relative clauses and lexical diversity with tasks in a dynamic form of practical exercises to remember them actively.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Despite the former language teaching and methods, TBLT tries to equip the learners to learn the intended target language in a meaningful situation. In the traditional language methods, the presentation of language was bit by bit while the teacher was in a full control of the classroom and most of decisions referred to him/her. The learning of languages did not result in communication and only rote learning of isolated materials of the most important goal of language learning. Learners were recognized as passive agents with clean slate. Different affective, cognitive and

psychological factors of the learners were ignored by the teachers and even curriculum designers. On the contrary, in TBLT the roles of learners has changed radically and they should participate in teaching and learning activities as actively as possible to internalize different function of language in real life situations. TBLT teaching supports the ideas that use language to learn it by participation in real based activities and tasks. The emphasis is on natural based situation to familiarize the learners with different functions of language in different contexts.

Structured and Unstructured Tasks

According to (Tavakoli and Skehan, 2005) the term structured can be defined as the clarity of larger structures and series of activates and events to be explained in time. According to this definition, one can claim that tasks with logical story line structures and frameworks are easier to understand and need less cognitive processing to unfold than those tasks with loose and irregular structure.

According to (Skehan 2009), by carrying out different task activities and narrative one it is impossible for learners to pay attention to different aspects of the target language such as complexity, accuracy and fluency simultaneously and that 'committing attention to one area, other things being equal, might cause lower performance unless the learner is assisted through manipulating performance conditions (e.g. the planning time available) or design features of the tasks (e.g. task structure).

In recent years, one of the task design features which have attracted researchers' attention is the inherent storyline structure of a narrative task. According to Tavakoli and Skehan (2005), narrative tasks are defined as 'stories based on a sequenced set of picture prompts, which are given to participants in order to elicit language performance' (pp. 248–9). The storyline structure of an oral narrative task pertains to the degree to which a task has 'a clear time line, a script, a story with a conventional beginning, middle and end, and an appeal to what is familiar and organized in the speaker's mind' (ibid, p. 246). It is assumed that a task which is tightly structured – i.e. has all, or at least most, of the abovementioned features – imposes fewer processing and attentional demands on task performers in simply enacting the task and getting the job done and as a result more attentional recourses would be left over to be devoted to complexity, accuracy and fluency of speech. Skehan and Foster's (1999) subsequent study lent further empirical support to this post-hoc interpretation (cited in Ahmadian and Tavakoli, 2011). They found that, compared to tasks that were loosely structured, narrative tasks with a tightly structured storyline induced learners to produce more fluent language. They also found that tight narrative structure combined with pre-task planning led task performers to speak more accurately in anL2. In another investigative attempt, Tavakoli and Skehan (2005) studied whether and how the degree of structure in a narrative task might influence L2 oral performance. The results of their study revealed that overall task structure has positive and significant effects on complexity, accuracy and fluency of output. For example, in the case of fluency, they found significant differences between structure and unstructured tasks in terms of the number of pauses and speaking time, length of run, the total amount of silence, and false starts. (As cited in Ahmadian, Abdolreza pour, and Ketabi, 2012)

The notion of task structure first emerged from the post-hoc interpretations of the findings of a series of studies (Foster and Skehan 1996; Skehan and Foster 1999) that originally aimed to examine the degree to which familiar and unfamiliar task content would affect L2 oral production. Overall, the results of these studies revealed that talking in an L2 about a topic with which the task performers were familiar was associated with more fluent and accurate oral production and that where task participants were required to talk about unfamiliar information, less fluent and accurate output but more complex language was produced. However, Skehan and Foster in their post-hoc analyses of these findings noticed that the most fluent task performance was elicited by two tasks that had a tightly structured storyline. In a more recent study, Tavakoli and Foster (2008) attempted to replicate the effects for task structure found in this research program. In order to enhance the comparability of the results, they used the same structured and unstructured task employed by Tavakoli and Skehan (2005). The results of their study corroborated the results found by Skehan and Foster (1999) and Tavakoli and Skehan (2005) that task structure are linked with accuracy in L2 oral production. Tavakoli and Foster (2008) concluded that '*L2 performance is affected in predictable ways by design features of narrative tasks*' (p.459). Structured, narrative tasks with a tightly structured storyline induced learners to produce more fluent language. They also found that tight narrative structure combined with pre-task planning opportunity led task performers to speak more accurately in an L2. In another investigative attempt, Tavakoli and Skehan (2005) studied whether and how the degree of structure in a narrative task might influence L2 oral performance. The results of their study revealed that overall task structure has positive and significant effects on complexity, accuracy and fluency of language. For example, in the case of fluency, they found significant differences between structured and unstructured tasks in terms of the number of pauses and speaking time, length of run, the total amount of silence, and false starts. In a more recent study, Tavakoli and Foster (2008) attempted to, among other things, replicate the effects for task structure found in this research program. In order to enhance the comparability of the results, they used the same structured and unstructured task employed by Tavakoli and Skehan (2005).

According to Skehan and Foster (1997; 1999) and Tavakoli and Skehan (2005) structured tasks can increase accuracy in the case of oral production on the part of the learners.

III. METHODS

A. Participants

The participants of the present study were thirty upper-intermediate level female EFL learners from Resalat Teacher Training Center, Zahedan, Iran. The language of all participants was Persian. They were learning English as a foreign language due to less exposure available for them in the context of Iran. None of them had been to an English speaking country before this study. They had been learning English as an academic major about two years and they were somehow proficient in general English. Their age ranged between 18 to 25. The main criteria for participants selection was the ease of access and availability.

B. Instrumentation

The process of data collection was done through the following instruments:

1. Nelson Proficiency Test

In order to make sure that all the participants were at the same level in terms of their language proficiency, a 50-item Nelson English Language Proficiency Test (section 300D) was used (see Appendix A). This multiple-choice test comprised cloze passages, vocabulary, structure, and pronunciation. The English language proficiency test used in the present study was adopted from Fowler and Coe (1978). The overall internal consistency of this proficiency test was determined by Hashemian, Roohani and Fadaei (2012) using Cronbach Alpha (CA) and it turned out to be 0.82, which is an acceptable and high index of reliability.

2. Cartoon Film

A 15 minute part of a silent cartoon film (Tom and Jerry) was provided for participant in two groups and they were asked to repeat the story of the film in certain circumstances specified for each group. The main reason of providing a silent film for participants was to prevent them from taking advantage of the authentic material. As far as an oral narrative task is concerned, due to its very monologue nature, it induces learners to produce stretches of language which are not influenced by interactional and external variables (Yuan & Ellis, 2003). Moreover, since many of the previous studies have used narrative tasks, this would enhance the comparability of the results of this study.

C. Data Collection Procedure

In order to collect the data, the Tom and Jerry film is played for the participants in the two groups and each participant was called from the class individually to narrate the above- mentioned film and write whatever they have understood from it. The film will be played from the very beginning for group 1 while, in the case of the Group 2; they received the film from the middle. It is worth noting that the oral production narration of the participant from the above mention story were recorded and transcribed for further analysis.

D. Data Analysis Procedures

Both groups will perform tasks and their oral L2 production will be recorded and analyzed in terms of the production of relative clauses and lexical diversity.

The following formula will be used to measure the production of relative clauses:

$$\frac{n \text{ correct suppliance in contexts}}{n \text{ obligatory contexts} + n \text{ suppliance in nonobligatory contexts}} \times 100$$

= per cent accuracy

1. Obligatory context: refers to where that particular grammatical feature must have been used!

2. Lexical diversity: will be calculated by calculating the total number of different verbs used in one's speech.

Therefore, the whole study will be conducted in two three sessions.

Session 1: a language proficiency test to make sure that participants are equal in terms of level of proficiency.

Session 2: a structured task will be performed by group 1

Session 3: an unstructured task will be performed by group 2.

All task performances will be audio recorded and analyzed.

IV. RESULTS

The main purposes of the present study were to investigate the effect and difference of structured and unstructured task on the production of relative clauses and lexical diversity in upper-intermediate Iranian EFL learners. To this end, two null hypotheses were posed:

A. Research Hypothesis 1

H₀1: *There is no significant difference between Structured and unstructured tasks in the production of relative clauses in upper-intermediate Iranian EFL learners.*

In the following section, we refer to the measures that were employed in the current study.

TABLE 4.1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR LANGUAGE PRODUCTION OF STRUCTURED AND UNSTRUCTURED GROUPS

Measure	Group	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Lexical diversity	Structured	15	35	48	42.27	3.882
	Unstructured	15	32	44	38.60	3.832
Relative clauses	Structured	15	45	35	40	3.273
	Unstructured	15	30	40	34.73	3.305
	Unstructured	15	20	30	24.60	2.720

As shown in Table 4.3, there are differences in the mean scores of the structured and unstructured groups. As indicated in the table, the mean scores of accuracy and fluency for structured group are greater than that of unstructured group. On the other hand, the mean score of complexity for unstructured group is greater than structured one. To confirm or reject these differences, three Independent-samples t-tests were performed which are presented in Table 4.4.

TABLE 4.2.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TESTS FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN STRUCTURED AND UNSTRUCTURED GROUPS

Measure	Group	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Lexical diversity	Structured Vs. Unstructured	.022	.882	2.603	28	.015
				2.603	27.99	.015
Relative clauses	Structured Vs. Unstructured	.076	.784	4.385	28	.000
				4.385	27.99	.000
				-846	20.81	.407

As it can be seen in Table 4.4, the differences are statistically significant in terms of accuracy and fluency. That is, the structured group produced more fluent and accurate language than unstructured group and that structured task had positive effect on accuracy and fluency of language. In the case of complexity, it was revealed that there was no significant difference between participants in structured and unstructured groups ($t = -846$, $p = .407 > .05$). Thus, complexity of language production was not affected by task structure.

B. Research Hypothesis 2

H₀₂: *There is no significant difference between Structured and unstructured task in the production of lexical diversity in upper-intermediate Iranian EFL learners.*

Like the previous section, the same measures are used for measuring the production of lexical diversity. Descriptive statistics for the production of lexical diversity are presented in Table 4.5.

TABLE 4.3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR LANGUAGE PRODUCTION OF LEXICAL DIVERSITY BY STRUCTURED AND UNSTRUCTURED GROUPS

Measure	Group	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Lexical diversity	Structured	15	.35	.50	.41	.046
	Unstructured	15	.31	.46	.39	.042
Relative clauses	Structured	15	5	13	8.40	2.923
	Unstructured	15	3	9	6.93	1.981
	Unstructured	15	.21	.31	.25	.026

As shown in Table 4.5, there are differences in the mean scores of the structured and unstructured groups in the production of lexical diversity. In order to make sure that whether these differences are statistically significant or no, three Independent-samples t-tests were performed to approve or reject the difference. They are presented in Table 4.6 below.

TABLE 4.4.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TESTS FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN STRUCTURED AND UNSTRUCTURED GROUPS IN PRODUCING LEXICAL DIVERSITY

Measure	Group	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Lexical diversity	Structured Vs. Unstructured	.158	.694	1.321	28	.197
				1.321	27.76	.197
Relative clauses	Structured Vs. Unstructured	2.613	.117	1.609	28	.119
				1.609	24.62	.120
				3.047	22.67	.006

As illustrated in Table 4.6, the differences are not statistically significant between participants in structured and unstructured groups in terms of accuracy and fluency with the p-values of .119 and .197 respectively. In other words, the production of lexical diversity was not affected by both structured and unstructured tasks. In the case of complexity, it was found that there was significant difference between participants in structured and unstructured groups ($p = .005 < .05$).

V. DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATION

The present research was an attempt to provide new evidence for the impact of different types of tasks (structured and unstructured) on the production of relative clauses and lexical diversity of Iranian EFL university students.

Q1. *Is there any significant difference between Structured and unstructured tasks in the production of relative clauses in upper-intermediate Iranian EFL learners?*

Unlike Skehan and Foster (1999), the present study found a positive impact of structured task on the accuracy of performance. Besides many researchers (Tavakoli and Skehan, 2005; Tavakoli and Foster, 2008, Tavakoli, 2009) have claimed that structured tasks can facilitate the process of accuracy aspect of language learning if sufficient and appropriate inputs are provided on the part of teacher in a natural-like situation. According to Skehan and Foster (1999), by providing good pre-task activities and engaging the learners through careful structured tasks prior the main tasks and activities, we can increase the learners' performance in different aspects of language such as accuracy and fluency.

Q2. *Is there any significant difference between Structured and unstructured tasks in the production of lexical diversity in upper-intermediate Iranian EFL learners?*

Bases on the statistics and findings there no significance was observed between the two groups. In other words, the production of lexical diversity was not affected by both structured and unstructured tasks. In the case of complexity, it was found that there was significant difference between participants in structured and unstructured groups. To sum up, the results revealed that performing a structured task under careful online planning conditions would seem to be the best combination of task structure and online planning since it enables speakers to produce language with comparatively higher levels of complexity and accuracy and arguably fluency. This combination might enable language pedagogy to foster the 'balanced language development' in which the development of fluency is matched by the development of accuracy and complexity and, therefore, 'simply transacting tasks (and expressing meanings) is less likely to compromise longer-term interlanguage restructuring' (Skehan, 1998).

There are some reasons for these results. One of them has to do with unfamiliarity of Iranian EFL learners with the authentic material because as we know there is no use of such materials in Iranian context. The second reason refers to this fact that in Iranian context there is no emphasis on listening skill, so students cannot analyse the texts completely.

This study emphasized the effectiveness of the task-based approach on technical vocabulary learning and relative clauses. This suggests that the students' production improved substantially with the application of task based instruction. The current study made it clear that task-based language teaching is definitely more effective than traditional approach in teaching vocabulary in general and language production in particular. As we know English is taught as a foreign language in Iran and the learners has no exposure to real situation of language uses. The focus of language learning and teaching is mainly on educational objectives and communication and interaction receive no attention in this context. The methods of language presentation are mainly traditional and grammatical items are at the center of language teaching activities, so there is no opportunity for learners to practice whatever they learnt in real-life situations. TBLT can enhance more opportunities for Iranian learners to engage in different activities and natural uses of language in situation based settings based on different topics and purposes.

As discussed earlier, one of the most important aspects of TBLT is the time and energy allocated by the learners to different activities in order to acquire fluency, complexity as well as accuracy and earn these language aspects as effectively as possible. As a result, the aim of teachers' lesson plan and designing different activities must rotate around these aspects to conduct the learners in the best way of language learning. According to many experts one of the major drawbacks of TBLT refers to sequencing and gradation of different tasks in the process of language presentation on the part of the teacher (Long and Crookes, 1992; Robinson, 2003, 2006).

According to Robinson (2003, 2006), more empirical research must be done to find those factors affecting different elements in task difficulty and gradation of different activities according to learners' needs, wants and situation in the course of language learning. Thus, the results of the present study can be used as an empirical basis to select, grade and sequence tasks within task-based syllabi and testing.

In the case of unstructured tasks, the performance of the participants was not as regular as in the case of structured tasks. We can contribute this fact to ambiguity and lack of clarity in the case of unstructured tasks. The participants were not able to make a rational and clear connection between different. Therefore, the task performers had to ascertain the correct sequence of events unfolding in the video and the conceptual content that corresponds to it, put it in order, and then translates the message into actual words.

As Batstone (2005) argued the structured tasks can result in an establishment of form focus context and conduct learners to gain knowledge of language discourse, in which phonological, grammatical as well as lexical parameters of language manifest in learners; output. This explanation is in accord with Level's (1989) argument that monitoring is context-sensitive. It is also consistent with Kormos' (1999) suggestion that error detection depends, among other things, on the accuracy demand of the situation.

The final point is that designing different tasks and activities based on the learners' needs is among the most demanding job of every language teacher. Although TBLT has attracted many researchers and experts' attention all over the world, to put its theories into practice, we need a lot of evidence and research to travel this long path in the future. However, both of these professional strata (teachers and researchers) should devote time and effort to investigate the role of factors that play relatively significant roles in learners' task performance, a necessity that has been already given impetus within research and practical circles, as shown by the present review study. It is hoped that future studies would

shed more light on mechanisms that are involved in learners' ability to perform pedagogical tasks. (Fahim, Nourzadeh, and Fat'hi, 2011)

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An Analysis of Pragmatic Functions of Hedging in American Presidential Inaugural Addresses

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Abstract—This paper endeavors to analyze the functions of hedging devices in American presidential inaugural addresses from the 20th century to present on the Cooperative Principle and the Politeness Principle. Hedging is an important ingredient of fuzziness and plays an important role in human communication. People often take it as an effective strategy to improve their expressiveness and communicative effects. In American presidential inaugural addresses, the application of hedging contributes a lot to the mildness, politeness and flexibility of linguistic expressions, thus fulfilling the needs of some special political purposes.

Index Terms—hedging, inaugural address, the CP, the PP

I. INTRODUCTION

The article “Fuzzy Sets” by L.A.Zadeh (L.A.Zadeh: 1965), which made a breakthrough in fuzzy research, means the establishment of the fuzzy theory. G. Lakoff defining hedges as “words whose job is to make things fuzzier or less fuzzy” introduced the notion of hedging in 1972. From the pragmatic perspective, hedges refer to words or phrases whose main function is to modify the meaning of utterances in relation to truth-condition. Hedging is a means through which authors can show their certainty and doubt towards their claim, showing the confidence they have in their claim, and communicating it to their readers. With the help of hedges, authors may leave some room for readers to judge the truth value of their statements. Some examples of hedging are *may*, *probably*, *assume*, etc.

The presidential address is a speech given at a special ceremony intended to introduce a new president. Presidential inaugural address, especially American presidential inaugural addresses form a special genre. Different from other political speeches, the aim of the presidential address is mainly to establish the status of a new president, and to try to arouse people’s belief on their traditional values such as liberty, freedom, religious belief, etc, but not to gain more votes.

As a special form of discourse which has both oral and written characteristics, the American presidential inaugural address has aroused great interest of the critics, analysts and linguists. More often than not, it was mainly concerned with translation, stylistics and rhetoric. And few students’ work has been done from the perspective of hedging. So, it is necessary for us to carry out studies on hedges in American presidential inaugural address to bring some hints for foreign language teaching, intercultural communication, and translation.

Beginning from the 1990s, the pragmatic study of hedging drew attention of many linguists both in China (He Ziran, 1990) and abroad (Froolen 1991). It is claimed that vagueness is a universal language phenomenon and it has much to do with pragmatics. To study hedging from the perspective of pragmatics is of much practical use. American Presidential inaugural addresses, as a special genre, though revised many a time, resort to hedging devices sometimes to meet the need of vagueness.

II. THEORETICAL GUIDELINE

A. Hedging and the Cooperative Principle

The Cooperative Principle (CP), as one of Grice’s important contributions to the research of conversation, has been tremendously discussed in the past few decades. This section will discuss how hedges perform their communicative duties in American presidential inaugural addresses by observing or flouting the CP.

1) The Co-operative Principle

One of the major theories in pragmatics is the theory of conversational implicature proposed by the Oxford philosopher Herbert Paul Grice, who held that “our talk exchanges don’t normally consist of a succession of disconnected remarks, and would not be rational if they did. They are characteristically, to some degree at least, cooperative efforts; and each particular recognizes in them, to some extent, a common purpose or set of purposes, or at least a mutually accepted direction.” (Grice,1975,p.45) Grice formalizes his observation that when we communicate with one another, we try to be cooperative by means of what he has elevated into a notion called the Cooperative Principle. Grice’s suggestion is that there is a set of over-arching assumptions guiding any conduct of conversation (Levinson, 1983). He identified four basic maxims of conversation which jointly constitute a general Cooperative Principle:

A). The maxim of Quality

Try to make your contribution one that is true, specially:

- i) do not say what you believe to be false
- ii) do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence

B). The maxim of Quantity

- iii) make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purposes of the exchange
- iv) do not make your contribution more informative than is required

C). The maxim of Relevance

Make your contributions relevant

D). The maxim of Manner

Be perspicuous, and specifically

- v) avoid obscurity
- vi) avoid ambiguity
- vii) be brief
- viii) be orderly

The Cooperative Principle and its maxims can be boiled down to the following: make your contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged. Undoubtedly, Grice's view of the nature of communication met the objection that the view may do nothing but to describe a philosopher's paradise, but nobody actually speaks like that all the while. (Levinson, 1983) In fact, Grice meant to point out it is not true that people have to follow these principles to have successful communication. Rather, in most daily talks, when the communication doesn't proceed according to participants' expectations, the principles are nevertheless being observed at some deeper level, and thus, implicatures are triggered. It has been claimed that part of the definition of human language lies in the fact that they can be used to deceive and misinform (Lyons, 1977), which can also be seen in American presidential inaugural addresses.

2). The CP analysis of hedging in American Presidents' Inaugural Addresses

American presidential inaugural addresses are characterized by their far-reaching and ineradicable influence upon the overall atmosphere of the U.S.A. Consequently, presidents are inclined to be extremely cautious in choosing appropriate expressions to make sure that the information is conveyed in a proper way. For this purpose, presidents tend to pick up varieties of hedges to perfect their speeches.

Quantity-related hedges

Quantity-related hedges are employed when speakers are inclined to deliberately withhold information, provide the "right" amount of information and protect themselves. For example,

[1] For the **more than** 30 years that I have served this Nation, I have believed that this injustice to our people, this waste of our resources, was our real enemy. For 30 years **or more**, with the resources I have had, I have vigilantly fought against it. I have learned, and I know, that it will not surrender easily. (Inaugural Address of Lyndon Baines Johnson, January 20, 1965)

The bold-faced words "more than" and "more" are cited from the inaugural address of president Johnson who employed the expression "more than" and "more" to hedge the specific number of time that he had served the U.S.A. The number indicative of lower limit "30 years" combining with the hedge "more than" can not only express that Johnson had served the U.S.A for at least 30 years, but also avoid the arguments from other parties, thus achieving the purpose of self-protection.

[2] **Almost** a year ago, in company with 16 free nations of Europe, we launched the greatest cooperative economic program in history. The purpose of that unprecedented effort is to invigorate and strengthen democracy in Europe, so that the free people of that continent can resume their rightful place in the forefront of civilization and can contribute once more to the security and welfare of the world.

Our efforts have brought new hope to all mankind. We have beaten back despair and defeatism. We have saved a number of countries from losing their liberty. **Hundreds of millions of** people all over the world now agree with us, that we need not have war—that we can have peace. (Inaugural Address of Harry Truman, Thursday, January 20, 1949)

In example [2], President Truman resorted to the hedging devices "almost" and "hundreds of millions of" to meet the need of vague expression. The hedge "almost" and the round-number "one year" help to make up an acceptable numerical conception that should be free from any suspicion concerning its truthfulness. The hedge "hundreds of millions of" can also avoid arbitrariness that might result from the proposition of an accurate number.

[3] Of the undoubted abuses which have grown up under the eighteenth amendment, part are due to the causes I have just mentioned; but part are due to the failure of **some** States to accept their share of responsibility for concurrent enforcement and to the failure of many State and local officials to accept the obligation under their oath of office zealously to enforce the laws. (Inaugural Address of Herbert Hoover, March 4, 1929)

The hedge "some" in example [3] is deliberately employed by President Herbert Hoover to withhold information, thus avoiding offence and being polite.

Quality-related hedges

American presidential inaugural addresses, as a special political discourse, certainly represent a high degree of truth.

No matter how presidents themselves believe that statement or not or to what degree they commit themselves to the truthfulness of what they say, the hearers might have their own understanding of whether the statement is true or not. Hedging devices, as an effective way to tailor the quality of statements under particular contexts, are often employed by speakers to obtain particular implicatures through either abiding or by flouting the maxim of quality. Look at [4]:

[4] I am told that tens of thousands of prayer meetings are being held on this day, and for that I am deeply grateful. We are a nation under God, and I believe God intended for us to be free. It would be fitting and good, **I think**, if on each Inauguration Day in future years it should be declared a day of prayer. (First Inaugural Address of Ronald Reagan, JANUARY 20, 1981)

When President Ronald Reagan expressed his personal opinion that each Inauguration Day should be declared a day of prayer, he applied the quality hedge “I think” to make his speech more objective and avoid making his words arbitrary and bearing responsibility for the falseness of his idea due to lack of evidence.

In the following example, William Howard Taft, president of the United States, expressed his wish to minimize the evils resulting from immigration. The hedge “sincerely” commits President Howard to the great cause of making efforts to improve the condition of immigrants. The use of the hedging device “sincerely” helps confirm speaker’s sincerity towards the propositional attitude.

[5] The admission of Asiatic immigrants who cannot be amalgamated with our population has been made the subject either of prohibitory clauses in our treaties and statutes or of strict administrative regulation secured by diplomatic negotiation. I **sincerely** hope that we may continue to minimize the evils likely to arise from such immigration without unnecessary friction and by mutual concessions between self-respecting governments. Meantime we must take every precaution to prevent, or failing that, to punish outbursts of race feeling among our people against foreigners of whatever nationality who have by our grant a treaty right to pursue lawful business here and to be protected against lawless assault or injury. (Inaugural Address of William Howard Taft, March 4, 1909)

Due to the unique characteristic of political arena, no propositions or even promises should be taken seriously. Hedges, as an effective means to adjust the propositional quality to a degree, just meet the special political purpose through strengthening the deceiving power of politicians’ statements.

Relevance-related hedges

Studies show that Grice’s Maxim of Relevance is in most cases well adhered to in American presidential inaugural addresses through the use of hedges guaranteeing immediate relevance. Look at the bold-faced word in example [56],

[6] All countries, including our own, will greatly benefit from a constructive program for the better use of the world’s human and natural resources. Experience shows that our commerce with other countries expands as they progress **industrially** and **economically**. (Inaugural Address of Harry Truman, Thursday, January 20, 1949)

Harry Truman (the first president of the U.S.A after the Cold War) put forward four major courses of action. The “program” mentioned in this excerpt is based on the fourth course of action—“Fourth, we must embark on a bold new program for making the benefits of our scientific advances and industrial progress available for the improvement and growth of underdeveloped areas.” Thus, President Truman employed the relevance hedge “economically” and “industrially” to make his speech relevant to his proposal. The employment of this hedging device helps express that only economic-related development and expansion is favorable but not non-economic development, such as military development.

Manner-related hedges

In American presidential inaugural addresses, there are situations that need to have clear-cut sentences or viewpoints, and obscurity or redundancy leading to misunderstanding is not allowed. Hedges in relation to manner can have an effect in helping the speeches to abide by the Maxim of Manner. Look at following citation from the inaugural address of Herbert Hoover on March 4, 1929.

[7] Although education is primarily a responsibility of the States and local communities, and rightly so, yet the Nation as a whole is vitally concerned in its development everywhere to the highest standards and to complete universality. Self-government can succeed only through an instructed electorate. Our objective is not **simply** to overcome illiteracy. The Nation has marched far beyond that. The more complex the problems of the Nation become, the greater is the need for more and more advanced instruction. Moreover, as our numbers increase and as our life expands with science and invention, we must discover more and more leaders for every walk of life. We can not hope to succeed in directing this increasingly complex civilization unless we can draw all the talent of leadership from the whole people. (Inaugural Address of Herbert Hoover, March 4, 1929)

President Hoover used the hedge “simply” to render the statement brief while powerful in illustrating the objective of American civilization. The hedge increases the strength of the negative word “not” and helps emphasize the objective of American civilization.

Another example of manner hedges is listed below.

[8] The world itself is now dominated by a new spirit. Peoples more numerous and more politically aware are craving and now demanding their place in the sun—not **just** for the benefit of their own physical condition, but for basic human rights (Inaugural Address of Jimmy Carter, January 20, 1977)

The manner hedge “just” employed by President Carter, no doubt, emphasizes the reason why people are demanding for their place in the sun, not only for the benefit of their own physical condition, but rather for basic human rights.

B. *Politeness and Pragmatic Vagueness in American Presidential Inaugural Addresses*

Although the CP is frequently employed in verbal communication, it is not universal to all communicative situations, for there are linguistic communities to which not all of them are applicable. We should notice that the CP in itself can not explain:

- (i) why people are often so indirect in conveying what they mean;
- (ii) what is the relation between sense and force when non-declarative types of sentences are being considered (Leech 1983 :80)

Due to this reason, the Politeness Principle and Face-Threatening –Act theory cannot be regarded as other principles added to the CP, but as necessary complements. And for pragmatic analysis of hedging in American presidential inaugural addresses, it is not enough to analyze it only from the perspective of CP. Hence, studying hedging in terms of the PP and FTA theory is quite necessary.

The Politeness Principle

He Ziran (2003) once pointed out politeness is a linguistic universal .By saying this, he means that 1) linguistic politeness exists in all languages and 2) politeness considerations regulate every human being's behavior in social interaction. The linguistic manipulation in American presidential inaugural addresses is no exception. In this study, two conceptualization of politeness including Leech's (1983) Politeness Principle, Brown and Levinson's Face Theory, are employed to interpret the motivation of using pragmatic vagueness in American presidential inaugural addresses.

The maxims of the PP go in pairs as follows.

- A). Tact Maxim (in impositives and commissives)
 - (i) Minimize cost to other
 - (ii) (Maximize benefit to other
- B). Generosity Maxim (in impositives and commissives)
 - (i) Minimize benefit to self
 - (ii) Maximize cost to self
- C).Approbation Maxim (in expressives and assertives)
 - (i) Minimize dispraise of other
 - (ii) Maximize praise of other
- D). Modesty Maxim (in expressives and assertives)
 - (i) Minimize praise of self
 - (ii) Maximize dispraise of self
- E). Agreement Maxim (in assertives)
 - (i) Minimize disagreement between self and other
 - (ii) Maximize agreement between self and other
- F). Sympathy Maxim (in assertives)
 - (i) Minimize antipathy between self and other
 - (ii) Maximize sympathy between self and other

In short, Leech introduces the PP which runs as follows:

- (a) minimize (all things being equal) the expression of impolite beliefs;
 - (b) Maximize (all things being equal) the expression of polite beliefs.
- (Thomas 1995:159)

C. *The FTA Theory*

Face –threatening –act (FTA) theory is the further extension of Leech's Politeness concept. According to Brown and Levinson, *Face* has two aspects—*positive* and *negative*. "Positive face is the need to be connected and negative face is the need to be independent" (Yule, 1996,p. 61-62). Illocutionary acts that are possible to damage or threaten another person's face are known as *face –threatening acts* (FTAs) .In order to reduce the possibility of damage to the hearer's face or to the speaker's own face, speakers are inclined to employ certain strategies, such as hedging devices to save the hearer's face or the speaker's face.

Positive face strategy is related to hedging because when presidents have to mention something rather acute, they should not show their prejudice against any other countries. What they should do is to talk about things objectively.

Negative face strategy also has much to do with hedging strategy. When presidents talk about sharp things, no matter how indignant they are, they should not impose their positions on others. What they should do is to show the consistency and impartiality of their country's policy instead of blindly emphasizing the absolute truth of their own positions.

III. A CASE STUDY: PRESIDENT OBAMA'S INAUGURAL ADDRESS

From the above description, we know that pragmatic conceptualization of politeness can be employed to explore why presidents would use hedging in their inaugural addresses. In this section, President Obama's inaugural address will be cited as a concrete example to further study how presidents achieve politeness by using hedging in their inaugural

addresses.

Due to the limitation of the length, we will choose some excerpts as examples to show how the politeness principle and face strategies are appropriately employed.

A. *Politeness Principle and Obama's Inaugural Address*

In this part, how President Obama achieved politeness through hedges is explored in accordance with Leech's principle of politeness. Look at the citations of [9] and [10].

[9] To the Muslim world, we seek a new way forward, based on **mutual interest and mutual respect**. To those leaders around the globe who seek to sow conflict, or blame their society's ills on the West - know that your people will judge you on what you can build, not what you destroy. To *those* who cling to power through corruption and deceit and the silencing of dissent, know that you are on the wrong side of history; but that we will extend a hand if you are willing to unclench your fist.

[10] To the people of **poor nations**, we pledge to work alongside you to make your farms flourish and let clean waters flow; to nourish starved bodies and feed hungry minds. And to *those nations* like ours that enjoy relative plenty, we say we can no longer afford indifference to suffering outside our borders; nor can we consume the world's resources without regard to effect. For the world has changed, and we must change with it.

In [9], President Obama observed the maxim of agreement and maxim of sympathy. He maximized agreement between the United States of America and the Muslim world. Since this inaugural address is not only heard by American, but also audiences in other countries including Muslim nations, President Obama minimized the disagreement between America and the Muslim world to preserve the face of the audience of the Muslim world. Hence, he used the hedging phrase "mutual interest and mutual respect" to maximize the agreement, and consequently achieved politeness.

The italicized word "those" in [9] and [10] belong to the hedging group called subjects with unclear referents. Through the application of this hedging word, President Obama actually maximized sympathy between America and the related nations or leaders. Without pointing out clearly what they exactly refer to, on the one hand, he minimized antipathy between them; on the other hand, he showed his politeness and friendship.

In [10], there is another form of hedging – plural forms, to achieve the aim of being polite. Through the use of hedging words "poor nations and those nations", Obama ingeniously maximized sympathy between the US and the other nations concerned. The hedging strategies helped make him polite and his speech objective.

B. *Face Strategies and Obama's Inaugural Address*

In his inaugural address, President Obama employed the positive face strategy. As the newly-elected president, he made America a strong figure by using such kind of utterances as "We remain the most prosperous, powerful nation on Earth" to praise the country. He also praised the American ancestors by means of expression "we remember with humble gratitude those brave Americans who, at this very hour, patrol far-off deserts and distant mountains." Here, the adjective "brave" is a hedge used as positive strategy to show respect and politeness to his citizens who have made efforts to the establishment and development of the U.S.A.

Besides positive strategies, there are also some negative strategies in Obama's inaugural address used to make the speech more polite and tactful.

As is known to all, in inaugural addresses, presidents will surely mention foreign policies made by American government. But due to the purpose of preserving the negative face desire of the nations or governments concerned, the presidents will pay more attention to their choice of words and express themselves in a careful way.

President Obama is the same. When he talked about some new foreign policies, on the one hand, he tried to arrange his remarks in a skillful way so as not to impose their opinions on others; on the other hand, he still bore in mind his position to maintain the high and strong position of the United States of America. For example:

[11] "We **will** begin to responsibly leave Iraq to its people, and forge a hard-earned peace in Afghanistan. With **old friends and former foes**, we **will** work tirelessly to lessen the nuclear threat, and roll back the specter of a warming planet."

The bold-faced words in the example are all hedges used by President Obama to understate some touchy international relationship. With the help of those hedging words, President could not only guard and maintain the position of America, but also make what he said sound mild and acceptable. Specifically, the hedging word "will" shows the intention of the American government that they would like to give freedom to Iraq people and hope Afghanistan would be peaceful. The plural word "old friends" and "former foes" are also employed in a clever way because they could help President Obama avoid specifying the nations or governments concerned.

Thus, President Obama not only showed his consideration to American hearers, but also expressed his great respect to citizens in other countries such as Iraq and Afghanistan.

IV. FUNCTIONS OF HEDGING IN AMERICAN PRESIDENTS' INAUGURAL ADDRESSES

In the above sections, we have analyzed the hedging devices from the perspective of pragmatics. Here in the following part, we will study the communicative and practical functions of hedging language in American presidential

inaugural addresses.

A. *Avoiding Absoluteness*

One of the main functions of hedges in inaugural addresses is to make utterances not so assertive and avoid absoluteness. According to Hubler (Huber, 1983), the reason for using hedges is to make sentences more acceptable to the hearer and thus their chances of ratification will be increased. Thus the application of hedges will make the description of events more flexible and acceptable.

In the study of the American presidential inaugural addresses in the 20th and 21st century, we have found that hedges like *almost*, *some*, *possible*, etc are often employed to meet the needs of vagueness and make the information being conveyed more believable and flexible. See the examples of [12] and [13]:

[12] The Panama Canal will have a most important bearing upon the trade between the eastern and far western sections of our country, and will greatly increase the facilities for transportation between the eastern and the western seaboard, and may **possibly** revolutionize the transcontinental rates with respect to bulky merchandise. (Inaugural Address of William Howard Taft, March 4, 1909)

[13] Communications and commerce are global; investment is mobile; technology is **almost** magical; and ambition for a better life is now universal. We earn our livelihood in peaceful competition with people all across the earth. (First Inaugural Address of William Jefferson Clinton, January 20, 1993)

In the two examples, through the application of the hedging words “possibly” and “almost”, Presidents Taft and Clinton made their statements more believable and flexible. If presidents had stated the information definitely, hearers might have doubted about the truthfulness of their utterances.

B. *Achieving Politeness*

Another function of hedging device is to achieve the result of politeness. According to the Politeness Principle, speakers will choose to employ politeness to show awareness of another person’s face. From this, we can see that the need to maintain face is the reason why we choose to imply rather than assert explicitly or why we use hedges to express our attitude indirectly. That is also the reason why American presidents employ hedging devices in their inaugural addresses.

The ancient Indian sage Manu once said that a good politician might *Speak the pleasant, but not the untruth; speak the truth, but not the unpleasant*, which to some degree explains functional vagueness in obeying the maxim of quality and the principle of politeness. In American presidential inaugural addresses, politeness also plays an important role. For example:

[14] Of the undoubted abuses which have grown up under the eighteenth amendment, part are due to the causes I have just mentioned; but part are due to the failure of **some** States to accept their share of responsibility for concurrent enforcement and to the failure of many State and local officials to accept the obligation under their oath of office zealously to enforce the laws. (Inaugural Address of Herbert Hoover, March 4, 1929)

President Herbert Hoover didn’t point out exactly the names of the states in the above excerpt. In this way, the speaker could not only express his opinion, but also make the speech polite and tactful.

C. *Accomplishing Tactfulness*

To make the speech tactful is the third function of hedging in American presidential inaugural addresses. As we all know, the newly-elected presidents would usually declare new policies that they would carry out during their tenure of office. But one thing the politicians should remember is that they must avoid making clear-cut public statements on touchy issues. It’s vital for them to choose words carefully and make what they said tactful and mild. Under this circumstance, resorting to hedges is a good way to avoid direct reference. For example,

[15] To the people of **poor nations**, we pledge to work alongside you to make your farms flourish and let clean waters flow; to nourish starved bodies and feed hungry minds. And to **those nations** like ours that enjoy relative plenty, we say we can no longer afford indifference to suffering outside our borders; nor can we consume the world’s resources without regard to effect. For the world has changed, and we must change with it. (Inaugural address of Barack Obama, January 20, 2009)

Here, through employing the plural forms, President Obama on the one hand conveyed the “right” amount of information; on the other hand, he avoided giving offence to the related countries because he didn’t point out the names of the countries explicitly.

V. SUMMARY

After a careful study of the inaugural addresses of American presidents, we find that hedging is an effective way employed by presidents to realize special political purpose. Words and impersonal structures are the most often used hedging devices, especially the modal auxiliary “*may*”, which is almost employed by every president. Another finding in the study is that the use of hedging in American presidential inaugural addresses is not arbitrary, but follows certain communicative principles such as the Co-operative Principle, the Polite Principle and the Face-Threatening –Act Theory. Finally, after a contrastive analysis, it is found that presidents tend to use less and less hedges in their inaugural

addresses. For example, American presidents in the early 20th century used almost eight to ten hedges in each of their speeches, but in the 21st century, the inaugural addressees have so far seldom used hedges especially on international issues.

The present study has been quite tentative, so there is unavoidable limitation. Firstly, because of the limitation of time and resources, we have just categorized the major forms of hedging in American presidential inaugural addresses, without analyzing the frequency of them; secondly, this paper has not carried out a contrastive study between the inaugural addresses and other speeches made by the same president. If we could make such a contrastive analysis, undoubtedly we can have a better understanding of American presidential inaugural addresses. There is no denying that more researches on this topic remain to be conducted.

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An Investigation into the English Language Needs of Bank Employees of Saderat Bank in Mashhad

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Abstract—With the increase in marketing and trading, recognition of the need for improved English communication skills has been growing among Banking professionals. Need analysis is a chief point to consider in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses for syllabus design and materials development. This study was done in order to understand to what extent Bank employees of Saderat bank in Mashhad need to use English at the present time and future and also to find out what problems in using English they have during their work. This research was done in Saderat Banks in Mashhad, in some parts of the central office such as: management department, inspection department, financial marketing and 10 branches with Foreign Exchange departments, Accounting department, Transfer department and Loan department. The participants included 70 bank employees with different job positions. They were asked to answer a questionnaire which included 33 closed questions and 1 open-ended question to identify English skills that they need in their job, the problems they have in using English and their desire for taking an English training course. Based on the data analysis it became clear that they need speaking skill the most and they have problems with all the skills. They stated that Bank should provide English training courses for them.

Index Terms—English for Specific Purpose, need analysis, banking and finance marketing and trading

I. INTRODUCTION

English language plays a very important role as the noticeable means for communication in the global community. Language and communication skills are among the main concerns of bank employee. karimi & Vahdani Sanavi (2014) argue, "English language is an international language with respect to different aspects of communication : sharing information via science and technology, communicating through commercial activities and also travelling around the world for different reasons". One of the issues that have started in recent years is the growing need for courses in and test of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Let's first give a definition of ESP.

"English for Specific Purpose is a term that refers to teaching or studying English for a particular career (like law, medicine) or for business in general" (International Teacher Training Organization, 2005). There is a specific reason for learning English. The origin of ESP and its progress is closely related with learners interest in different courses like financial trading as I show in my article. Finance and banking professionals, as our experience shows, are among the group with increasing demands for ESP. Sukwivat (1985) argues that, "more than a century ago, English was needed for national survival, today it is needed for economic survival. This statement implies that English is crucial in the process of economic development". In this competitive situation of financial institutions, an organization requires some competitive advantage to sustain. Customer satisfaction can be considered as an important factor for success and developing it, is crucial. If this is achieved, it will facilitate the strategic objectives of the Bank. Languages like politics are important to our working lives. Saderat bank has newly founded an international marketing department and provided a money exchange place. This shows that essential improvements are being made in agreement with new situations. Language for specific purpose (ESP) has gained a crucial place among the academic education in the 21st century. The instruction in this case is situational and is based on topics related to some specific fields like business and finance (Hayati,2008; Hanford,2011;Khani-Aran:et al,2012). The present study collected and analyzed primary data on the English language needs of banking and financial professions in Iran. This research about language needs was done in order to help make a better match between the real use of foreign language in their working environment.

A. Review of Literature

Dudley –Evans and St John (1998) argue that, "in the 1950 and 1960 development in the international economy such as the growth of science and technology, the increased use of English as the international language of science, technology and business, the increased economic power of certain oil-rich countries and the number of students studying abroad led to the full development of the ESP movement".

Strevens (1980) argues that, "as the use of English has recently and massively expanded in the world, the demand for instruction in English as a foreign language (EFL) has also grown and this demand is more and more specific to the learners' need".

Richards (1885) argues that, "the aims of a need analysis are to determine situations, tasks activities in which learners will use English and those learners' present level of competence".

Ellis and Johnson (1993) argue that, "business English shares common characteristics with other varieties of English for specific purposes (ESP), as it is based on needs analysis, design, course design and material selection and development"

Florence O. Adewumi and Oluwakemi A. Owoyemi (2012) argue that,

"working in financial service sector, especially the banking sector, requires a high level of interactions by the roles, functions and responsibilities of Junior Banking officers and Middle Management Staff of the banks. It is therefore important that bank staff at different levels need to be highly proficient in the use of English language. This study is necessitated by the gap in the existing literature or research on the need to incorporate English language into the training programme of bank employees. Several studies have been carried out by educationists and researchers in areas related to the focus of this study. Some of them are analytical in nature, others are either evaluative, comparative or both evaluative and analytical or evaluative, analytical and comparative. However, needs analysis came into being as a result of a demand for English course geared or directed to specific needs of the learners after the Second World War. Amongst other great contributions to the concept of Needs Analysis is Munby". As cited in Florence O. Adewumi and Oluwakemi A. Owoyemi (2012) "in his communicative syllabus design presented a highly detailed set of procedures for discovering target situational needs, that is, what the learners need to do in a target situation. To him, Needs are 'necessities', 'lacks' and 'Wants'. Necessities are types of needs determined by the demands of the target situation, that is, what the learners have to know in order to function effectively in the target situation e.g. what a businessman or woman may need to communicate effectively at sales. 'Lacks' are the necessities the learner does not have while 'wants' are the learner's wishes and views on the target situational needs. Munby went further and came out with a detailed set of procedures for identifying learners' needs and calls this "this Communicative Needs Processor" (CNP). This consists of a range of questions about important communication variables which affect communication needs". (Munby 1978)

Florence O. Adewumi and Oluwakemi A. Owoyemi (2012) argue that, "Hawkey (1979) and White (1988) shared the same view with Munby on the process of identifying learners' English language needs". As cited in Florence O. Adewumi and Oluwakemi A. Owoyemi (2012), "identification of who would use the English language as the first step. His first step in needs identification can be summed up in the following questions, Where? With whom?, In which dialect? At what level?. To perform what activities? To convey which tones? The second step, according to him, is to identify the skills, notions, functions (and possible forms) which are required in order to satisfy the user's requirement". (Hawkey 1979)

As cited in Florence O. Adewumi and Oluwakemi A. Owoyemi (2012), "language needs can be described in terms of who? Where? What? and how? Therefore there is little or no difference in the ways and processes of identifying learner's needs suggested by Munby, in addition proclaimed Needs Analysis as a process through which the teacher or planner investigates the language required by the learners for performing a given role. When needs are identified, they serve as useful guides for the language syllabus from which appropriate and suitable teaching methods and materials can be derived. Consequently, the purpose for language learning forms the basis of defining the objectives and contents of the English language syllabus". (White 1988)

As cited in Florence O. Adewumi and Oluwakemi A. Owoyemi (2012), "Needs analysis, is a learner centered approach to language teaching since learners' needs are derived from learners' purpose for wanting to learn the language. It is upon this learners' needs that the objectives and the contents of the learning experiences are based". (Jenks 1981)

As cited in Florence O. Adewumi and Oluwakemi A. Owoyemi (2012), "perceived Needs Analysis as a process of identifying the target situation, a definable need to communicate in English and then carrying out a rigorous analysis on the linguistic features of that situation". (Hutchinson and Waters 1987)

Karimi, P. and Vahdani Sanavi, R. (2014) argue that, "need analysis affects the individuals' educational life at the time of studying and their future life regarding their future careers and affairs. Need analysis is more crucial in ESP courses. ESP courses should be closely related to the field in which students are being trained. As the name speaks ESPs are defined to include specific parts of language which a specific group of learners need to know in order to perform appropriately in the according context".

As cited in Karimi, P. and Vahdani Sanavi, R. (2014), "This aspect of ESP courses is more noteworthy when these courses are offered for English for Academic Purposes (EAP) or English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) regarding the particular domain of knowledge which the students are expected to master during their academic life. To attain the linguistic needs of the student there must be some familiarity with the end goals of the students in relation to their

academic and communicative life and the researcher or syllabus designer should try to assess their needs according to these purposes". (Owolabi, 2012)

As cited in Karimi, P. and Vahdani Sanavi, R. (2014), "different learners have different interest and needs, that have an important influence on their motivation to learn and therefore on the effectiveness of their learning". (Hutchinson and Waters 1987)

Karimi, P. and Vahdani Sanavi, R. (2014) argue that, "Cowling (2007) studied needs analysis to develop English language courses at a Japanese industrial firm. The researcher validated the results by multiple methods and sources. Conclusion of this research showed that course and syllabus design are very important and need more care and thought".

Research Questions

Q1: To what extent bank employees of Saderat Bank need to use English?

Q2: what problems in using English do they have during their work?

B. *The Role of Needs Analysis in ESP*

Rachel Yi-fen Wu and Joyce Shao Chin (2010) argue that, "within the domain of English for Business Purpose (EBP), Chew's (2005) research on new entrants in four Hong Kong banks and Taillefer's (2007) survey of economics graduate in France showcase the rich information that can be obtained from insiders, even those who have just entered the workforce, in identifying the gaps between the English training provided by universities and the English skills required for work".

Rachel Yi-fen Wu and Joyce Shao Chin (2010) argue that, "With respect to materials development, the results of two recent surveys of published teaching materials in business English and business communication (Bargiela-chiappini, Nickerson and Planken, 2007; Nickerson, 2005) indicate that the link between research and practice remains weak: among the hundreds of materials surveyed, only a small proportion of them referred to empirical research findings. The writers may claim that their materials offer practices and tasks in "realistic" business situations, which nonetheless were identified according to the writers' intuitions about or experience with business communication. The intuitions of materials developers as reported in empirical research over the decades (see, e.g. Long, 2005; Long and Crookes, 1992; Ventola, 1987) are frequently unreliable. The mismatch between research and materials development has serious consequences".

As cited in Rachel Yi-fen Wu and Joyce Shao Chin (2010), "business English teachers especially those without much business experience often have to rely on materials which contain inauthentic or inappropriate language and skills". (Chan 2009 pp.125-126)

As cited in Aliakbari, M. and Boghayeri, M. (2014), "the effectiveness of ESP courses in higher education is another important issue which has become high priority over the past two decades following the trend towards ensuring effectiveness in teaching". (Chostelidou, 2011)

Aliakbari, M. and Boghayeri, M. (2014) argue that, "In the recent decade, due to the growing demands for ESP courses a large body of literature has been developed in this area of study in different countries. The findings also revealed that the learners had different expectations to use the target language for study or professional purposes which could be an important concern in identification of the learners needs".

Aliakbari, M. and Boghayeri, M. (2014) argue that, "EFL and ESP courses are offered in all the academic disciplines in Iranian universities. These courses aim at providing students with the essential knowledge and skills of the target language. After passing these courses, students are expected to achieve an acceptable level of proficiency in English. Despite passing the ESP courses at the university, students appear not to possess enough knowledge and skills to deal with the target language. Accordingly, in recent years many university graduates in different fields of study enroll in different private ESP courses due to their desire to enhance their ESP knowledge to be accepted in higher education or continue their studies abroad in International Universities"

C. *Need for the Research*

From the investigations done by some researchers on the English needs of bankers in some famous banks, it was observed that most of the new employees have been graduated from good universities. Their majors vary from Economics, Accounting, Banking, Finance, Engineering, computer Science, chemistry, law to English language. The result of investigations showed that these members had 6 months training at bank training center since they did not have banking efficiency. It was revealed that the bank's training program didn't include any teaching of useful aspects of English language. Based on these investigations, it is apparent that it is necessary to find out English language needs of new employees in order to make them more successful in their job.

II. RESEARCH METHOD

This study is based on data collection from Saderat Banks in Mashhad, Iran. After having the permission and cooperation for gathering information from the chairman of Saderat Bank, I distributed the questionnaire to the employees. It was done in some parts of the central office such as: management department inspection department, law department, credit department and financial marketing and 10 branches with foreign exchange department, account department, transfer department and loan department.

Questionnaire Survey

Participants. The questionnaire survey analysis was based on a sample of 70 bank employees. Overall 70% held bachelor's degree, 5% held lower than bachelor's degree and 25% held master's degree. The majority of the participants (70%) were men and the others were female. Half of the participants were between the age of 31-40 and the rest were between the age of 41-50. Overall 45% of the participants had more than 15 years of work experience, 35% between 5-10 years and the rest between 11-15. In terms of level of proficiency in English language 30% were at the upper intermediate, 20% at the intermediate level and the rest at the beginning level. 10% were at the executive and management level and others were staff-level employees.

Instrument: with the aim of identifying the English language needs of bank employees, a need analysis questionnaire was developed (based on the one used by Thitapon Meggiolaro, 2007). The questionnaire included five parts: 33 closed questions about the necessity of English language skills in work place, the difficulty they had with English language skills, the needs of English language by bank employees and the problems they had in using English at work and 1 open-ended question about whether they should have training course or not. The questionnaire was written in Persian languages in order to minimize problems related to ambiguity and misinterpretation. The questionnaire was administered to bank employees from November 2013 for 2 months.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Results of Questionnaire Survey

SKILL	Extremely necessary	Very necessary	Necessary	Fairly necessary
Listening	-	%25	%20	%55
Speaking	%25	%50	%25	-
Reading	%20	%50	%20	%10
Writing	-	%10	%85	%5

When participants were questioned with respect to the how necessary the English language skills are in their job, among listening, speaking, reading and writing, they reported that they needed to speak in English the most often and they needed listening skill the least. Based on the needs of speaking, half of the participants stated that it was very necessary, 25% stated it was extremely necessary and the rest said it was necessary. In respect to reading, half of the participants said it was very necessary for reading original source books or manual related to banking, 20% of the participants stated it was extremely necessary, 20% said it was necessary and the rest stated it was fairly necessary. Based on the writing skill, the majority of the participants stated it was necessary and few said it was fairly necessary.

When asked how difficult English language skills are, they stated that all four skills were very difficult for them.

SKILL	Extremely difficult	Very difficult	difficult	not difficult
Listening	%10	%50	%20	%20
Speaking	%25	%45	%20	%10
Reading	%20	%50	%20	%10
Writing	%35	%50	%5	%10

With respect to the needs of English language for bank employees, nearly all answered that they needed speaking, reading, writing and listening a lot.

SKILL	most	a lot	moderate	a little
Listening	%20	%40	%20	%20
Speaking	%25	%45	%20	%10
Reading	%30	%50	%10	%10
Writing	%25	%35	%15	%25

When participants were questioned about problems they had in using English while working, they announced that had problems with all of them.

Finally they stated that the bank should provide English language training courses for them. Concerning the choice of "General English" materials and "ESP" materials, the Bank should have some criteria that will match the employees. The bank should employ teachers who are responsible for selecting an appropriate text that contribute to Bank employees effectiveness. Useful materials do not teach, they encourage bank employees to learn. They can be source for new vocabulary, communicative or reading skills. In order to be successful in their job and gain all customers satisfaction bank employees should be able to speak English.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Nowadays a lot of tourists come to Iran and most of them like to invest money here because we offer better conditions. Bank employees who work in branches around the holy shrine of Imam Reza have more chances to use English because of the number of foreigners who come there. Although some of these employees know English, but

they are not able to use English in real situations. If bank employees want to absorb these customers they should know English to interact with them and do what they want in the best ways.

Bank employees will need to know English if they want to improve their products and compete with other banks. In order to keep their knowledge of banking profession up to date, bank employees should study the recent books and magazines about financial trading. Nowadays banks are moving toward electronic world and it makes knowing English necessary. Up to now a formal need analysis has never been conducted. This study, therefore, attempts to investigate the English language needs of bank employees in Saderat Bank in Mashhad.

A similar survey was done in Taiwan and the study shows that although English is not the medium of oral communication in their daily work setting, employees in the financial industry need English if they want to improve their work.

With the increase in marketing and trading, recognition of the need for improved English communication skills has been growing among Banking professionals.

Banking and finance professionals, as our experience indicates, are among the group with demands for ESP. The present study collected and analyzed primary data on the English language needs of banking and financial professions in Iran. My research about language needs of bank employees was carried out in order to have a better match between the actual use of foreign language in their working environment. This study is based on data collection from Saderat Banks in Mashhad, Iran. With the aim of identifying the English language needs of bank employees, a need analysis questionnaire was developed. With respect to the needs of English language for bank employees, they answered that they needed speaking, reading, writing and listening a lot. When participants were questioned about problems they had in using English while working, they announced that had problems with all of them. Finally they stated that the bank should provide English language training courses for them.

In conclusion, this study was carried on with the purpose of providing an insight into the need and difficulties of English use among bank employees. The present investigation, however does not represent all bank employees, it is only a sample. Also the results showed that strong needs of the English language in banking professions. This gives the idea that useful English language instruction is highly necessary to do the job effectively.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

The importance of this study is in the fact that the recognition of the English language needs of banks employees and planning an English course syllabus according to bankers' needs for their training programs will take a long time. This study is based on the English language needs of Saderat bank employees in Mashhad, but it is a good idea for researchers to consider other banks for further research too.

APPENDIX. QUESTIONNAIRE

<p>Questionnaire English language needs of the employees of Saderat Bank in Mashhad</p>
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Please kindly complete this questionnaire with regard to your information

Part 1 General Information

Please mark the appropriate box.

- 1-Sex Male Female
- 2-Age 21-30 31-40 41-50 51-60
- 3-Educational background
 Lower than Bachelor degree Bachelor degree
 Master degree Ph.D
- 4-Duration of working in the bank
 Less than 5 years 5-10 years
 10-15 years More than 15 years
- 5-How important English is in your job?
 Most A lot Moderate A little
- 6- What is your proficiency level?
 Advanced Very good Good Elementary Beginner
- 7-Your present department is

Part 2 General Opinion

Please indicate your attitude towards the following topic areas by ticking the appropriate numbers by			
5=extremely necessary		4=very necessary	
3=necessary	2=fairlynecessary		1=notnecessary

1-How necessary are the following skills of the English language in your job?

	5	4	3	2	1
Listening					
Speaking/interaction					
Reading					
Writing					

Please indicate your attitude towards the following topic areas by ticking the appropriate numbers by
 5=extremely difficult 4=very difficult
 3=difficult 2=fairly difficult 1=not difficult

2-How difficult are the following skills of the English language?

	5	4	3	2	1
Listening					
Speaking/interaction					
Reading					
Writing					

Part 3 Needs of English language for bank employees

Please indicate your attitude towards the following topic areas by ticking the appropriate numbers by
 5=most 4= a lot 3=moderate 2=a little 1=least

1- Listening

	5	4	3	2	1
Following presentation/talks					
Following instruction					
Following training sessions					

2- speaking

	5	4	3	2	1
Giving description and explanation					
Giving instructions or doing a task					
Giving a formal presentation talking on the phone					

3- Reading

	5	4	3	2	1
Reading e-mails, letters					
Reading bank journals					
Reading legal documents					
Reading technical documents/manuals					

4- Writing

	5	4	3	2	1
Writing letters/ e mails					
Writing legal texts					
Writing specific texts					

PART 4 Problems in using English while working

Please indicate your attitude towards the following topic areas by ticking the appropriate numbers by
 5=most 4= a lot
 3=moderate 2=a little 1=least

How much do you have problems with each of these English language sub-skills in your job?

1- Listening

	5	4	3	2	1
Following presentation/talks					
Following instruction					
Following training sessions					

2- Speaking

	5	4	3	2	1
Giving description and explanation					
Giving instructions or doing a task					
Giving a formal presentation talking on the phone					

3- Reading

	5	4	3	2	1
Reading e-mails, letters					
Reading bank journals					
Reading legal documents					

4- Writing

	5	4	3	2	1
Writing letters/ e mails					
Writing legal texts					
Writing specific texts					

Suggestions

Do you think the bank should provide English language training courses?

Yes

No

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Motivating Reluctant EFL Students to Talk in Class: Strategies and Tactics

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Abstract—This research paper deals with a variety of strategies and tactics employed by teachers in the classroom to motivate reluctant students to converse and participate. Various scholarly articles are critically reviewed, taking into account fundamental motivational strategies such as enhancing communication, minimizing negative factors (including anxiety, apprehension and stress), teaching through games, as well as other co-curricular activities. In addition to these strategies, the role of teachers, parents and students is also considered. Finally, the paper presents some essential recommendations for the improvement of the current practices of classroom motivation.

Index Terms—motivation, knowledge, cognition, language acquisition, self-assessment, feedback

I. INTRODUCTION

Mastering the art of teaching and learning is always dependent on the progress of students and the way students are influenced by the effectiveness of every positive attitude regarding their education. There are a lot of factors, such as, classroom's structure, lessons, various kinds of assessments, strategies, etc that play a very important role in deciding the progress and effectiveness of teacher-student learning and teaching. However, attaining mastery in the profession of teaching requires more than the traditional practices of a classroom. This allows every teacher to enhance the motivation skills in their students from the basic level (Jackson, 2011).

Motivating students especially the ones who are reluctant to participate, speak or engage in a classroom is one of the principles for attaining mastery in teaching (Weimer, 2009). There is a great deal of background behind why students need to get motivated in order to participate, speak and engage in classroom learning activities. This research paper is focused on the background behind motivating students to engage in classroom and some of the major strategies, which can be utilized by teachers to catalyze this process.

II. OVERVIEW

In a survey conducted by Ofsted between September 2007 and February 2008, problems of differed students in an academy were highlighted to bring the issue of student engagement and motivation on board. This survey was aimed at identifying those actions that can be very beneficial for students to start enjoying their curriculum learning again. According to this survey, students who displayed de-motivation showed some similar kind of characteristics. These characteristics were that they were regularly non-compliant without being threatening or aggressive and caused continuous low-level disruptions. Their behavior was quite challenging, which resulted in repeated fixed-term exclusions or entries in school's incident logs (House, 2008).

According to Mahdi (2015), the greater part of the students longing to figure out how to communicate in English well and are willing to interface with others in oral English language classrooms. Nonetheless, because of different reasons, for example, absence of practice, low English capability, absence of certainty, tension, timidity, identity, trepidation of losing face, and apprehension of committing errors, more than 66% of the students stay hesitant to react to the instructor and stay silent until singled out to answer questions.

Students are motivated when they have firm belief in their job and career prospects, while the students, who are doubtful about it, are less motivated. Chances, such as, service, expeditionary learning and other similar kinds of learning are considered by such students in order to engage in schoolwork. Extracurricular activities also provide motivation to such students. Thus, it can be said that these students view academic learning from a different lens or perspective compared to those who do not. These are some of the most significant factors that differentiate motivated students from others (CEP, 2012).

In the paper "An Exploration of Causes of Saudi Students' Reluctance to Participate in the English Language Classroom" the writer Hamouda (2012) demonstrated some techniques utilized by understudies to take an interest as a part of the class, for example, practicing what they say and setting up the thoughts and inquiries. As per him these procedures help in improving the showing and learning of communicated in English in remote dialect connections.

The author Mahdi (2014) believed that the learning power of the student depends on the willingness of the students. He thinks that students who are more enthusiastic and eager to learn grasp things quickly as compared to those who are apathetic. He believes that some students are naturally enthusiastic about learning while others expect and need their

teachers to challenge, inspire and stimulate them. Effective learning environment is maintained only through teacher's ability. However, there is no single formula that miraculously makes students stay motivated in a classroom. Interest in the content of the subject, general desire to achieve self-esteem, perception of its usefulness, self-confidence, persistence and patience are some of the necessary factors, which are essential for student motivation. In addition, every student cannot be motivated through similar wants, desires, values and needs.

Some students get inspired through challenges while other students require teacher's approval to motivate them. This distinction is homogeneous in a classroom consisting of many different students (Davis, 2011). Considering the example, of English language learning for foreign learners, students feel reluctant to speak in an English language learning classroom because they are not motivated to speak. This happens due to many reasons, such as, lack of confidence in speaking and the fear of making errors in language while speaking. This lack of conversation also limits their opportunities for learning new things in a classroom. Lack of motivation gives way to further lack of motivation (Hue, 2010).

Some students are satisfied with just getting by in a class and so they do not complete their tasks and avoid challenges. Such students can also be regarded as reluctant learners. These students do not necessarily lack the potential to achieve in school but they lack the will to be successful and admired at school. Unfortunately students who lack motivation receive messages of their poor conduct, which in return makes them inadequate, frustrated, confused and ashamed. All these factors constitute to make them even more disturbed and de-motivated. Constant negative feedback from parents and teachers make students feel even less-motivated to excel (ERS, 2004).

Lack of relevance is another factor that makes students feel less motivated. When a student starts to believe that the schoolwork is less important and does not have any relation with his life or interest, he tends to become less motivated towards doing it. Fear of failure is the second characteristic that makes a student de-motivated. When a student feels that it is safer not to try a specific task rather than to try and take the risk of failing and embarrassment, he loses motivation to do that task. (Mahdi, 2015). Peer concern is also responsible for making student less motivated (Kuramoto, 2002).

There are apprehension issues connected to student psychology. Sometimes, students want to show off just by avoiding those assignments, which they fear they would fail. When students are facing difficulty in learning new terminologies and concepts, they are confronted with the problem of lack of motivation. When a student has to struggle a lot in order to maintain his pace according to his other classmates, he eventually gives up in frustration. Lack of challenges also makes students feel less motivated towards their learning process. When they feel apathetic towards school assignments, which are below their capability level, they tend to become less motivated towards attempting those schools tasks (ERS, 2004).

Most of the times, students often try to portray themselves as less motivated just to gain attention from their teachers so that they perceive them as helpless. Personal problems at home often make students stressed, anxious and depressed. All these factors constitute to make them feel less motivated towards their school assignments. On the other hand, student de-motivation is often an expression of anger. Students often make themselves de-motivated to perform poorly at exams due to parental pressure of achieving excellence in academics (ERS, 2004). Lack of motivation amongst some students is also caused due to overly motivated or overly participating students in a classroom, who inhibit other's chances to speak or act (Weimer, 2009).

It is a well-known fact among language acquisition specialists that there is a discrepancy between what classroom second/foreign language learners are taught, what they learn/acquire and what they can actually produce. This inconsistency has prompted second/foreign language researchers to investigate the role of explicit grammar instruction and whether, when and how focus on form benefits classroom second/foreign language learners (Ramirez, 2010). Krashen (2003) argued that focusing on linguistic form was of limited value because it can only contribute to 'learning' and never to 'acquisition'. Therefore, the learners should likewise acquire the information of how native speakers utilize the dialect in the setting of social interactions (Wright, 2012).



Figure 1: Motivating Students

III. DISCUSSION

A. *Self-assessment*

In order to motivate reluctant students to talk and participate in a classroom, students should be asked first to do their self-assessment. Teachers can always distribute a questionnaire or any other kind of written activity that enables students to access their abilities and their weaknesses. Students can always highlight whether they are shy, reluctant, and confident or scared to speak up in a classroom. Students can also share their learning and studying routines through such activities, which can enable a teacher to understand different learning style of every student. In addition, this will also motivate students to express their weaknesses and strengths in a manner that will not make them feel embarrassed or ashamed (Jackson, 2011).

Knowledge is one factor, which motivates students in such a manner that it is not evident. Students are usually assessed on what they already know. However, they should not completely be assessed on what they already know. There is background knowledge and other kinds of cultural literacy forms that every student may not be able to comprehend until taught. Students should be given this knowledge and competency so that they do not gain demotivation in speaking or participating in a particular classroom that has a particular cultural or social background. Moreover, guiding students regarding the soft skills they use to access classroom content and interpret school also motivates them (Jackson, 2011).

Study skills, time management, organizational skills, etc are some of the most basic soft skills that make students learning easier and interactive in a classroom. Learning cannot occur in a vacuum. Every other student learns with other students and so learning is socially mediated. Social skills are required by every student to maintain and forge relationships to connect and given them a sense of belonging. These social skills also make students think of communicating with others who can help them. Social skills involve the ability to read a particular social context, along the knowledge of whom to say, what to say, when to say and how to say it (Jackson, 2011).

B. *Intrinsic Motivation*

According to Weiner (2009), human beings or students are machines. They have specific parts that form their structure and every part functions in one specific way. In the light of this statement, if human beings are given energy, each and every part of their body seems to perform well because it is getting the desired amount of energy. A teacher needs to develop a self-perception for every student. When students have cognitive and behavioral beliefs regarding the fact that hard work is the key to success, they build intrinsic motivation for themselves. Such students do not depend on luck or chance factors to attain success in their academics (Anonymous, n.d).

Intrinsic motivation can be build up in students through encouragement, which is displayed in actions, words and behaviors of teachers. If teachers encourage their students on speaking, even giving wrong answers by saying something like "your answers show thought". Statements like these make students believe that they have really improved and they have the ability to improve further. Similarly, intrinsic motivation can also be given by commenting students that their work/handwriting/drawing show improvement and the effort they are putting into school work rather giving student smiley or stars on good or improved performances. Positive and clear remarks make students build intrinsic motivation (Anonymous, n.d).

One of the reason is that as children build up their aptitudes, they meet diverse challenges which may occupy them from different scholarly activities. These challenges join absence of parental involvement, companion weight and others. There are similarly various movements in their emotional state and physical bodies. These movements may involve them from scholastic performance and consequently diminishing of intrinsic motivation. Another factor, which may reduce intrinsic motivation as children create, is the presence of extrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation has been seen to reduce intrinsic motivation since it urges understudies to expect rewards for better scholarly performance. Exactly when such rewards are not display, this may reduce their motivation levels and hence their intrinsic motivation (Anonymous, n.d).

C. *Communication*

With the rising value of communication in the modern era, people tend to focus on the ability to speak a foreign language fluently instead of just reading or writing it. Yet, fluency in a foreign language requires more than learning grammatical and semantic rules. This is especially difficult for EFL learners because of the minimal use of the target language and contact with native speakers. Consequently, EFL learners, generally, are relatively poor at spoken English, in particular regarding fluency and control of idiomatic expressions. However, in practice, it is too often assumed that learner's communicative proficiency can be developed simply by assigning students' topics to discuss and encouraging them to participate in various speaking tasks (Mahdi, 2014; Anonymous, n.d).

However, getting students to participate in speaking tasks in conversation classes is a problem that most EFL teachers face. Success in a conversation class may be defined as a setting in which students are able to communicate effectively in English. Therefore, enhancing students' communicative competence is the ultimate aim for English majors at Saudi colleges and universities. However, a problem that most EFL students confront in discussion classes is viable utilization of the essential language rules they have learned. Indeed, even advanced students who have comprehended structure and vocabulary can frequently read and compose better than they can talk in an outside language.

D. *Cognition and Motivation*

According to majority of cognitive scientists, everything human beings do is done with a purpose to gain something in return (Jackson, 2011). Likewise, students perform well, do their homework, study for exams and participate in academic activities because they want good grades. Similarly, students may perform bad in order to gain attention. No matter the behavior is good or bad, it does have a purpose. In a same manner, student believes in investing for a classroom only if it has some purpose. Students who are willing to invest in a classroom want to do so to gain something in return (Jackson, 2011).

Communication in a brief moment/remote language requires some guessing in addition to contending. Various learners fear to take the risk and answer any inquiry unless they are totally certain it is right. They decide to stay silent all the time to abstain from making errors or fear of looking strange. Such fear of attempting or being subject to making errors makes students lose a few opportunities to practice the target language. The quiet understudy in the classroom is one why should unwilling seem foolish when errors are made. Confidence is by all accounts nearly joined with a risk-taking viewpoint: when those foolish errors are made, an individual by method for high worldwide confidence is not plagued by the conceivable outcomes of being laughed at. In any case, EFL learners must be active and ready to make forecasts, guess and take the risk of being off-base (Jackson, 2011; Mahdi, 2014).

Reticence is an emotional viewpoint which is obviously connected with confidence. People add to an arrangement of guards to protect themselves starting either outer or inside criticism. Reticence anticipates individuals as of conveying everything that needs to be conveyed openly and agreeably. Learning a second or foreign language requires making errors and learning habitually happen through making errors. However in the event that a learner fears of making errors and in addition considers errors as an unsafe impact on his sense of self, he will fall into inner (one's self) and also outside (others') threats. Both are barriers to learning. In fact, the non-debilitating and loose environment can drop understudy's reticence to the most reduced degree (Jackson, 2011).

Motivation has different meanings for every other person. These meanings give an ambiguous structure to the overall definition of motivation. In order to motivate students, first, this ambiguous meaning should be translated into a concrete definition for students to understand. Instead of asking vague questions, teachers should be specific and clear while asking reluctant students to do something. For example, teachers can ask "okay, so will you try to complete your homework next time?" moreover, instead of saying that "students should pay attention in class", teachers should be clear that what exactly they mean by saying "keep your head up", "keep your eyes and ears open", etc (Jackson, 2011).

E. *Math Talk*

Teachers can motivate students effectively through math talk. Subjects like mathematics and others that concern numbers can be effectively taught if they are discussed by the teachers in a game style. Giving answers in numbers and figures makes students take interest in answering and understanding how things can be talked about in math language. This strategy is one of the most effective one when it comes to foreign language students. Young students often associate words with one another. Math language makes students and teachers talk about a particular subject without confusing words and meanings with one another (Chapin, Connor & Anderson, 2009).

F. *Game Theory*

Similar to influencing decision-making factors in politics, business, economic and social interactions, game theory effect motivation factor for students as well. Usually, teachers treat a particular subject in a very formal or an abstract way that makes students lose interest in that particular subject. Thus, making students understand introductory or theoretical subjects through classroom games and activities is a very appropriate way to make students take interest in subjects, which may not interest them if taught formally. Teaching through games also motivates students to take their understanding to the higher level of their courses. Game theory is very beneficial for economics and math students (Becker, Becker & Watts, 2006).

Mixed strategy of equilibrium can be taught to students by using different mind games like chess that really effect and enhance human mind capability. When students play games in class and watch others play them as well, they learn concepts like backward induction, Nash equilibrium, formal statement, strategy and problem-set drill. Similarly, a Nim-like game, which is also called a Sequential-Move game help students learn major concepts (Becker, Becker & Watts, 2006).

G. *Writing and Motivation*

Writing itself is one kind of learning. It can help students motivate and gain the confidence to excel. Teachers can make students write about their achievements and good experiences from past and then prepare them to read out aloud what they have written. Many reluctant students feel more comfortable with writing than speaking. When students are asked to write about their experiences and achievements, they gain the confidence to share those with their classmates. This practice often makes students happy and ponders on the thought of achieving again (Buis, 2007).

Confidence is an essential need in human life. It comprises of efficiency and self-respect. Confidence has multi-dimensions which are: global confidence which means general assessment an individual makes of one's self, situational confidence which implies a particular situation, for example, foreign language framework in addition to task confidence that implies a specific task inside a circumstances e.g., writing in an EFL framework. In addition, confidence

contributes to all features of one's life. To live mentally healthy, confidence is fundamental. It is the basically basic highlight of the touching perspectives for the reason that all are related or created by confidence (Buis, 2007).

Students can also be asked to record any live event that is occurring in their present time. This makes students keep themselves motivated on recording things on the right time. Often students do not realize the importance of keeping their mind present to record a particular event. This strategy motivates students to take notes while they are sitting in a class lecture. Through the activity of taking notes, students can memorize lectures and important points for long. Teachers can also ask students to read aloud so that they learn how to pronounce and identify words through correct sounds (Buis, 2007).

H. Parental Engagement

According to the attribution theory, both teachers and parents should have realistic goals for their students. Teachers should always update parent on their child's ability, strength and progress. Thus, parents should always design goals, which are realistic. Unrealistic goals de-motivate students because they make them believe that they will be able to achieve something, which is not humanly possible. Parents should also keep in mind that very big change in progress of their children cannot occur in a day or a week. Improvement requires time and students should be assigned realistic goals in this time (Davis, 2011). They should not be asked to rush into things (Anonymous, n.d).

I. Extracurricular Activities

Extracurricular activities motivate students to learn through fun. Teachers and educational practitioners cannot make their students learn through extremely formal way. Teachers can design extracurricular activities that catalyze student learning. Group presentations and class presentations are one way to do this. In groups and role-plays students learn many things through acting and playing. Similarly, science teachers can practically demonstrate or take students to ecological places where they can see what they are studying. Parents can also do similar activities at home. Mothers can engage their young children in learning in-door games, such as, scrabble. Teenagers can be asked to demonstrate their general knowledge skills in family quiz (Kuramoto, 2002).

J. Technology and Motivation

Technology has motivated students through cooperative learning techniques. Increased use of computer technology has made students gain intrinsic motivation to do the task on their own through the help of internet. Students are motivated to do school assignments because they have access to internet to obtain the primary and secondary resources for their research work. Students feel lazy in going to library and searching through heavy catalogues. Giving them internet access makes them feel motivated to write assignments while sitting on computer for several hours. Moreover, course management software, such as, Blackboard, WebCT, etc can enable teachers to give virtual spaces to their students (Becker, Becker & Watts, 2006).

Teachers can encourage their students to maintain their academic e-mail IDs that can make them be available for readily accessible communications. Teachers can also give the option of submitting assignments through e-mails because it will save student's time and effort to motivate him to spend more time on researching. Students can be motivated to display simulations, experiments and demonstration by giving them the option of virtual classrooms. Classrooms equipped with personalized computers can also help students to communicate and work together with other peers. Group computer stations can also make students perform adequately in group presentations and tasks (Becker, Becker & Watts, 2006). Schools and other educational institutions should hire computer and information technology specialists, whose jobs are to make faculty use technology into their teaching (Becker, Becker & Watts, 2006).

K. Curriculum and Motivation

Schools should design curriculums that support and engage students in learning activities. All the books in the curriculum should be latest and in modern language. Pictures and illustrations play a very important role in making students feel good about a particular subject and feel motivated towards it. If the school curriculum is engaging, teachers plan their strategies accordingly. Schools should have educational research departments that specially discuss the planning of curriculum to make students admire their course even before beginning to study it (House, 2008).

The design of the curriculum ought to comprise of general core courses and a focus in an order of individual interest. General education courses would make sure that students have satisfied essential learning requirements of reading, math and English. These courses are important to guarantee that the students have the essential information expected to succeed in his or her picked field of study or control. This interest ought to be a subject that the understudy has a craving to take in more about. Students would figure out how to focus upon the relationship between great academic readiness and upward versatility in the work environment. The substance of learning would include numerous hands-on learning activities. Learning activities, for example, field practicum, perception, and evaluations toward oneself are every single learning instrument that would be utilized to support the understudy in mastering his or her field of study (Ramirez, 2010).

Various countries have higher education accrediting organizations that secure learning standards and outcomes. These standards and outcomes are utilized to ensure that students in higher education get the required educational chances to wind up productive citizens in society Accordingly, the principle explanation behind students to get a college

education is to set him up or her for an professional career. A curriculum must be developed and executed to accommodate the students' necessities. (House, 2008).

L. Reading and Motivation

In the past, teachers and researchers acknowledge the significance of reading resoundingly, yet the recurrence of read-emphatically is reducing because of time constraints. Teachers today confront the challenge of educating a continually expanding number of linguistically diverse students. Since children have distinctive preschool and social encounters, no single literacy program or set of instructional activities can address the issues of each youngster. The challenge of arranging literacy guideline intended for a very diverse gathering of language learners' packs direction time hard with phonics, phonemic mindfulness, reading gatherings, and vocabulary work. Making time for various instructor read-resoundingly during every day is an essential requirement, which can't be sensibly, disregarded (Buis, 2007).

Social language needs must be incorporated with educator read-resoundingly to guarantee that diverse language learners are propelled by substance. The messages, both visual and verbal, that children assimilate as writings are read, abandon them with deep impressions they could call their own cultural worth. Authentic books for students at this level show that in spite of the fact that individuals are distinctive in the way they show up these distinctions are something worth being thankful for and ought to be commended. All characters ought to be completely and empathetically portrayed. Literacy direction that expressly expands upon the cultural information, methods for making significance, and former learning that all children convey with them to the classroom will urge children to feel that their way of life is imperative and esteemed in schools (Davis, 2011).

Students must feel a feeling of having a place with the literacy group and discover motivation to practice the abilities required for learning. Using the cognitive apprenticeship methodology of writer's workshop, teachers may platform students in reading with the basic eye on the art of the writer. As in any authentic assignment, the understudy tries to find exactly what it is the writer does. By dissecting tutor writings for subtle elements, for example, line length, word decision, rehashing lines, similar sounding word usage, and allegory, students come to see how experts build books. They apply their making "revelations" to their own written work. In the authentic undertaking, they discover the identity and it offers assurance to the reading and composing that takes after. In discovering this identity, they get to be genuine individuals from the literacy club (CEP, 2012).

Students merit book rich classrooms in which regular read emphatically of amazing content are incorporated into direction. Vocabulary and techniques for comprehension ought to be unequivocally taught then framework during different readings of all around created content that happen over the educational program. Students admire the requirement for reading as they perform authentic tasks in cross-curricular inquiry learning open doors. Reading emphatically permits all to perform tasks as writers, commentators of literature, attorneys, artists, sponsors, artists, travelers, researchers, and politicians. Instructor read resoundingly are more imperative than any other time in recent memory, in light of the fact that our classrooms are so linguistically diverse (Davis, 2011).

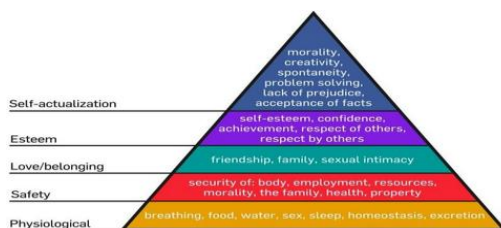


Figure 2: Motivating Students

IV. CONCLUSION

The research conducted highlighted how students can be motivated through using different strategies by their teachers and parents. Similarly, every student has different level of understanding with respect to a particular environment. All the cognitive and psychological reasoning discussed above portrayed that how every classroom has different human minds with different psychological mechanism. Likewise, a single strategy can be effective for one student but it may be ineffective with other types of mind personalities. To cater students with their individual motivation requirements, role of a teacher is the crucial one. Time and effort cannot be measured to give desired results; hence, efforts should not be measured based on time spent on every student. Thus, strategies discussed above can be molded and amended with time.

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The Impact of Students Team Achievement Divisions (STAD) on Iranian EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension

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Abstract—This article determines the impact of Students Team Achievement Divisions (STAD) on Iranian EFL Learners Listening Comprehension. In 1995, Students Team Achievement Divisions (STAD) was coined by Slavin based on research on cooperative learning. Listening as one of the language skills has crucial role in developing the knowledge of the English learners in second or foreign language settings. Listening has always been supposed that as the difficult language skill in EFL classroom for the EFL learners in learning their English language. In this project, the total number of sixty Iranian students was selected based on their performance on Oxford Placement Test (OPT). For homogeneity of the learners, a proficiency test (Edwards, 2007) was administered to select the participants of this project. The Iranian students were in the age range of 18 to 25 studying English as their foreign language in a language institute in Bushehr city, Iran. Outcome of this research paper showed that that there is a statistically significant difference between the participants of control and experimental groups' scores ($t = 6.50, p < 0.05$) on post-test.

Index Terms—Student Teams Achievement Divisions (STAD), cooperative learning, English foreign language, EFL learners, listening comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION

Listening skill as language learning strategy is always used in promoting knowledge of Iranian English foreign learners in learning English language as a foreign language in Iranian language setting. Khansir, and Gholami (2014) argued that English language in Iran is taught as a foreign language from middle (Guidance) school. However, it was introduced as a subject from middle school; the Iranian learners accepted it as foreign language to pass in their examination. Richards et al (1992) argued that listening comprehension is used as the process of understanding speech in a second or foreign language. The study of listening comprehension processes in second language learning focuses on the role of individual linguistic units (e.g. phonemes, words, grammatical structures) as well as the role of the listeners' expectations, the situation and context, background knowledge and the topic. Ziahosseiny (2009, p. 89) mentioned that "listening refers to receiving information through the ear". He added that the nature of listening is dependent on the features of spoken language which has the characteristics: a) it is often less complex in its grammatical and discourse structure; b) much speech gives a 'broken' impression, with new starts in mid-sentence, changes of direction or topic, hesitation and half-finished statements; c) not many explicit connector (moreover, however); d) topic complement structure (as in the sun ... oh look it's going down'); e) replacing expressions (e.g. 'this fellow she was supposed to meet'); f) frequent reference to things outside the 'text' such as the weather for example; g) the use of generalized vocabulary (thing, nice stuff, a lot of); h) repetition of the same syntactic form; i) the use of pauses and 'fillers' ('erm' 'well' 'uhuh', 'if you see what I mean' and so on (P. 89). Ur (1996) indicated that the principal objective of listening comprehension practice in the classroom is to enable the learners to function successfully as a speaker-listener when the occasion arises in real-life listening entails and then, to examine what types of activities listeners are required to do in such situations in order that they could negotiate meaning satisfactorily in a variety of live situations (cited in Birjandi et al 2006). Piper (1993) argued that listening comprehension utilizes many of the same processes necessary to read and comprehend a story. Gunning (2003) mentioned that listening capacity refers to an informal measure of one's ability to understand or comprehend spoken language in the context of a story. Ziahosseiny (2009, p. 93) mentioned that the following abilities are needed for a person in order to listen and understand a language: 1) He should possess knowledge of the sound system of the language; 2) He should possess the necessary grammatical knowledge to organize the incoming speech into meaningful sections; 3) He should have a wide recognition vocabulary; 4) He should possess the necessary background knowledge and knowledge of context [the psychological setting (home, office, school, etc.) the participants in communication, their roles, and their relationship to each other.].

Richards and Rodgers (2001) argued that cooperative language learning (CLL) as language learning strategy can be used as a part of general instructional approach to teach language and thus, it also known as Collaborative Learning

(CL). Cooperative Learning is an approach to teaching that makes maximum use of cooperative activities involving pairs and small groups of students in the classroom. Olsen and Kagan (1992, p.8) argued that "Cooperative learning is group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between students in groups and in which each student is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others". Richards et al (1992) argued that "cooperative learning an approach to teaching and learning in which classrooms are organized so that learners work together in small cooperative teams. He added that such an approach to learning is said to increase students' learning since a) it is less threatening for many students, b) it increases the amount of student participation in the classroom, c) it reduces the need for competitiveness, and d) it reduces the teacher's dominance in the classroom" (p.87). Listening is described and contrasted with hearing. Linse (2005) indicted that hearing is different from listening. Hearing refers to the actual perception and processing of sound. In order to be able to listen in class, children need to be able to hear.

Student Teams- Achievement Divisions (STAD) has been used in this paper as an approach of cooperative learning (CL). In this model heterogeneous students with varying academic abilities are assigned to 4 to 5-member groups. Each student should reach his or her highest level of achievement. The teacher provides the groups by purposeful presentation with objectives. The material to be learned should focus on specific information, and the groups have the opportunity to decide on the way of studying information in any way that is best for them. The groups should realize that their task is to master the material, and not just the ability to answer worksheets or tests. The goal of the group is that every single person masters the material and also helps other group members. In the first step of STAD the teacher presents a new concept. Then the teacher organizes students in heterogeneous groups to study and practice the specific concept. The teacher evaluates the progress of the groups and individuals during learning new materials several times to check their improvements. Groups earn certificates or other recognition based on the degree to which the group members have progressed over their past records. Rai and Samsuddin (2007) said that Student Teams- Achievement Divisions (STAD) one of the learning strategies based on cooperative learning which helps promote collaboration and self-regulating learning skills.

In discussion of statement of problem, it is felt that Iranian EFL learners are not master of English listening comprehension in order to get knowledge of English Language in and out of their classrooms. However, it seems that listening comprehension as a language skill should be considered in foreign language classroom, especially in Iran society. According to the research, the investigators have been teaching English listening skill at the Iranian institutions and good experienced to manage their classrooms. Thought, for got more information on their research paper, they followed the question and hypothesis as follows:

- Does STAD technique facilitate listening comprehension by Iranian intermediate EFL learners?
- STAD technique does not facilitate listening comprehension of Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Many studies have been carried out based on the effect of CL by many scholars are discussed as follows:

Slavin (1983) studied a cooperative learning and found that cooperative learning resulted in significant positive effects in 63% of the studies. Johnson, Maruyama, Johnson, Nelson, and Skon (1981) examined a meta-analysis of one hundred two studies related to cooperative learning and concluded that there was strong evidence for the superiority of cooperative learning in promoting achievement over competitive and individualistic strategies. The findings of Balfakih (2003) mentioned that in teaching tenth grade chemistry, learners' team achievements division is a more effective teaching method than the traditional-teaching method. Kinney (1989) studied the effects of cooperative learning on the achievement of ninth-grade learners in a diverse cultural general biology class. The experimental group of the research had the combination of both black and white learners had a significant increase on the academic achievement scores. Allen and Van Sickle (1984) investigated students' team achievements division STAD as the experimental treatment in their study. The study involved low achieving learners. The outcome of this paper indicated that the cooperative learning group scored significantly higher on a world geography test.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

To conduct the current study 60 Iranian EFL learners were selected based on their performance on Oxford Placement Test (OPT). It was general proficiency test that was administered to select the participants in a convenient sampling format. The subjects for this study were 60 students in the age range of 17 to 28. The average age of the participants was 23. In addition; English language used as foreign language for Iranian students. The Participants were studying English language in a language institute in Bushehr. Their level of English language proficiency was intermediate. The participating learners have been learning English for about 6 years and have reached the intermediate level. Beside that they had the opportunity of studying English at school or at university so they had a considerable experience of exposing to English and as the result it is expected that they have developed some basic listening skills after few years. Hence, it seems reasonable to choose learners at this level of English proficiency as the participants of the research. The

participants of this paper were randomly divided into two groups of Experimental and Control. Each group consisted of 30 learners. The STAD technique was applied to the experimental group as the treatment.

B. Instruments

The instruments used for this research were Oxford Placement Test and a listening comprehension test that was used as the pre-test and post-test. They are explained as follows:

1. Oxford Placement Test

In order to achieve the participants' homogeneity in terms of language proficiency level, a version of Oxford Placement Test (Allen, 2004) was used in this study. The validity of the test is self-evident. This test enabled the researchers to select those learners who were compatible with the conditions of the study. Oxford placement test has been used to determine low and high level participants in terms of language proficiency. It was administered to assess learners' knowledge of grammar, and listening. It also enabled the researchers to have a greater understanding of what level their participants were at. The test contained two parts. Part 1 (questions 1–100) contained grammar and part 2 (questions 100-200) included listening questions. So the total score was 200.

2. Listening Comprehension Pre-test and Post-test

A syllabus-based listening comprehension test consisting of 20 multiple choice items was designed by the researchers in order to test and compare EFL learners' listening comprehension before (pre-test) and after (post-test) treatment instruction sessions. In order to protect the content validity of this test, it was checked by 5 experienced test experts in the field of English language teaching. In order to check the test's reliability, ceiling effect and floor effect, it was piloted on 20 EFL students who were similar to the participants of the main study in terms of age and proficiency level. Internal consistency reliability for the instrument was estimated by computing Cronbach's alpha coefficients and proved to be .82.

C. Data Analysis

In the current study, the statistical procedures were employed to analyze the results of the tests. The data collection was analyzed in order to determine the effect of applying STAD technique on the listening comprehension of the participants. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0 was used to analyze the descriptive statistics of the STAD. Descriptive statistics (such as mean, standard deviation, kurtosis, skewness) were calculated for proficiency test to show the general information of obtained scores. The reliability analysis using Cronbach's alpha formula was performed on the pre-test and post-test. In order to determine the effect of STAD on listening comprehension and comparing the groups of study, an independent sample t-test was used.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The aim of this brief article was to investigate the Impact of Students Team Achievement Divisions (STAD) on Iranian EFL Learners Listening Comprehension. Details of the data analysis and results of the study based on statistical analyses are reported in this research as follows:

A. Results of the Pilot Study

In this paper, a pilot study was performed on twenty EFL learners of the same age and proficiency level in order to check the internal consistency or reliability of the listening pre-test and post-test. Descriptive statistics of pilot test on pre-test and post-test, such as mean, standard deviation (SD), standard error of measurement (SEM) and the item facility (IF) index of the test items are provided in table 1. The items with facility index above 0.63 were too easy and below 0.33 were too difficult. Three items (two easy and one difficult) were revised.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PILOT STUDY ON PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

	Mean	SD	SEM	IF < 0.33	0.33 ≤ IF ≤ 0.63	IF > 0.63
Pre-test and Post-test	13.8	6.71	3.44	2	17	1

In order to test the reliability of the tests, Cronbach's alpha analysis was performed, the results ($r = 0.82$), as is shown in table 2, indicated that the pre-test (and post-test) had a satisfactory level of reliability.

TABLE 2:
RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF THE PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Pre-test and Posttest	.82	20

B. Analysis of the Proficiency Test

At the beginning of the study, the participants of main study ($n = 80$) took part in the proficiency test i.e., Oxford Placement Test (OPT) to identify their language proficiency. The purpose of proficiency test was to manifest the learner's homogeneity or to show whether the learners' knowledge of English is at the same level. The detailed descriptive statistics of proficiency test is shown in table 3.

TABLE 3:
THE FREQUENCY OF SCORES OBTAINED FROM PROFICIENCY TEST

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
96.00	1	.8	.8	.8
100.00	2	.8	.8	1.7
101.00	1	.8	.8	2.5
102.00	1	.8	.8	3.3
104.00	3	2.5	2.5	5.8
106.00	1	.8	.8	6.7
109.00	4	.8	.8	7.5
110.00	1	.8	.8	8.3
115.00	3	.8	.8	9.2
117.00	2	.8	.8	11.7
118.00	1	.8	.8	12.5
Valid 120.00	7	5.8	5.8	18.3
123.00	2	1.7	1.7	20.0
124.00	15	16.7	16.7	53.3
125.00	8	8.3	8.3	61.7
126.00	10	8.3	8.3	78.3
127.00	8	6.7	6.7	85.0
128.00	2	1.7	1.7	93.3
129.00	2	1.7	1.7	95.0
130.00	2	1.7	1.7	96.7
131.00	2	1.7	1.7	98.3
132.00	2	1.7	1.7	100.0
Total	80	100.0	100.0	

According to Oxford Placement Test (Allen, 2004), the intermediate learners are those whose score fall between 120 and 149 (out of 200). The total score should not be less than 120. As table 3 shows, twenty participants could not attain the intended scores for intermediate level of language proficiency; therefore, they were excluded from the study. The participants were then randomly assigned into two equal groups of control and experimental.

C. Analysis of Participants' Performance on Pre-test

The participants of the study were selected by pre-test that was designed to test the participants' listening comprehension before receiving the treatments of study. The descriptive statistics of participants' performance on pre-test is provided in table 4.

TABLE 4:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS' SCORES ON PRE-TEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	
Pretest	Control	30	3	13	7.63	2.69
	Experimental	30	6	14	8.76	3.64

In order to ensure that there is no significant difference between the control and experimental groups regarding their pre-knowledge of listening, an independent sample t-test was performed. The results are provided in table 5.

TABLE 5:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST OF CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS ON PRE-TEST
Levene's Test for Equality of Variances t-test for Equality of Means

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
										Lower	Upper
Scores on Pretest	Equal variances assumed	.216	.176	.846	58	.353	.93333	.99751	-1.063	2.93006	

The results indicated that there is no statistical significant difference between control and experimental groups ($t = 0.84, p > 0.05$) in their performance on pre-test.

D. Testing the Null Hypothesis of the Study

In order to find the effects of treatment on the learners, each group was given a listening comprehension post-test immediately after the end of treatment sessions. The descriptive statistics of both groups are compared with each other in table 6.

TABLE 6:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS' PERFORMANCE ON POST-TEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Posttest (Experimental Group)	30	10	18	15.33	2.368
Posttest (Control Group)	30	7	15	10.30	2.168

The mean of experimental and control group scores on immediate post-test were 15.33 and 10.30 respectively. Generally, the performance of the control group learners on the posttest was weaker than experimental group. In order to verify the null hypothesis of the study in finding whether STAD facilitate Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension, a paired sample *t*-test was performed. The results are provided in table 7.

TABLE 7:
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST ON PRETEST AND POST-TEST OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Pair 1	Posttest-Pretest	Paired Differences		Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	df	Sig.
		Mean	Std. Deviation		Lower	Upper			
		6.857	1.987		6.174	7.540			

The results showed that there is a statistical significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores ($t = 20.41$, $p < 0.05$) of the participants of experimental group. In other words, training on the use of STAD significantly enhanced EFL learners' listening comprehension. In addition, an independent sample *t*-test was performed between the performances of both groups on posttest. The results are provided in table 8.

TABLE 8:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST BETWEEN THE POST-EST SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

Posttest	Equal variances assumed	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig.	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
		1.348	.250	6.500	58	.000	2.286	.352	1.584	2.987

The results of independent samples *t*-test showed that that there is a statistically significant difference between the participants of control and experimental groups' scores ($t = 6.50$, $p < 0.05$) on post-test. EFL learners of experimental group outperformed listening comprehension posttest. Thus, the hypothesis of the study was not accepted. According to this hypothesis, STAD technique does not facilitate listening comprehension of Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

E. Discussion

Regarding to the great significance of listening comprehension in the process of learning foreign languages, many studies have focused on developing new techniques for teaching listening. This paper provided an empirical evidence for Iranian English foreign language students to investigate the potential role of STAD in enhancing learners' ability for listening comprehension. The findings of the study provided an empirical support for the effectiveness of STAD technique in enhancing Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension.

The results of this study supported the theoretical and pedagogical value of STAD in listening comprehension class. From theoretical point of view, this research presented STAD instructional techniques of foreign language listening instruction which are in line with second language learning theories that highlight the role of cooperation in language learning. In this framework, the instruction is based on dividing students into groups from different academic levels and ethnic backgrounds. The interactive nature of the STAD proved to be a confident way of enhancing listening comprehension. The use of these instructional techniques is characterized as an effective way of STAD for EFL learners since they are contextualized provide deep senses of language use and learner-based classroom as the listening comprehension is the result of learner's efforts. From a pedagogical viewpoint, it is plausible to recommend language teachers consider different learning conditions because they definitely have significance for teaching purposes as the findings suggest. Teachers can implement these important points in the process of teaching listening and help the students make significant improvement.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study was an attempt to investigate the Impact of Students Team Achievement Divisions (STAD) on Iranian EFL Learners Listening Comprehension. Doff (1990) argued on the importance of listening such as developing of speaking skills depend on developing of listening skills; to have a successful conversation, learners must understand what is said to them. Later, the ability to understand spoken English may become very important (for listening to the radio, understanding foreign visitors, studying, etc.). He added that to develop this ability, students need plenty of practice in listening to English spoken at normal speed.

The results of this study supported the use of STAD in listening as they allow the students to comprehend more information, associate it with other ideas and incorporate new ideas into their prior knowledge. Therefore, when information is cooperated by their peers, learning would be easier. Outcome of the research paper indicated that the use of cooperative learning can help in order to save time and energy for get more information. The use of STAD, in contrast to individual teaching and learning can be more effective at different stages of teaching listening. The results of this paper showed that that there is a statistically significant difference between the participants of control and

experimental groups' scores ($t = 6.50$, $p < 0.05$) on post-test. EFL learners of experimental group outperformed listening comprehension post-test. Thus, the hypothesis of the study was not accepted. According to this hypothesis, STAD technique does not facilitate listening comprehension of Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

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The Application Study of Note-taking of Interpreting in College English Course

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Abstract—Based on some introductions about the interpretive note-taking, this essay tries to probe into the application study of note-taking to solve some existed problems in the College English Course. The author believes that the college English reform is far from satisfactory when it is only conducted on the reform of textbooks, media appliance improvement or changes of learning periods. The teacher should adopt new effective ways to make the students really involved in the class and actually get improved in their comprehensive English capacity.

Index Terms—the College English Course, interpretive note-taking, reform

I. BACKGROUND

With the rapid development of globalization in every aspect in this modern world, more and more international conferences, meetings and trades are conducted every day. To make them smoother, interpreters of different fields are substantially and urgently wanted. English majors constitute the main body of this troop, while non-English majors are also increasing supplements for the need due to their solid cognitive knowledge about their major. Concerning the fact that more and more non-English major students have championed in Chinese National Interpreting Contest for college students, it is possible to cultivate more non-English majors to be qualified interpreters with special training. While it is not difficult for most interpreters and new hands to understand what they hear, it is not an easy job to remember all the important details. At this time, note-taking is one of the most important approaches to help. And this method is also of great value to listening for an average college English learner. So this essay is intended to probe into the application of note-taking approach of interpreting in college English course.

II. INTRODUCTION OF NOTE-TAKING OF INTERPRETING

A. Functions

Heping Liu (2006) states interpretation is the representation of the contents and emotions of one language into a new language intelligently. In this process, the interpreter should be empowered with perfect memory to convert the information from the source language to the target language. According to the interpretive theories, after listening to the linguistic symbols of the source language, the interpreter should analyze, synthesize, reason and connect the information and understand them with related theme knowledge and cognitive knowledge, and then represent them completely and correctly in the target language. However, human's memory is limited, and therefore note-taking is indispensable to fulfill an interpreting job successfully. Even we can say no one can conduct the full interpreting task without note-taking. Here are the three functions of note-taking summarized by Liu Hui(2008).

1. To reduce the burden of memory

The short-term memory is limited, which can only remain for one minute or so. While the average speed of a person's speech is about 150 words per minute, and it usually lasts for several minutes no matter it is a speech for interpreting or a piece of listening material. It is easily lost if not processed in time. And it forms a great burden as well as a big challenge for an interpreter to deal with a large amount of information including figures, names of persons and places and technical terms. Based on these problems, key words and details are needed to be taken down to assist the representation with the target language or to help other task implementing with more spare energy.

2. To lessen the mental pressure

The interpreter always works in a formal and stressing situation. Abnormal behaviors often occur at this time even if a good preparation is made. Even some easy points can escape occasionally. However, with the help of the note, the information of source language can be stored partly so that the interpreter can become a smooth link between the two parties even with great pressure. So note-taking can make a good guarantee for a successful interpretation with stress.

3. Re-organize the language while taking notes

A qualified interpreter should faithfully convey the information, tone, speaking manners and standpoints of a speaker. In order to achieve that, the interpreter should sort out the framework and the logical relation in the piece of speech while listening and taking down notes. Based on that he can organize the thinking and get ready to interpret.

B. Features

As the assistant aid of long-term and short-term memory, note-taking has the following features.

Temporality. The note-taking of interpreting is quite different from the notes in class. The former is the helper in interpreting while the later is used to review for the test or sth. Else in the later days. The note-taking in interpreting is a tool to human's memory when an interpreting is conducting. There is no need for interpreters to review them after the event, and perhaps they might be even illegible. They are valueless once the mission is completed. The new notes proceed with the new mission. From this sense, the note-taking in interpreting is on-the-spot and temporary.

Logicity. An ideal note is that the outline and framework of the source language is logically and clearly showed with fewer words but more lines. The words and lines would be meaningless without logical words or symbols. If the words and lines are leaves of a big tree, the logical symbols must be the trunk to link them together.

Individuality. An interpretive note is of great individuality. Its significance shows if the interpreter can understand it. And it doesn't matter even if anyone else is blind to it. Thus, there is no formula or mode to show a perfect note. Some prefer to take down notes in the source language to speed up and save time while others like the combination of the source language and the target language better for the reason that in this process part of encoding can be conducted. But more interpreters prefer to have a mixture note with symbols, abbreviations, lines and characters. In short, it is an effective note if it can remind and replenish. Even though there is no fixed standard to take notes, we still learn from the top interpreters to perfect our own.

C. Distinctions

Shorthand is a means of rapid writing. Its main use was in business offices around the world. Shorthand writers or secretaries take dictation from the boss and type up the dictation into the letter format. This is a fast process between symbols and words. But in interpreting, time is limited for an interpreter to put what he or she has listened into symbols in written form and then turn them into another language orally. That means two more processes. So shorthand can not make a good note-taking form in interpreting occasions. The specific distinctions can be listed as follows.

1. Words and different kinds of symbols are employed in interpretive note-taking in order to lay the emphasis and it is easy to go through fast. When a speech is delivered, an interpreter should get the logic idea in shape even if it is not clearly stated. Sometimes summarizing interpreting is allowed according to the analysis based of the notes.

2. During the speech, the shorthand can not change easily simultaneously if the speaker makes some conversions about what he says previously. But an interpretive note can adjust on the contradictory places anytime to keep in accordance with the speaker's idea.

3. The principle of shorthand is the same no matter what kind of language it is or what methods are employed. Actually shorthand is taken according to the pronunciation and it is reread in the same original language but not a new one. While an interpretive note is endowed with clear and simple indication with great distinctions among different people, which is convenient for an interpreter to translate.

On the other hand, an interpretive note-taking is also quite different with a class note-taking in that the key points, contents which is not clearly stated in textbooks, even examples are required to be taken down in a class note for the future review. Whereas, interpretive notes are abstract symbols and words processed actively in the interpreter's mind with prominent emphases and clear logic. And it is a great help for the note-makers to review immediately and temporarily.

D. Principle

If an interpretive student gets excessive training on note-taking at the beginning of their interpreting practice, it is likely for them to spend and depend too much on notes. However, the ultimate function of an interpretive note is always the beneficial supplement to the brain memory even if it is indispensable in a successful interpretation. Therefore, an interpreter should make it clear that the memory training should be prior to the note-taking training. In that case, they can always spare more energy on brain memory but not note-taking, and commit it to memory that notes are the remainders of key points but not the representation of the source language.

Chaolun Lin (2011), the filed interpreting expert, put forward the principles of interpreting notes as follows.

1. More verticals but fewer horizontals. The layout of interpreting notes should be vertical from the top to the bottom with a meaning group in one line on a A4 paper. And the width is about 1/3 or 1/4 of the sheet for the convenience of writing as opposed to usual habit of a full line horizontally.

2. More drawing but less writing. According to this principle, the notes should appear with more lines but fewer words or characters for the reason that it takes more time to note down symbols than the latter ones. Any word taking will influence the overall speed and efficiency of listening and producing. So simple and familiar symbols are greatly recommended. In this way can time be saved and more contents are ensured.

3. More lines for logical relations. Lines of different directions and shapes are employed to show contextual logic. For instance (---) is for "smooth development" "and (<) for "above all".

4. More meaning with fewer characters or letters. Key words are to be picked up here while listening and taken down in abbreviation. For example, "中""北" can stand for "中国" and "北京" respectively. And it is the same in English, such as "poli" and "gov" are for "politics" and "government". With these fewer characters and letters and logical words mentioned above, the general meaning can be figured out.

5. Fast writing. It involves a fast starting and a fast recording. The former refers to the immediate action with the

appearance of the speaker's voice. The latter one means continuous writing once it starts unless the speaker pauses to make sure of no missing information.

6. Definite ending. A set symbol (such as o or #) is clearly marked at the end of each part of speech for the reason that notes are usually taken down for consecutive pages with a speech of several minutes. With this ending mark, the interpreter can find the starting point easily and exactly to avoid the mistake of the skipping or repeating translation.

III. APPLICATION STUDY

A. *The Current Situation of College English Course*

College English Course is one of the indispensable parts of the higher education, and a compulsory course for non-English majors. The ultimate goal of this course is to equip the college students with more and more English capacity for their future working fields with the fast development of globalization. The Ministry of Education has performed several reforms to cultivate students' comprehensive mastery of English language. Some achievements have attained, among which the most prominent one is the "*The Curriculum Requirements for College English Course*" issued in July, 2007. The Curriculum Requirements clearly claims that college students should have training of three levels in listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating. The results of this reform, according to Xie Qingli.(2009), are incomparable to the former ones even though with some minor flaws such as too much reliance on multimedia teaching, stubborn teaching methods, or passive teaching modes. However, all these reforms are from the top to the bottom, and the writer of this essay finds as an average college English teacher, something can be conducted in everyday class to improve students' overall English capacity. And it is effective to change the passive class into a real student-oriented class. Therefore, the following attempt is the application of interpretive note-taking in the college English course.

B. *The Training of Note-taking in the College English Course*

1. What to take

Interpretive notes are memory aid with key words in the form of simple words or symbols to incite memories. The basic meaning and logic of a speaker can be also recalled by an interpreter with the its help. Figures, proper nouns and technical terms are to be taken down.

The expression mode of figures almost the same no matter what kind of language it is. These words seem easy to memorize yet also forgettable, so they must be written down immediately. There is usually no need to translate proper nouns even with slight changes in pronunciation. The practice of taking down technical terms should be conducted when an interpreter is quite acquainted with the skill of note-taking. These terms includes directions, art works or medical terms. Besides, examples of the same category are also to be written down for the reduction of memory load.

The recording of the speaker's thought is the toughest task with great personal characteristics, according to Heping Liu (2011). The principle of notes, no matter what form it is either symbols, chart or words, is merely to activate the passive memory in the interpreter in order to have a better understanding.

2. Systematical training steps

According to what discussed above, the training process can be conducted as the following steps.

a. Concept leading-in

A trainer should repeatedly lay emphasis on the assistant function of the notes and direct the learners to spare more energy on mind memory but not note-taking. It must take great amount of time to take down the full Chinese characters because of the composition and writing features. So are English words. That's why simplified symbols and lines of logic are introduced. Thus, time of decoding what the interpreter hears and encoding what he will interpret would be substantially saved. In this case a good habit of taking down notes with simple symbols can be formed at the beginning of the training.

b. Symbol infusion

It is not easy for a beginner to convert the way of taking he or she is already familiar with to a series of symbols and lines in a short term. So some commonly used and widely accepted symbols can be introduced at the very beginning. These symbols will not interfere in the individuality because of their scientificity and universality. These symbols usually include the following categories.

Abbreviation. This method is commonly used in English, such as ASAP (as soon as possible), Info (information), and e.g. (for example). It is of great benefit to be familiar with these abbreviations in note-taking.

Letter. "P" is for "politics, political". Q is "inflation" for it's like a rising balloon. "A" is for "agriculture" because this one is frequently used.

Mathematical symbols. "+" means "lots of, many, a good many of, a great deal of," etc.; (+2)(+3) means comparative degree or more and superlative degree or most respectively. Whereas, "-" stands for "few, little, lack, be in shortage of/ in short of" etc.

Punctuation. ":" shows different actions of "speaking" as "talk, say, announce, declare, marks" etc. "?" indicates "question, issue, problem". For example, "台湾问题": tw?. "☆" is for "important, best, brilliant, outstanding, exemplary", etc.

c. Bilingual recording. Which is better to take down notes in, the source language or the target language? This is a

question discussed among experts for a long time. Both of them have their own advantages. Much time can be saved if the source language is taken. However, more time will be spent in processing and reproducing. For this reason the use of the target language seems more favorable for it can save more time in interpreting to ensure a successful job. But this method is more applicable for the two languages of the same language family. As for Chinese and English, bilingual recording is suggested for the reason that Chinese is a parataxis language which the feature of one character with several meanings. But Chinese characters are difficult to write and it takes longer to be taken down. So English abbreviations are much better at this point. For example, UN is used instead of “联合国” and “.com” for “网络”. To conclude, it should be clearly stated that bilingual recording is encouraged at the beginning of learning for a learner.

d. Three-step repeating

The method of three-step repeating can be adopted in the class training. The first step is to play the recording continuously for students to take down according to their own habit and then try to interpret as complete and fluent as possible. The next step is to play the recording one sentence after another. The director is to analyze the key sentences, exchanges and perfects notes with students together. The last step is to re-listen to the recording once more and take down notes non-stop and interpret again. Students can have a deep impression on what they have practiced and have a quick reaction to the passage of the similar theme after repeated analysis and comparison training on notes. And they can form their own note-taking system and style by the frequent utilization of common symbols and logic lines.

e. Practice makes perfect

It's better to conduct note-training practice on a fixed time every day, such as from 17:00 to 17:30. An efficient note with quality can not be achieved in one day. The teacher should emphasize the significance of training for a long term. The students can compare their notes with what they have done every other month. Persistent training for consecutive three months can make a good note style, six months a skilled one. Only the enough accumulation at the beginning phrase can a quantitative leap achieve.

f. Comparison research

The teacher can compare students' notes with more skillful ones by some experts such as that of Chaolun Lin. By comparison students can improve their ability of identifying key words and phrases, and making out what information is necessary from the unnecessary time-consuming ones. The activity can be performed every half or a month, via which the distinction with an expert can be clear as well as the improvement is also evident step by step.

g. Breakthrough of difficult points

Interpreting is an extreme combined activity mentally and physically as well as a supreme skill acquired via thousands of testing. To overcome the difficult points for different people, the key is nothing but practice and practice. Here are two examples. The first difficulty is the proper names, such as “David Johnson”. The method is to combine memory with the note of key syllables or capitalized letter groups as “Dav Jo sn”. Another difficulty is the number. The common practice is to write according to the division of the source language, while at the same time mark the segregation in the target language. Take “9123456789” in English listening as example. It is written “9b123m45k789” (b: billion; m: million; th or k: thousand) while listening, and marked quickly meanwhile as “9b1'23m45'6k789” in a Chinese way from the end. And translation is “九十一亿，两千三百四十五万，六千七百八十九”. Of course, the only way to tackle these difficulties is only the repeated practice.

h. mock challenges

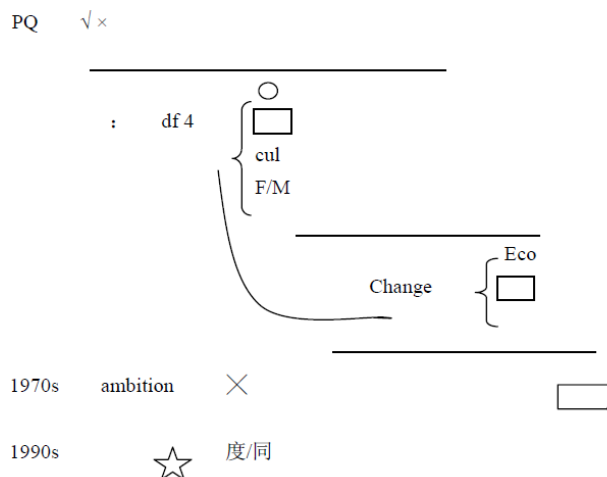
The improvement on the note-taking is greatly determined by the personal diligence. Yet, the stressing atmosphere in the classroom, although not that formal, also counts. It poses great challenges to students' bilingual knowledge and psychological bearing capacity. The pretended press conference or academic forum can be created in a classroom. In these mock conferences, students may not behave as well as they practice privately. However, they can become more familiar with the stress and challenges, through which they can develop a better psychological state for their future jobs. In the meanwhile students can easily assess their own performance in these situations. In this sense, the mock practice in the classroom can be the most challenging task to test a student's interpreting.

3. An sample

Here is an example of the first paragraph in unit one of “*College English Course for beginners (Book IV)*”

The original text: Personal qualities generally have either positive or negative connotations. Our attitudes toward such personal qualities are partly personal, partly social, and partly cultural. Some people also feel that gender plays a role, with some qualities being more positively valued by women than by men and vice versa. Such attitudes are not always static. They may be different with the change of economic and social circumstances. In some places, during the 1970s, ambition was seen to be bad, and then, during the harsh economic times of the early 1990s, a high value was placed on generosity and compassion.

After listening the students can have the note like this:



Common symbols	meaning	Common symbols	meaning	Common symbols	meaning
:	say, think, consider, attitude	☆	important; emphasis	df.	different; distinction
√	positive; favor; support	♀/F	lady; female; woman; girl	eco	economy; economic
×	negative; dislike; oppose	♂/M	man; male; boy	cul	culture
°ζ	many people	□	country;	□	area

The following retelling can be easily achieved by students according to the above notes: Personal qualities have positive and negative meanings. People’s opinions towards them are different in personal, social, cultural and gender aspects. And these opinions always change with economic and social situations. In the 1970s, ambition was seen to be bad in some places. And in the 1990s, people valued generosity and compassion highly.

By this kind of retelling, students can have a full understanding of the paragraph and reproduce it in their own words, which is a complete process of language input and output.

The practice can also be applied in oral lecture, in which one student addresses his own presentation, the rest take down notes, retell and interpret after a while. During this process, the efficiency of listening and oral capacity can be fully exercised.

IV. CONCLUSION

The author finds the current teaching mode of teachers’ lecturing and students’ listening in most college English course can not achieve the goal set by “The Curriculum Requirements for College English Course” after years’ of teaching observation. So this essay discusses the theoretical basis and the specific application practice of interpretive note-taking into college English class. The new approach has worked to some degree. However, all the teaching methods and skills do not exist separately. They can accelerate each other. The note-taking must be of some benefit to make the students really participate in the class by involving their minds, mouths and pens to substantially enhance their overall English capacity.

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The Study of Learning Styles, Thinking Styles, and English Language Academic Self-efficacy among the Students of Islamic Azad University of Behbahan Considering Their Field of Study and Gender

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Abstract—The purpose of the present paper was the study of learning styles, thinking styles, and English language academic self-efficacy among the students of Islamic Azad University of Behbahan considering their field of study and gender. The method of the study was 'surveying' in nature. The statistical population pool of the study included all the students of the Islamic Azad University of Behbahan (7941). The sample (367 students) was determined based on Morgan and Jesri table and was selected via stratified sampling technique. To collect data, Kolb's learning styles questionnaire, Sternberg's thinking styles questionnaire and the researcher-made questionnaire on the English lesson academic self-efficacy of students were used. In order to analyze the data, different statistical techniques which included mean, standard deviation, t-test, and chi square were utilized for examining the difference between the variables of gender and field of study. The results showed that the engineering students had more academic self-efficacy than humanities students. The rate of academic self-efficacy among male students was greater than that among female students. Male students had more assimilate learning style but female students had more divergent learning style. Humanities students had more divergent accommodate learning styles, but engineering students had more convergent and assimilate learning styles. The results also showed that the prevailing thinking style among male students was the judicial thinking style, but the prevailing thinking style among female students was the executive thinking style. Humanities students had more executive thinking style, but engineering students had more legislative thinking style.

Index Terms—academic self-efficacy, learning styles, thinking styles, gender, field of study

I. INTRODUCTION

Self-efficacy beliefs are part of the beliefs system that have a unique and fundamental role in the quality of human life and in creating a balance among its different dimensions. In Bandura's viewpoint, self-efficacy, which is the capacity to do a desired action or adapting to a specific situation, is the most central mechanism from among humans' psychological mechanisms (Bagheri and Yousefi, 2010). Self-efficacy and its related studies have been investigated widely in different fields of study including medicine, social studies, mass media, commerce and politics, psychology, and education (Hosseinchary and Kiani, 2008; cited in Veschio et al, 2007).

Self-efficacy, which is one aspect of motivational approaches, is the judgment of individuals about their abilities to organize and execute an array of works for achieving a variety of determined targets (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy beliefs are the basis for important processes including motivation, psychological well-being, and individual interests (Hosseinchary and Kiani, 2008). Self-efficacy is an essential variable in learning, social-psychological functions, motor skills, and the selection of approaches and behaviors (Pintrich and Schunck, 2005). Self-efficacy is divided into a variety of public self-efficacy, social self-efficacy, physical self-efficacy, academic self-efficacy, researching self-efficacy, Internet self-efficacy, etc.

Academic self-efficacy is a kind of personal judgment that determines the amount of individual effort and persistence for achieving success in an educational field of study such as mathematics and sciences (Seif and Marzooghi, 2008). Academic self-efficacy beliefs surface in different educational situations (Shokri et al, 2007), and they are related to

self-regulating approaches, efficient learning, educational performance, and the skill of social interactions with classmates (Khajeh and Hosseinchari, 2011). Social and psychological experts point out that individuals' self-efficacy beliefs are not the same in different fields of study. For example, it is possible for a student to have strong self-efficacy in mathematics but weak self-efficacy in a foreign language. Thus, self-efficacy should be examined based on assignment level in different activities and under different situations (Hosseinchari and Kiani, 2008).

Students have many differences that are essentially effective in education. They are different in terms of learning, self-efficacy ability and logical thinking ability, and they deal with problems and challenges in different ways.

Every student has his own specific learning style. These styles affect the amount of our learning under specific conditions. Some students learn better via listening, but some other students learn better through reading. Different learning styles theories have been offered that describe the preferential styles of students in learning. One of the most efficient and widely applied approaches in studying the learning of individuals is Kolb's learning styles.

According to Kolb's theory, learning is a four-level process that includes concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. This situation is indicative of two dimensions including (a) concrete experience versus abstract thinking (b) reflective observation versus active experimentation. These dimensions constitute four learning styles of divergent, convergent, assimilate, and accommodate (Izadi & Mohammadzadeh Edmolae 2007).

Convergent individuals are characterized by manipulating objects, logically analyzing beliefs, planning and learning thoughtfully; divergent individuals by reflective observation, cognitive learning considering different aspects of the subject; assimilate individuals by abstract conceptualization, interest in science and applied science; accommodate individuals by concrete experience, group discussion, interest in being with friends of the same age, and interest in humanities and art (Homayuni, Kadivar, and Abdollahi, 2007).

Studies on learning styles have shown that students will have higher academic achievement if they are taught according to their learning and processing styles. The learning style of an individual is examined, and then a suitable teaching style is adopted. Researchers have shown that learning styles can change over time. Students may also have more than one learning style (Rahmanpour, Palizban and Eshrat-Zamani, 2009).

Thinking styles have been considered by researchers as one of the effective behavioral variables today. Different studies have shown that thinking styles have relationship with problem-solving, decision-making, academic achievement, etc., and variables such as culture, gender, age, field of study, record of service, parents' styles, etc. affect individuals thinking styles (Emamipour and Seif, 2003). According to Sternberg's self-government theory (1997), humans have preferences in dealing with environmental affairs and in thinking about them which are known as thinking styles. Of course, thinking styles are not by themselves good or bad, but they are the way of thinking that humans are comfortable with (Nazarifar et al, 2011). Considering the role of aspects of human life and can be an effective factor in the processes of decision-making and problem-solving (Gheisarzadeh and Hosseinpour, 2011).

Sternberg (1997) has considered three thinking styles of legislative, executive, and judicial in the functioning dimension. Familiarity with individuals' thinking styles and knowing their relationship with personal abilities is especially important. For example, an individual with legislative thinking style can have high self-efficacy in innovation and invention, or a conscientious office worker with the prevailing judicial thinking style can be successful and self-efficient in assessment and judgment if they are put in a suitable cultural and situational context. Another aspect of the issue is that nowadays thinking has been especially considered to be important in educational theories. Successes and failures attributed to abilities often stem from styles. A teacher should know that the weak performance of a student is not always due to the lack of ability but because of the lack of proportion between thinking styles of students and expectations of teachers (Sternberg, 1997).

The main aim of this study is to know the type of learning styles and thinking styles of students, following that it is possible to choose suitable teaching and motivational methods for students. The other aims of this study are to examine the amount of academic self-efficacy of students in English lesson. Considering the important role of self-efficacy in different aspects of behavior, such knowing can help teachers develop this important behavioral variable of students.

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Hosseini Largaani (1999) concluded that learning styles of students of three fields of study- medicine, engineering, and humanities- are different. Rezai (2010) conducted a study to measure field-dependence and field-independence styles of high-school students. The results showed that students of mathematics tended towards field-independence style and students of humanities tended towards field-dependence style. The results of a study conducted by Salehi et al (1380) showed that the prevailing style among the students of nursing at Medicine Sciences University of Isfahan was the divergent style, and convergent, assimilate, and accommodate styles were ranked behind it. Azizi, Khanzadeh and Hosseini (2003) conducted a study to investigate learning styles among the students of Medicine Sciences University of Qazvin based on Kolb's theory. They showed that the distribution of learning styles among the students of medicine was generally as follows: assimilate (43.1%); convergent (38.1%); divergent (9.6%); accommodate (9.2%). According to Sarchami and Hosseini (1383), the assimilate style was the prevailing learning style among the students of nursing at Medical Sciences University of Qazvin. According to Khaksar beldaji (2006), the amount of self-efficacy is different in terms of age and gender. Self-efficacy is enhanced with the increase of age, and males have higher self-efficacy.

Physics and mathematics students took more advantage of the divergent style, the students of sciences used the assimilate style more, and humanities students enjoyed the accommodate style more. The students of physics and mathematics had the highest level of self-efficacy. Homayuni, Kadivar and Abdollahi (2007) concluded that students with divergent and accommodate learning styles chose fields of mathematics and sciences. But students with convergent and assimilate learning styles chose humanities more.

Najafi Kelyani, Karimi and Jamshidi (2009) concluded that the learning style of most students at the Medical Sciences University of Fasa was convergent (38.3%) and the assimilate style was ranked behind it (29.9%). Rahmanpour, Palizban and Eshrat-Zamani (2009) concluded that there was a significant difference between the styles of engineering students and those of humanities students. There was also a significant difference among the styles of different academic statuses. Panahi, Kazemi and Rezai (2011) pointed out that students with divergent and assimilate learning styles had a better academic performance than students with accommodate and convergent learning styles. Males enjoyed divergent learning style more, and the prevailing learning style of females was the assimilate one. Gheibi, Arefi and Danesh (2012) showed that students of humanities had the accommodate learning style, the engineering students had the convergent learning style, and the sciences students had the assimilate learning style at Shahid Beheshti University. The relationship between field of study and gender was significant. The academic self-efficacy in engineering students in comparison with the students of humanities and sciences and for the females compared with males was higher. There was no significant difference between the learning styles of males and females.

Emamipour and Seif (2003) pointed out that there was a significant difference among the thinking styles of students in different academic statuses. There was also a significant difference between the thinking styles of males and females. The rate of thinking styles of legislative, executive, and judicial in females was higher than that of males, and there was a significant relationship between thinking styles and academic achievement.

Razavi and Shiri (2005) found that there was not a significant relationship between the general thinking style and academic achievement and age, but there was a significant relationship between the general thinking style and gender. In another study, Akbarzadeh (2006) concluded that personal (age and gender) and educational (field of study and academic status) characteristics have relationship with thinking styles and academic achievement.

Sarveghad, Rezai and Masoumi (2010) showed that there was a positively significant relationship between the self-efficacy variable and all thinking styles except for introversion and general thinking styles in male and female high-school students in Shiraz at $p=0.01$ level. Nazarifar et al (2011) investigated the function of thinking styles and its relationship with academic achievement among the students of engineering, psychology and educational sciences at Tehran University and concluded that the students of psychology and educational sciences were higher in the executive thinking style, the students of engineering were higher in the legislative thinking style, and there was no difference among the students in the judicial thinking style. Also the executive thinking style among engineering students and the legislative thinking style among the students of psychology and educational sciences had the most predictive power for academic achievement. It was also shown that there was no significant difference between male and female engineering students in the executive thinking style. Females were higher in the executive thinking style and males were higher in the judicial thinking style. The male educational sciences and psychology students were higher than females in the legislative thinking style. Khosravi (2010) pointed out that the gender variable significantly predicts legislative, executive, and judicial thinking styles. Kolb and Wolf (1981) found that the students of commerce had the accommodate learning style, and the students of history, English language, political sciences, psychology, economics, and social sciences often had the assimilate learning style. The students of natural sciences had assimilate and convergent learning styles (Homayuni, Kadivar and Abdollahi, 2007).

Chang (1991) concluded that self-efficacy is different considering age and gender. He found out that males higher self-efficacy than females. Kelly (1997) showed that the familiarity of English teachers with the learning styles of students can help them present materials in the classroom better in such a way that it would help the learning and cognitive functioning of students and decrease the effect of personal factors on learning. Males enjoyed the divergent learning style more and females had more convergent learning style. It was also shown that there was no significant relationship between the learning styles of students and their field of study. Philbin et al (1995) found that the learning style of social sciences and humanities students is divergent, that of physics students is assimilate, and that of engineering students is convergent. Denizli and Cherki (2005, cited in Moradi, 2012) found that male students had a more tendency towards the judicial thinking style and female students used the executive thinking style more.

Considering the important role of academic self-efficacy, learning styles and thinking styles in the academic achievement, in the present study the role of academic self-efficacy, learning styles and thinking styles in the English lesson of students was investigated. The hypotheses of the study are as follows:

- H1: considering field of study, there is a significant difference among the academic self-efficacy of students.
- H2: considering gender, there is a significant difference among the academic self-efficacy of students.
- H3: considering field of study, there is a significant difference among the learning styles of students.
- H4: considering gender, there is a significant difference among the learning styles of students.
- H5: considering field of study, there is a significant difference among the thinking styles of students.
- H6: considering gender, there is a significant difference among the thinking styles of students.

III. METHODOLOGY

The statistical pool of this study included all students of Behbahan Islamic Azad University who registered in the first semester of the academic year 1391-1392 (7941).

Considering field of study, gender, and academic status, the sample (397) was selected based on Jersi and Morgan table using stratified sampling technique. To collect data, three questionnaires were used:

1. Kolb's learning styles questionnaire: this tool consists of 12 questions to which students give score according to their own learning priorities. In this questionnaire, each question has four options that the students assign one of the 1,2,3,4 scores according to the correspondence of each answer with their own learning. In case of the highest correspondence, score 4 is assigned, and in case of the lowest correspondence, score 1 is assigned. In this questionnaire, the answers of each question are arranged according to four learning styles, which none of them is preferable to the other ones and they are equal. This questionnaire has been examined in terms of reliability and validity in Iran by Hosseini Largaani (1999), Rahmani Shams (2001), and Taghvaeenia (2003), and the acquired coefficients are acceptable according to Cronbach alpha.

2. Sternberg's thinking styles questionnaire: this questionnaire is a self-report that was designed by Sternberg and Wagner (1992). It includes 13 subtests and 104 questions in such a way that each 8 questions included in the test evaluate one subtest. Since this paper investigates only 3 subtests of thinking styles function, the 24-question test would be used as a tool for the above mentioned procedure. Nazarifar et al (2011) showed that the reliability coefficient for the aggregate 3 functions was 0.75, and Shokri et al (2007) calculated the reliability coefficient by Cronbach alpha the three judicial, executive, and legislative styles. They were 0.71, 0.68, and 0.74 respectively.

In this questionnaire, the answer to each question is calculated according to the seven degree Likert scale. The questions 1 to 8 evaluate the judicial thinking style, 9 to 16 evaluate the legislative thinking style, and questions 17 to 24 evaluate the executive thinking style.

3. The researcher-made questionnaire of student's academic self-efficacy: because there was no special questionnaire for testing the students' academic self-efficacy for the English lesson, the authors, inspired by Owen and Froman's questionnaire of academic self-efficacy and Solberg et al (1993)'s academic self-efficacy questionnaire, provided the academic self-efficacy questionnaire for English lesson. The viewpoints of ten English language experts were also taken into consideration in order to examine its reliability and validity and it was shown that its reliability was 0.94 and its validity was 0.86.

IV. RESULTS

This section consists of descriptive and inferential findings.

TABLE I.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Standard Deviation	Mean	Highest	Lowest	Variable
11/02	37/26	58	12	Legislative
11/17	37/51	72	14	Judicial
8/30	42/47	56	18	Executive
6/77	28/47	44	14	Concrete experience
6/51	32/28	44	17	Reflective observation
6/21	33/11	47	18	Abstract conceptualization
7/41	32/27	44	14	Active experimenting
11/02	75/35	85	26	Self-efficacy

Descriptive findings: the mean and standard deviation of legislative variable were 37.26 and 11.02; those of judicial variable were 37.51 and 11.17; and those of executive style variable were 42.47 and 8.30. Also the mean and standard deviation of concrete experience variable were 28.47 and 6.77; those of reflective observation variable were 32.28 and 6.51; those of abstract conceptualization variable were 33.11 and 6.21; those of active experimentation variable were 32.27 and 7.41; and finally those of self-efficacy variable were 57.33 and 11.02 respectively. Considering academic self-efficacy, the results showed that there was a significant difference among humanities and engineering students at the level of 0.01. In other words, the mean of academic self-efficacy among humanities students was 54.81 and it was 61.60 among engineering students which was indicative of the higher self-efficacy engineering students than that of humanities students. The rate of academic self-efficacy among male and female students was different. The self-efficacy mean for male students was 64.61 and the self-efficacy mean for female students was 57.22. This was indicative of the higher rate of self-efficacy for males than that for females. Therefore, the first and second hypotheses were confirmed.

TABLE II.

FINDINGS OF INDEPENDENT T-TEST FOR THE COMPARISON OF SELF-EFFICACY WITH REGARD TO THE FIELD OF STUDY STUDY AND GENDER

fs	fd	T	Standard Deviation	Mean	
0/01	365	5/97	9/67	54/81	Humanity
			12/29	61/60	Engineering
0/01	365	0/16	13/46	64/41	Male
			10/14	57/22	Female

The results also showed that considering gender and field of study, there was a significant difference among the learning styles of students. Considering gender, male students had the assimilate learning style more, but female students had the divergent learning style more. Considering field of study, humanities students had the divergent and accommodate learning styles more, but engineering students had the convergent and assimilate learning styles more. Therefore, the third and fourth hypotheses were confirmed.

TABLE III.

CHI SQUARE TEST SHOWING THE DIFFERENCE IN THINKING STYLE WITH REGARD TO FIELD OF STUDY AND GENDER

Assimilate	Accommodate	Divergent	Convergent	Variable
78	52	47	65	Male
16	29	43	37	Female
94	81	92	102	Total
11	46	57	23	Humanity
71	33	47	79	Engineering
82	79	104	102	Total

Data analysis showed that there was a significant difference among the thinking styles of students considering gender and field of study. As per gender, male students had the judicial thinking style more, but female students had the executive thinking style more. As per field of study, humanities students had the executive thinking style more, but engineering students had the legislative thinking style more. Therefore, the fifth and sixth hypotheses were confirmed.

TABLE IV.

CHI SQUARE TEST SHOWING THE DIFFERENCE IN THINKING STYLE WITH REGARD TO FIELD OF STUDY AND GENDER

Executive	Judicial	Legislative	Variable
59	104	79	Male
57	36	32	Female
116	140	111	Total
62	38	37	Humanity
52	72	106	Engineering
114	110	143	Total

V. DISCUSSION

As was seen before, considering academic self-efficacy there was a significant difference between humanities and engineering students. But the rate of academic self-efficacy among male and female students was the same. This finding is in line with the findings by Khaksar beldaji (2006), Chang (1991), Perjures and Miller (1999), and Gheibi, Arefi and Danesh (2012). Khaksar beldaji (2006) concluded that the students of physics and mathematics had the highest rate of self-efficacy. Also, the rate of self-efficacy in both genders increased with the increase of age, and males had a higher self-efficacy. Chang (1991) found that self-efficacy was different considering age and gender. He showed that males had a higher self-efficacy than females. Also, Perjures and Miller (1999) concluded that the rate of self-efficacy in males was higher than that in females. The perception of self-efficacy can affect selection, resistance, performance, and excitement. Gheibi, Arefi and Danesh (2012) found that the self-efficacy of engineering students was higher than that of humanities and natural sciences students. They also found that the self-efficacy of female students was higher than that of male students.

To create or increase self-efficacy, it is necessary for students to be familiar with the learning styles of every field of study and the relevant jobs to be successful academically and in their careers. Measures should be taken to match teaching methodologies with the specific learning style of each field of study for the suitable education and for students to be able to learn the principles of their specialized field of study and to use their knowledge in an applied way and to take themselves as self-efficient individuals. In fact, self-efficacy is a principle of human activities and self-efficient individuals are creative and self-regulating and have an effective force on their activities to create desirable consequences. As a whole, self-efficient individuals choose bigger aims for themselves and activities that are more challenging. Self-efficient individuals even with obstacles in their way have greater persistence. They are able to come to terms with failures and disappointments and continue their way better.

The results showed that there was a significant difference among the thinking styles of students considering gender and field of study. As per gender, male students had the judicial thinking style more, but female students had the executive thinking style more. As per field of study, humanities students had the executive thinking style more, but the engineering students had the legislative thinking style more. These findings were in line with the findings of Nazarfah

et al (2011), Denizli, and Cherki (2005). Nazarifar et al (2011) concluded that psychology and educational sciences students were higher in the executive thinking style, engineering students were higher in the legislative thinking style, and there was no difference among them in the judicial thinking style. Nazarifar et al (2011) found that there was a significant difference among engineering male and female students in executive and judicial thinking styles; females were higher in the executive, and males were higher in the judicial thinking style. Denizli and Cherki (2005) found that male students tended towards the judicial thinking style and female students tended towards the executive thinking style.

Today, researchers have considered thinking styles as one of the effective variables of behavior. Various studies have shown that thinking styles are related with creativity processes, problem-solving, decision-making, academic achievement, etc. They affect factors such as culture, gender, age, field of study, and record of service.

The results also showed that there was a significant difference among the learning styles of students considering gender and field of study. As per gender, male students had the assimilate learning style more, but female students had the divergent learning style more. As per field of study, humanities students had the divergent and accommodate learning styles more, but engineering students had the convergent and assimilate learning styles more. These findings were in line with the findings of Gheibi, Arefi and Danesh (2012), Khaksar beldaji (2006), Hodayuni, Kadivar and Abdollahi (2007), and Philbin et al (1995), but they were different from the findings of Kolb and Wolf (1981). Gheibi, Arefi and Danesh (2012) found that humanities students had the accommodate learning style, engineering students had the convergent learning style, and the natural sciences students had the assimilate learning style. Khaksar beldaji (2006) concluded that physics and mathematics students enjoyed the divergent learning style more, sciences students used the assimilate learning style more, and humanities students employed the accommodate learning style more. Hodayuni, Kadivar and Abdollahi (2007) concluded that students with the convergent and assimilate learning styles chose sciences and physics and mathematics fields of study more than the students with the divergent and accommodate learning styles. But students with the divergent and accommodate learning styles compared with students with convergent and assimilate learning styles chose humanities more. Philbin et al (1995) concluded that the learning style of humanities students was divergent, that of physics students was assimilate, and that of engineering students was convergent. But Kolb and Wolf (1981) found that the students of history, English, political sciences, psychology, economics and social sciences had mainly the assimilate learning style.

Generally, learning styles are considered to be an important part of students' characteristics. Thus teachers dealing with different learners should accept the fact that every student may do his assignment and learn using a specific learning style. Although, it is possible to teach more efficient approaches and learning styles to students, every learning style is a personal characteristic that may be the most suitable for the learner.

VI. CONCLUSION

As was said before, in the contemporary world one of the essential issues is how to educate students in a way that their styles are compatible with today's complex and changing situation and the challenging conditions of the future. Every student has his own specific learning style. These styles affect our learning under specific conditions. Some students learn better via listening, while some other students learn better via reading. Students, who do not pay attention to the correct way of learning, lose their motivation for thinking, learning and achievement soon, since lack of familiarity with their learning styles and weaknesses can affect their spirit badly. Many students may drop out from school because of the lack of suitable self-awareness and specific learning styles. The belief that the present differences in the learning of individuals were due to differences in their IQs and capabilities has affected the world of education for so long. But this viewpoint has changed today, and it is completely clear that differences in individuals' learning are to some extent dependent on their intelligence and capability and factors like personality characteristics and the difficulty of assignment are effective as well.

In spite of great attempts for finding a specific method of teaching, investigators have found that it is not possible to consider a specific method as the best one. Every method has its own advantages and disadvantages and many factors should be taken into account for a good teaching. Making teaching styles compatible with the educational material and students' styles results in a better and more efficient teaching. Such insight has caused many investigators to commence the discussion on the emergent need for understanding various types of teaching styles in the classroom.

Generally, students have different preferences for the 'how' and 'where' of learning, and it is expected from teachers to consider these issues when teaching. Due to the importance of students' self-efficacy, it is suggested to teachers and university authorities to investigate the self-efficacy of students and to attempt to pave the way for the promotion of students' self-efficacy. Some measures should be taken to make the teachers' teaching styles compatible with the specific learning styles each field of study, to achieve desirable education and for students to be able to learn the principles of their specialized field, to use their knowledge in an applied way, and to consider themselves as effective individuals.

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The English Koranic Images in Some Literary Writings

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Abstract—The Qur’ān translations into English appeared first in 1649. This English translation entitled the Arabic Qur’ān as the Koran and ambiguously represented most of the authentic Islamic teachings. Some misinformation is directed against the Prophet and the divinity of the Qur’ān. In modern English literature, the reader encounters an increasing diversity of references to the English Koran. For instance, Prophet Muhammad is an imposter and his Koran is a stock of heresy. The Koranic Satan becomes a font of challenge for the righteous. The Koranic paradise has interesting details for English readers. The Koranic image of Hell trees becomes common in the West. The Koran has been presented to the Western world as promoting Islamic extremism and threatening the Western civil society. For some modern diehard fanatics, smashing or burning copies of the Arabic Qur’ān is a symbol of personal revenge and attack on Muslims’ dignity. The spread of genuine information about Qur’ān and Prophet Muhammad helps to appreciate Islam and Muslims.

Index Terms—Qur’ān, Koran, translation, Muhammad, Satan, paradise, English literature

I. INTRODUCTION

In modern English literature, the Arabic Al-Qur’ān is mentioned in English form as the Koran. The Arabic word *Qur’ān*¹ is derived from the Arabic word '*Qaraa*' which means 'to read,' 'reading,' or 'what ought to be read.' The Qur’ān has a variety of other names, "*Al-Keitaab*," the book; "*Al-Mosehaf*," the volume; "*Al-Forkaan*," the book distinguishing between good and evil (Stobart, 1895, p. 197). The story of The Qur’ān goes back to 610 of the Christian era (the era of the Hejira would not begin until twelve years later) when Muhammad, at the age of forty, received the first revelation of the Book of Allah. John Hughes (1677-1720) admires the story of first revelation on Muhammad. He depicts the vision of the first brightness of the divine contact between Gabriel, the Guardian angel of the revelation, and Prophet Muhammad in *Hera*'s cave:

The light divine whose beams
Pierc'd thro' the gloom of Hera's scared cave
And there illumined the great Mahomet,
Arabia's morning star, now shines on thee
Arise salute with joy the guest from heaven
Follow her steps and be no more a captive
Turn thy eye to Mecca! Mark
How far from Cabba first, that hollow'd temple
Her glory dawn'd, then look how swift its course
As when the sun beams shooting thro'a cloud
Drive o're the meadow's face the flying shades. (*The Siege of Damascus*, 39-40)

Prophet Muhammad was of a sincerely spiritual nature and had long ostracized the corruption of his culture. It turned into his habit to contemplate from time to time in the Cave of *Hera* close to the apex of *Jabal al-Nur*, the "Mountain of Light" next to the Grand Holy Mosque of Mecca. He was promoted to Prophethood at the age of forty, on Feb. 12th 610 A.D. His initial revelation appeared whilst he was prompting and observing nighttime vigil among the climax of Mount *Hera* as angel Gabriel emerged to him. God says to Muhammad in the Holy Qur'an: "*Recite in the name of your Lord who has created, Created man out of a germ-cell. Recite for your Lord is the Most Generous one, Who has taught by the pen, Taught man what he did not know!...*" (Ali, 1997, 36: 1-5).

Turks, Moors and heretics alike, treat Muhammad as an idol worshipper. They believe in the Holy Qur’ān as a source of their canon. Blasphemy of Saracen characters was given a wider prevalence in the early fourteenth century and was common until seventeenth century (Al-Olaqi, 2012, p. 65). Chaucer talks of 'mammatte' that had been turned into a legend in *The Man of Law's Tale*. The term "Maumerie" refers to the idea of idolatry (Davies, 1987, p. 51). The term 'Mahometans' or Muslims means idolaters — a belief common in the Middle Ages — arose the French mahomet, an idol; mahumerie idolatry, or an idolatrous temple, as here. For instance, Geoffrey Chaucer (ca. 1343-1400) describes the Muslim Sultan's rebellious blasphemy with outrage over Islamic faith, the Qur’ān and *Sunnah* - the tradition of the Prophet:

¹ The Arabic word 'Qur’ān' is going to be used to refer to the original Arabic text, while the term 'Koran' refers to the English translation.

The hooly laws of our Alkoran
 Yeven by Goddess message Makomete.
 But oon a vow to grate God I heete
 The lyf shal rather but of my body stertic
 Or Makometes lawe out of myn hertel. (2.3. 322-36)

Islam has been an object of curiosity about Muslims worldwide. Like Hughes, early English churchmen were interested in learning more about the Qur'ān. The Qur'ān has become a scholarly interest for churchmen to refute it. For instance, the first translation of the Qur'ān was done in Latin by the Reverend Robert of the Italian city, Ketton in 1143, on the initiative of Peter the Venerable, Abbot of Cluny. Peter the Venerable had developed his interest in Islam over some travels in Muslim Spain. His study of Arabic material disabused him of some of the absurd fantasies about Islam. Consequently, his attitude was somewhat modified and became less malevolent than that of his predecessors, particularly those who wrote during the last quarter of the eleventh century. Peter's preface set the example for future translations of the Qur'ān. The "fear of contamination" referred to above accounts for the inclusion of condemnatory introductions to almost all works which dealt with Islam, particularly the translations of the Qur'ān. Furthermore, Peter rejected Muhammad as a prophet and denied the Qur'an's divine origin. Humphrey Prideaux (1648–1724) an English churchman and Orientalist, quotes Peter's words which seemed to bounce back and forth, classifying Islam as heresy or paganism:

I cannot clearly decide whether the Mohammedan error must be called a heresy and its followers, heretics, or whether they are to be called pagans. For I see them, now in the manner of heretics, take certain things from the Christian faith and reject other things...For in company with certain heretics (Mohammad writes so in his wicked Koran), they preach that Christ was indeed born of a virgin, and they say that he is greater than every other man, not excluding Mohammad...They acknowledge that he was the Spirit of God, the Word-but not the Spirit or the Word as we either know or expound. They insanely hold that the passion and death of Christ were mere fantasies, but did not actually happen...They hold these and similar things, indeed, in company with heretics.²²

The first English translation is attributed to Alexander Ross (1649). George Sale's the *Alkoran of Mohammad* appeared in 1734. These English authorities concluded that the Qur'ān contains many teachings of the old divine books. English writers have diverse incomplete references to the Koran. Many quotations are descriptive. For instance, Victorian writers got to know from travel books how Muslims respect the Qur'ān. Byron seems indebted to Sale's scholarly notes in his English translation of the Koran. Southey seems acquainted with Koran's terminology. William Beckford and Thomas Moore happen to exploit their own literary interests in the Koran. For many Muslims, the Arabic Qur'ān has great meanings as being the Word of Allah, the Almighty. The English translations even by Muslims do not perfectly convey the meaning of the verses as it is meant by Allah.

II. ENGLISH TRANSLATION OF THE QUR'AN

The first Latin translation of the Qur'ān in 1143 was intended to refute the Qur'ān itself. This translation made the Qur'ān very weak. Along with this weakness, Peter included his own *Summa totius haeresis Saracenorum*, or "Summary of all the Heresies of the Saracens" (Iogna-Pratt, 2005, p. 327). Thereafter, the Latin translation was printed in 1509, but readers were not allowed to circulate its copies as the edition was not accompanied by a refutation. Munro (1939) speaks of Peter's translation of the Qur'ān as '... unfortunately very inaccurate and full of errors, but it was the only one known in the West until the end of the seventeenth century' (p. 337). In 1594, Hinkelmann published his translation of the Qur'ān; it was followed in 1698 by the Italian cleric Ludovici Marracci's translation which included a refutation. Subsequently, translations of the Qur'ān began to appear in modern European languages such as English, French, German, Italian and Russian. The admirable exploration of the three French travellers, Jean Baptiste Tavernir, Jean de Thevenot, and Sir Hahn Chardin, helped them to translate the Qur'ān into English between 1677 and 1684. They turned out to be rightfully popular. Alexander Ross, the Scottish author of *The Al-coran of Mohamet* (1649) wrote a book on comparative religion. This shoddy translation, based on Andre Du Ryer's French version, and not directly on the Arabic version, contains many distortions and misinterpretations. George Sale's translation in English *The Koran*, commonly called the *Alkoran of Mohammed*, was in 1734. It is widely circulated translation with more than 125 editions has been published so far. Though this translation is a paraphrase and not a literal translation; it is one of the accessible translations so far. Sale's English translation of the Qur'ān was the most popular and the best for readers (Burman, 1998, pp. 703-732).

In early European Church, any translation of the Holy Arabic Qur'ān was considered as a crime. In anticipation of this criticism, in the eighteenth century George Sale realised that his Koran, the translation of the Qur'ān, might inflame a huge argument. Before Sale, any Western investigation of the Qur'ān has centred less on the theological significance and more on the impact of the holy text. Sales's translation was an innovation in Islamic studies in Europe. Western critics such as Theodor Biblander, Martin Luther and Thomas Browne were impressed by Sale's translation. Thomas Browne reports George Sale's *The Koran* includes criticism over his translation of the Qur'ān. It might provoke George Sale who wrote in the introduction that "they [critics] must have meant the opinion of the Christian religion, who can

² See Lewis, B. and Holt, P. M. (ed.) *Historians of the Middle East* (London: Oxford University Press, 1962), p. 293.

apprehend any danger from so manifest a forgery" (Simon, 1931, p. 259). Sale understood the Western Church apprehension over the Islamic theological challenge which might create an appreciation among the Christians. On the other hand, Sale's *The Koran* does show a certain ideological connection of the Qur'ān with the old scriptures. The Christian Church deals with this connection as evidence to falsify the Qur'ān. For the fifth and sixth centuries Jewish and Orientalist like St. John of Damascus (d. 750 AD),³ the Jewish and Christian stories and doctrines are intermingled in the Quran with some rabbinical fables. Some Orientalists assert that Abdia Ben Salem, a Jew, and the Christian monk, Sergius or Bahifa, aided Muhammad to compose the Qur'ān. They think Muhammad had access to the old scriptures during the journeys to Syria in his early life. On the other hand, this connection of the Qur'ān with the old scriptures seems doubtless since the Qur'ān owes everything to scripture, except its spirit, and its deep manifest contradictions (Green, 1914: 149). The Koran says on this point:

They say, certainly some man teaches him; he

Whom they mean speaks a barbarous language; but the

Koran is in the Arabic tongue, full of instruction and eloquence. (Sale, 1734: xvi)

The first English translation, which is attributed to Alexander Ross (1649), appeared with 'A Needful Caveat,' or Admonition for them. Ross's desire was 'to know what use may be made of, or if there be a danger in Reading the Al-Coran' (Lewis, 1962, p. 290). Despite all such religious and secular perspectives from which the Qur'ān is approached, Muslim and Western analysts agree that the Qur'ān is a beautiful, lyrical, and powerful work. Many attempts to translate the Qur'ān continued with much interest in Oriental studies. For instance, in the seventeenth century travel literature has played a great role in presenting Islamic accounts to Europe. The English academicians were acquainted with Koranic accounts such as Islamic social issues like the deprivation of women's rights, the description of hell, and the images of the two hell angels, Munkar and Nakeer in the Qur'ān (Smith, 1977, pp. 22-23).

Throughout the early eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, travel to the Islamic World became increasingly popular, and travel reports were distinguished as a distinct sort of literature. Wallace Cable Brown (1939), a modern literary critic, has investigated the enormous influence of this travel trend on the social and literary activities of the time. He explains that 'The great vogue for writing and reading of Near East travel books between 1775 and 1825, naturally had a marked influence on contemporary thought and activity'. He underlines that 'these travel books helped to create at home a large body of poetry and prose, of which this region is the theme or background' (pp. 79-80). Brown notes that the Romantics' interest in Levant matter was for personal literary reasons, not for religious and/or political propaganda (Ibid). In addition, on a high scholarly level, the translation of Islamic religious and literary works into English by scholars such as Lord Byron, Percy Bysshe Shelly, William Beckford, Thomas Moore, Edward William Lane, Edward Gibb, Richard Burton, and Godfrey Higgins, helped kindle and sustain public interest in Islam, throughout their scholarly works on a range of aspects of Islam.

Translation of the Qur'ān has always been a problematic and difficult issue. Many argue that the Qur'ānic text cannot be reproduced in another language or form. Furthermore, an Arabic word may have a range of meanings depending on the context, making an accurate translation even more difficult. The nineteenth century saw further advances in the English translations of the Qur'ān. John Meadows Rodwell's *Translation of the Koran* (1861) rearranges the Koran in chronological order to understand the Qur'ān. In this methodology Rodwell tries to establish the hypothesis that the basic source of the Qur'ān lies in Jewish and Christian scriptures. The chronological sequence of the different *Suras* or chapters is to be gathered alone from the subject matter, and from clear references to passing events, which may be discovered in the Qur'ānic chapters. Edward Henry Palmer's *The Koran* (1880) was not without merit, but it passed over in favour of more recent ones. In the twentieth century, Marmaduke Pickthall produced his translation entitled *The Meaning of the Glorious Quran*, (1930). The British translators have occasionally preferred archaic English words and structures in excess of their more contemporary or conservative comparables; for instance, two extensively interpret translators, A. Yusuf Ali and M. Marmaduke Pickthall, employ the plural and singular "ye" and "thou" rather than the more frequent "you". The effect of this Middle English language is to place the Koran on a similar basis to the Biblical translations. Unlike Pickthall, Richard Bell translated the Qur'ān in 1937. The modern English translators have favored modern English to translate the Qur'ān. These are the most famous English Koran translations. All these translators were non-Muslims. Nevertheless, there have been numerous translations by Muslims.

III. IMAGE OF THE KORANIC DEVIL

Literature is both a determiner and a denominator of culture. T.S. Eliot (1915) remarks that the civilizing legacy of a country has an enormous significance and brunt over the structure of literature through times (p. 12). The impact of Robert of Ketton's translation of the Qur'ān lasted to 1542 (Bald, 1998, p. 140). In the sixteenth century drama, Christopher Marlowe's *Tamburlaine* (1587) was influenced by this interpretation in making references to the Qur'ān. *Tamburlaine* contains reference from the Koran that the Christians and devils are going to hell. Marlowe was well enough acquainted to use some verses, metaphors and even Arabic words from the Holy Qur'ān (Al-Olaqi, 2012: 2, p.180). For instance, after the death of the defeated King Sigismund, the Turkish captain detective Orcanes accounts

³ St. John (d. 750 AD) was a Christian priest and the founder of the Christian tradition towards Islam. In his book *De Haeresibus* (730) he tries to prove that Muhammad wrote the Quran.

that the Koranic penalty of Christians and Sigismund is to be eaten from a tree with bitter leaves, 'Zoacum,' which can only be created in hell. Marlowe uses the same Koranic name and description of the hell tree, 'Zaqqum,' whose branches are like the heads of devils. He Marlowe formulates the same depiction:

... feeds upon the baneful tree of hell,
That *Zoacum*, that fruit of bitterness,
That in the midst of fire is ingrafted,
Yet flourisheth as Flora in her pride,
With apples like the heads of damed fiends. (*Tamburlaine*, P II, II.iii.16–20)

To contrast this citation with the Qur'ānic verses, it appears as if Marlowe entirely used the unique text of the Qur'ān; Allah says:

62. *Is that the better entertainment?
Or the Tree of Zaqqum?*

63. *For We have truly
Made it (as) a trial
For the wrong-doers.*

64. *For it is a tree
That springs out
Of the bottom of Hell-fire:*

65. *The shoots of its fruit-stalks
Are like the heads
Of devils.* (Ali, 1997:1350–1351)

In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, authors such as William Congreve, Alexander Pope and Robert Southey spoiled Qur'ānic information with prejudice over the authenticity. Southey's note in *Thalaba* (1801) is that 'The tame language of the Koran could be remembered by the few who have toiled through its dull tautology' (Oueijan, 1996, p. 114). Out of Southey's deep reading, he concludes that he found out many errors in the Qur'ān such as the repetitions of stories (Ibid). Southey seems acquainted with the Koran's terminology. *Thalaba* wants Oneiza to 'Retail thy Koran-scrap' in which he comes to speak about an unpleasant story he has to sell that in Hell there is a cup of 'the unallowable bitterness' called 'Of Zaccoum's fruit accurse' (Book VII, 1. 184). According to the Koran, the *Zaccoum* is a tree that grows from the bottom of Hell. Its fruit is food for the damned. These eighteenth and nineteenth centuries authors had known through travel books how Muslims respect the Qur'ān as it contains faith and law. Therefore, they understood the Qur'ān as the high Islamic authority. Despite this attitude, they attacked the Qur'ān and Prophet Muhammad. For example, Alexander Pope (1688-1744) depicts Prophet Muhammad as 'Arabian Prophet' whose Qur'ān is full of evil laws. Pope describes the Qur'ānic laws of *Shariah* as full of 'ignorance (Pope, 1897, pp. 79-80). William Congreve's play, *The Way of the World*, displays Islamic jurisdiction. Congreve looks down on the Islamic rules in the Qur'ān saying:

To drink is a Christian diversion
Unknown to the Turks or the Persian
Let Mahometan fools
Live by heathenish rules. (VI, ii, 45-48)

Eblis is the principal devil jinni in Islamic mythology. He is an invisible spirit mentioned in the Koran. Eblis as a "deceiver" directs forces of darkness. William Beckford wrote *Vathek: An Arabian Tale* in 1782. Beckford powerfully stirs the reader's imaginative faculty into deeper Koranic dimensions of the soul and its mysteries, perhaps most remarkably in the tale of the Hell of Eblis. The chief of evil stands for the spirit Eblis, father of Gennis, in the Koranic tradition. Eblis did not prostrate to Adam as obedience to the command of Allah. The angels prostrated themselves to Adam in obeisance to Allah. Eblis said: 'I am better than he [Adam]: You created me from fire, and him; You created from clay', Allah said in the Holy Qur'ān: 'Then get you out from here: for you are rejected, accursed; And my curse shall be on you till the Day of Judgment' (Ali, 1997, 38: 73-78). Beckford represents Eblis in Hell. The icon of Hell evokes fear and horror. It has a connection with the Koranic account. With its 'halls and galleries', 'long curtains brocaded with crimson and gold', 'choirs and dances', 'gleam brightening through the drapery' and 'chambers' are a fantastic portrait of paradise (Lonsdale, 1983, pp. 11, 115). It looks more like a big chimney than the horrifying, bottomless ditch of the unappeasable flame. This vision is portrayed as the Hell in Islamic tradition, as for example, in the following Qur'ānic text: 'Those in the hell will be in the midst of a fierce blast of fire And in boiling water, And in the shades of black smoke, Nothing will there be to refresh, nor to please' (Ali, 1997, 56:42-44). Beckford's incapability to seize the Islamic conception of 'Eblis' for Koranic Satan tarnishes the portrait of Eblis: 'His person was that of a young man, whose noble and regular features seemed to have been tarnished by malignant vapours. In his large eyes appeared both pride and despair; his flowing hair retained some resemblance to that of an angel of light. In his hand, which thunder had blasted, he swayed the iron sceptre that causes the 'monster *Ouranbad*, the *afrits* and all the powers of abyss to tremble' (Lonsdale, 1983, p. 111). Beckford's formidable 'Eblis' seems a more heartbreaking figure than Milton's Satan does.

IV. THE KORANIC PARADISE

The description of Paradise in the Koran evokes admiration from the English authors. In *The Siege of Damascus* (1720), John Hughes (2010) is captivated by the Muslims' Paradise such as those rivers of milk, honey and wine (pp. 25-26). His description resembles the real Qur'anic Paradise like the interpretation of some verses in the Qur'an, Chapter Muhammad (Ali, 1997, 47:15). The work of Lord Byron contains many Koranic terms such as 'Allah', 'Allah-O-Akbar', 'Koran', 'Bismillah', 'Ramazan', 'Haram', 'Houris', etc (Kidwai, 1995, pp.77-122). This usage indicates his wide Islamic knowledge. In his poem, *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*, Byron speaks admirably about the call of prayer from the top of minaret of a mosque. The muezzin's sound loudly calls to come and pray Allah, the Only God:

Hark! From the mosque the nightly solemn sound,
The muezzin's call doth shake the minaret,
There is no god but God!— to prayer— lo! God is great!' (II, 37-39)

The faith ceremony, 'There is no god but God! God is great,' is also adopted from its Arabic translation - '*lallaha Illallah-Muhammad Rasullah*'. For such type of factual description of Islam, Byron seems indebted to Sale's scholarly notes in his English translation of the Qur'an (1734) (Siddiqui, 2010, p. 26). Byron's representation of some Koranic theology is very clear in his allusion to famous verses in the Koran like 'Al-Sirat's arch' in *Giour*, p.483, which is in the Koran (Ali, 1997, 1:5). Byron ironically scorns the vision on the Koranic reference to the only way to paradise called *Al-Sirat*, the path, which is very critical for all Muslims as it is lighter than a single hair. Byron claims to dance on it and whispers to women for love. He says:

By Alla, I would answer nay,
Though on *Al-sirat* arch I stood,
Which totters over the fiery flood,
With Paradise within my view,
And all his Houris beckoning through. (III, 55)

The 'ayat al Kursi' (the throne verse) is as an amulet protection from danger when it is recited. In *Giour* (p.490), Byron's description to the 'Houris' like toys in Paradise for tyrants' lust as 'a vulgar error; the Koran allots' (p. 894), is an unpleasant depiction of the Qur'an. This allotment is neither in the Qur'an nor in any Islamic text.

Byron referred to the Koran several times in *The Bride* (1813), an Islamic tale. He speaks about reciting 'Koran verse that mourns the dead' (*Giour*, p. 726). He calls the readers as 'Koran-chanters' (*The Bride*, II, 189). In the same poem, the poet assumes that Muslim women have fewer rights than the men in the Koran. He unfairly claims that Prophet Muhammad has deliberately concealed the women's celestial pleasure in paradise.

And oft her Koran conn'd apart;
And oft in youthful reverie
She dream what Paradise might be:
Where woman's apart soul shall go
Her prophet had disdain'd to show. (*The Bride*, II, 629)

Byron's Baba, in *Don Juan*, is a Muslim character full of faults: 'he said, and swore on/ The holy camel's hump, besides the Koran' (VI, 102). Byron draws between the Prophet's she-camel called 'al-qaswa' and the Qur'an for Muslims which is untrue. No Muslim ever swears by the Qur'an than by the 'al-qaswa'. Allah prohibits all Muslims to swear by anything but His attributed names (Al-Bokhari, 2000, Hadith No. 6646).

Thomas Moore (1734), another nineteenth century writer, goes a step further in accusing the Prophet of Islam in *Lalla Rookh* with inventing the Qur'anic text to gratify his lust' (p. 218). Moore's extensive use of Islamic material rendered *Lalla Rookh* a source of Islamic and Qur'anic images. He enriches his poem with Qur'anic illustrations to decorate his poetic themes. For instance, Moore describes earth discharging its stuff at the day of doom as in Sale's translation of the Koran: 'and gladdened Earth shall thro' her wide expanse/ Bask in the glories of this countenance!' (p. 214). Sale (1734) appreciates the Koranic story of the good believer to be rewarded for his devotion: 'The righteous shall be given to drink of pure wine, sealed: the seal whereof shall be musk' (chap, p. lxxxiii). Moore's extraordinary visualizations of the Koranic images enriched his poetry with Islamic colours. Moore's poems were very famous in the nineteenth century. One of these Koranic images is the *Tooba* Tree in paradise. Moore describes the tree:

Passing away like a lover's sigh; --
My feast is now of the Tooba Tree
Whose scent is the breath of Eternity!
Farewell, ye vanishing flowers that shone
In my fairy wreath so bright an' brief;--
Oh! What are the brightest that e'er have blown
To the lote-tree springing by ALLA'S throne
Whose flowers have a soul in every leaf.
Joy, joy forever. --my task is done—
The Gates are past and Heaven is won! (*Veiled Prophet of Khorassan*, 176-185)

The paradise's sweet trees as recorded in the Koran attract writer to describe some Koranic trees. For instance, the 'Tooba Tree' is a very huge tree in paradise with a shadow that a horse-ride traveller needs hundred years to pass' (Al-

Bokhari, 2000, Hadith No. 3251). Moore repeats D'Herbelot's description of Muhammad's palace in Paradise, and it stands to 'signify beatitude or eternal happiness' for Muhammad (Kidwai, 1995: 104). Another beautiful landscape is of 'the lote-tree springing by Allah's throne.' It is the *Sadratu'l-Muntahá*, the highest spot in Paradise, in the seventh Heaven, on the right hand of the throne of God. Thomas Moore quotes Sale's translation of the Koranic verses in the Star chapter (Sale, 1734, pp. 53:7-18). Like Moore, Byron remarks on the end of the seventh Heaven which Prophet Muhammad saw the real physic of the Angel Gabriel by Cedar tree. Byron describes the deep silence and calmness of the seventh Heaven in which the divine tree of Cedar is the eternal home of Muslims: 'Cedar tree, 'beyond which there is no passing: near it is the Garden of Eternal Abode' (*The Bride*, II, 73,103, 189, and 629.)

As religious duty, some Christians do respect sacred scriptures like the Qur'an. In *Irene* (1749), Dr. Johnson speaks about Muslims' reverence to the Koran. Muslims strongly hold that salvation could only be found in the Qur'an and the *Sunnah*, Prophet Muhammad's tradition. William Hodson's play, *Zoraida: A Tragedy* (1779), criticizes the Islamic theology regarding the 'black stone' as given to Adam from heaven. Hodson refers to the description of Paradise and Allah, the Almighty, as in the Holy Koran (1880: 55:46-69). Sultan Selim takes oaths to Zoraida by the tree trunk of the Throne of God. He says, 'By the sacred trunk\ Of Zedrat's tree whose everlasting foliage\ Shadows the throne of Allah' (II, 37-39). The *Kursi* or Throne of Allah, attracts the English readers. It stirs the imagination of Western writers and their public with the glamour of the Throne and its Maker. The Koran contains a verse called *Kursi*, which Hodson illustrates in depicting 'Allah sits enshrined, spontaneous chime\ To more than mortal minstrelsy' (*Zoraida*, II. 2. 36-37) In another picture from the Koran (1880: 55:70-74 and 76:17), Hodson describes how 'Houris invite' the warriors 'to their arms' with 'spicy Zenzibil' glass of juice (*Zoraida*, II.2. 54).

The Koranic theology of levels of Islamic Paradise fascinated Western authors. The top of paradise is the throne of God. Europeans were curious to know about the divine message of the Holy Qur'an. For instance, Christopher Marlowe (1564-1593) amazes his Elizabethan audience with this description of Qur'anic God, suggested to be taken assertively as the same Christian Godhead. He speaks marvelously of the oneness of God, declaring: 'The God that sits in heaven.../ For he is God alone, and none but he' (Part II, 5.1.199-200). Carleen Ibrahim (1996) remarks that Marlowe means the verse of *Ayat Al-Kursi* (Throne), a great verse in the Noble Qur'an (2.255) (p. 67). The verse's meaning is employed by Marlowe in *Tamburlaine*:

He that sits on high and never sleep,
Nor in one place is circumscribable,
But everywhere fills every continent,
With strange infusion of his sacred vigour. (Part II, 2.2.49-52)

The verse means that the throne of Allah in the sky includes all things, world, planets and skies. The following is the verse:

Allah! There is no god but He, - the Living, the Self-Subsisting Supporter of all. No slumber can seize Him, nor sleep. His are all things in the heavens and on earth. Who can intercede in His presence except as He permits? He knows what (approaches His creatures) before or after or behind them. Nor shall they compass aught of His knowledge except as He wills. His throne extends over the heavens and the earth, and He feels no fatigue in guarding and preserving them for He is the Most High, the Supreme (in glory). (Qur'an: 2.255)

The image of Paradise is fascinating for English authors. This literary paradise secularizes Islamic traditional theological concepts of divine heaven. Its interest in Koranic matters is used by English authors to enrich their literary themes. For them, these pictures enrich the spectrum of imagination, but for readers they create a romantic construction of the Oriental Other. Dryden's Oriental play introduces an Islamic theology in looking at God in paradise 'O holy Alla that I live to see'. In *Don Sebastian*, Dryden represents Sultan Almanzor 'swear[s] on the Alcoran' (5, 191). Dryden talks about 'fasting' as an Islamic 'law,' and the same law 'forbids to wed a Christian' which is in the Qur'an (2: 221; 60:10).

V. THE PROGRESS OF THE KORAN'S IMAGE

An important event that marked awareness of Islam in England was the translation of *The Arabian Nights' Entertainment* into English from the French version of Antoine Galland. For many ages, writers remained under the spell of the Orient through those available translations. Others contributed to a better understanding of Islam and its Koranic teachings like the work of Jonas Hanway, a merchant and a philanthropist, who published his *Historical Account of the British Trade over the Caspian Sea* in 1733. Hanway's work contains comprehensive observations on the Qur'an.

British residents in Muslim countries made some more important contributions to the issue. Their records showed years of communal and business contact. A good example of that is *The Natural History of Aleppo* (1756) by Dr. Alexander Russell. The book presents a topographical description of Aleppo, an assessment of its population, and a description of the flora and fauna life in it. Such works gave the English readers a virtual representation of Islamic world and an opportunity for acquiring information about the Muslim society. Such positive understanding of Muhammad is written in Edward Gibbon's description of Prophet Muhammad in his book *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* (1776). For the first time, the Prophet is shown in a seemingly positive image. Gibbon goes on

portraying his accounts of the holy Koran to his English readers - not a totally objective approach especially so when he sees Muhammad as an imposter, a biased view deeply rooted in Judeo-Christian culture.

In *The Fire Worshipper* (1836), Thomas Moore attacks Muslims and the Koran. He believes that the Koran approves bloodshed and violence with rewards in Paradise for the killer. He asserts that the Koranic amulet works as 'light in blood;' in *The Princess*, the Holy war is in every heavenly religion but there are restrictions. Moore draws a deductive image of the Koran to approve killing in the name of God. He says:

One of that vainly, murderous brood,
To carnage and the Koran given,
Who think through unbelievers' blood?
Lies their directest path to heaven; -
One, who will pause and kneel unshod,
In the warm blood his hand hath poured,
To mutter over some text of God
Engraven on his reeking sword. (Burt, 1920: 99)

Thomas Moore refers to Prophet Muhammad's letter to George the Makawkas,⁴ viceroy of Egypt, who answered that he would believe the suggestions, and sent amongst gifts, two youthful maidens. One of them is Mary, who was fifteen years old. Moore depicts Prophet Muhammad's happiness with the young slave girl and his debauched lifestyle in sex. He depicts Prophet Muhammad as unfaithful in his Koran when he calls some angel to approve his love with Mary by a new Koranic text. Now, a revelation comes which is recorded in the sixty-sixth chapter of the Qur'ān (pp. 66:1-5), releasing the prophet from his oath, and allowing him to have concubines, if he wished. This is a negative remark on Prophet Muhammad as he receives revelation while he is in the embrace of his wife, Ayesha, whom Allah has selected to be his heavenly wife. Once the Prophet was asked about the best beloved person for him, he said 'Ayesha' (Al-Bokhari: 2000, Hadith No. 3662). Thomas Moore, the poet, thus alludes to the circumstance in *Lalla Rookh*:

And here Mohammed, born for love and guile.
Forgets the Koran in his Mary's smile,
Then beckons some kind angel from above.
With a new text to consecrate their love! (*Veiled Prophet of Khorassan*, 83-86)

Misunderstanding made some English writers like Sir Walter Scott identify Muslim soldiers in Palestine as the immortal enemies of Christians who became the fanatical savages of Arabian deserts. He depicts them with the 'sabre' in one hand and the Koran in the other, raising an infliction of 'death or the faith of Mohammed' (Scott, 2002: 230). They are knights 'with an accuracy' of the Qur'ān as 'a better religion.' They are 'faithfully observed' and 'given occasion for display of good faith, generosity, clemency, and even kindly affections.' They are 'apt to shoulder for a length of time in the bosoms of those who are so unhappy as to be their prey.' The character of Arab physician utters some verses from 'the Koran,' like 'God be our guide, and Mohammed [is] our protector in the desert as in the watered field' (Ibid, 230). Furthermore, John George Edgar (1834-1864), a British author and biographer, cites a dialogue between Bibars Bendocdar, an Egyptian Muslim, and a crusader Frank in *The Boy Crusaders: A Story of the Days of Louis IX* (1865): Bibars Bendocdar describes his campaign to Egypt as unfair and he is punished as a promise by God as the Koran states: those 'who make war unjustly shall perish;' at the same time, Frank answers proudly a 'Saracen' or 'an Anglo-Norman gentleman does not regulate his conduct by the Koran;' Bibars, shouts loudly at Frank; 'Infidel!', 'you know not of what you speak. You will have to account for your faith to the angels *Munkir* and *Nakir*.' The Frank exclaims with an air of perplexity that '*Munkir* and *Nakir*!' 'beshrew me if I ever before heard of their names' (Edgar, 1865, p. 45). In Islamic theology, *Munkir* and *Nakir* are angels who attend every man and note down his good and evil deeds. They are the formidable inquisitors of the dead.

The historical authenticity or doctrinal autonomy of the Qur'an abdicates the universal mission and it hence poses no challenge to the West. Such attempt of intercultural understanding, at least, seems to help some authors to appreciate the Qur'an. For instance, Alfred Lord Tennyson (1809-1892) admirably speaks about Akbar's hypothesis of religious unification in *Akbar's Dream*. The seventeenth century Indian thinker Akbar dreams of one 'new Koran' and one place of worship with permanent opened-door, neither like 'Church nor a Mosque,' but a loftier temple. However, unlike other dreams, Tennyson advances man's quest beyond the normal dimensions of intellectuality and imagination to find his identity in a place to every breath from heaven and Truth, and peace.

Like the English, French writers to have their own criticism about Islam. M. De Voltaire's French tragedy of *Mahomet* (1736) represents medieval tradition of the accumulated accusations that the Western Christianity had recorded against the Qur'ān and Muhammad. In that epoch, those accounts inspired Englishmen as well as other Europeans. Nevertheless, they were modified in meaning and depended on approaches to attract Islam by history and culture. Little has changed over the past few centuries. This current "threat" of Islam, in fact, has brought the Western world closer to the sort of polemic-filled invective that distinguished the West's relations with the Islamic world during the "Ottoman threat" in the sixteenth century till the late eighteenth century.

⁴ Prophet Muhammad wrote at the same time to the world emperors - Heraclius the emperor of Byzantium, Chosroes II the emperor of Persia, the Negus of Ethiopia, Harith Gassani the governor of Syria and Munzir ibn Sawa the ruler of Bahrain.

Most of the nineteenth century authors, such as Johann von Goethe and Robert Southey, did not set foot on the Eastern soil, but they had a deep understanding of Islam. Goethe was extraordinarily fascinated in Islam when he noted down in his *West-Oestlicher Divan* in 1814-1815. In it, he attempted to reproduce the verses of the Qur'an, which he studied in German and yet learned this diverse interpretations into other Western languages. Goethe, though, firmly believed that all translations were deficient because throughout that period in Jena he had been studying to read and write Arabic. Accordingly, he could have read verses of the Qur'an in their novel language. In his *West-Eastern Divan*, he marks:

Whether the Koran is of eternity?

I don't question that!

That it is the book of books

I believe out of the Muslim's duty.⁵

Much added that Goethe's curiosity in the Qur'an as a sacred text with supreme magnificence of Arabic; its religious teachings were his concern. About the Prophet and the Qur'an, Goethe has so much to say in the following statement: "He is a prophet and not a poet and therefore his Koran is to be seen as a divine law and not as a book of a human being, made for education or entertainment." In a further part of his *Divan*, Goethe states his rejoiced verses, which Carlyle (1950) pays attention to Islam in his *Hero and Hero Worship*: "If Islam means submission to God,/ We all live and die in Islam" (p. 243). On February 2nd, 1816, Goethe went as far as indicating that he would not refute others' suspicions that he was a Muslim. Goethe's positive perceptions of Islam drove Shaykh 'Abdalqadir Al-Murabit' to claim that Goethe 'should be known among the Muslims as Muhammad Johann Wolfgang Goethe.'

In his book *On Heroes and Hero Worship and the Heroic in History* (1840s), the British historian and author Thomas Carlyle held Islam in a high esteem for its wonderful vitality. Carlyle concluded that 'the word this man spoke has been the life-guidance, now of a hundred and eighty millions of men for twelve hundred years...A False man found a religion? Why, a false man cannot build a brick house' (Armstrong, 1993, p. 24). Shortly in the nineteenth century, Thomas Carlyle endorsed the above views in a lecture entitled "*The Hero as a Prophet, Mahomet, and Islam.*" The speech was conveyed in London on May 8th, 1840, to a great viewers, among whom, were literary men and bishops. After giving a brief biography of the Prophet and praising him for his genuineness, truthfulness, and legitimacy, Carlyle contrasted Christianity and Islam to prove that their principles and teachings are fundamentally the identical and ended this part by constructing an indication to Goethe, who states: 'If this be *Islam*, do we not all live in Islam?' (Carlyle, 1950, p. 74). His explanation of Islam as a bewildered form of Christianity is fascinating. His affirmation lies on 'the highest Wisdom that Heaven has revealed to our Earth' (pp. 80, 85, 88). Carlyle evaluates Prophet Mohammed's exploit of the sword in change with 'Charlemagne's conversion of the Saxons which was not by preaching'. About the Qur'an, Carlyle had greatly to declare. However, his most influential justification is understandable in his statement that it is a communication sent down from Heaven. Carlyle ended his talk by condemning Prideaux and others for their misapprehensions and distortions of Islam and their people.

In this respect, misapprehensions and distortions of Islam and the Muslims by a number of Western artists and fictional writers, who needed higher human ideals in their words, were and still are mediators of disagreement and dissection between the Orient and the Occident. Sir William Muir, the writer of a four-volume life story of Prophet Muhammad, which has been famous within Oriental literature since the middle of the nineteenth century, is one of those Orientalists who pioneered Orientalism. Muir's most significant basis was to switch Muslims to Christianity. In *The Life of Mahomet* (1861), Muir systematized the Christians' dubieties and scepticisms about the Qur'an and Muhammad. Sir William Muir says, 'the sword of Mahomet and the Coran are the most fatal enemies of civilization, liberty and truth which the world has yet known' in the nineteenth century (Buaben, 1998, p. 111). Thomas Carlyle remarks in his second lecture of *Heroes and Hero Worship* on May 8, 1840, that the English Koran by Sale is known to be 'a very fair one' but he has condemned Sale's writing style. Carlyle expresses his impression in reading it:

... as toilsome reading as I ever undertook. A wearisome confused jumble, crude, incondite; endless iterations, long-windedness, entanglement; most crude, incondite;—insupportable stupidity, in short! Nothing but a sense of duty could carry any European through the Koran. We read in it, as we might in the State-Paper Office, unreadable masses of lumber, that perhaps we may get some glimpses of a remarkable man. It is true we have it under disadvantages: the Arabs see more method in it than we (Carlyle, 1950: 179).

Carlyle did not examine the Quran himself. He depends on Sale's interpretation which was incomplete. Thomas Carlyle admires Godfrey Higgins in using logic to prove the authenticity of the Prophet and the Qur'an. Godfrey Higgins (1772-1833), a member of the Royal Asiatic Society, charges researchers for their biased opinions on Islam; he protects Muhammad against charges of lust, dream and untruth and proves that Islam and Christianity have the same original fundamentals and ethics. In his "Preface," Higgins writes:

The object of the following essay is to abate the mischievous spirit of intolerance, which has hitherto existed between the followers of Jesus and those of Mohamed, by showing that the religions of both . . . are the same in their original foundation and principles (Bennett, 1991, p. 16).

⁵ All quotations by Goethe are taken from "Was Goethe a Muslim?" by Shaykh 'Abdalqadir Al-Murabit. Available online on: www.themodernreligion.com/converts/converts_gorthe.html. Johann von Goethe's *West-Eastern Divan* (WA I, 6, 203).

Higgins refutes charges of the Prophet's ambition and lust, and Islam against accusations of sensuality and violence. He has so much to state about the genuineness of Prophet Muhammad, but he condenses his observation in stating: 'In a word, he may justly be said to have lived as a hero and to have died like a philosopher' (Ibid).

In the twentieth century, with the revolution of media, knowledge became accessible for public. The works of the most influential British Orientalists such as William Muir, David Samuel Margoliouth and William Montgomery Watt, attempt to justify the historical background and roots of the negative image of the Qur'ān and the Prophet Muhammad in the West. Though in his book, *Muhammad at Mecca*, Professor Watt claims that he has better understanding of Islam than early Orientalists, he insists for example, that the Holy Qur'ān is 'a subdued revelation' with old scriptures and Satan. For Watt, the Qur'ān is not wholly true. He identifies some verses in the Qur'ān as Satanic Verses in Surat Al-Najem (Ali, 1997, 53:19-23). In this story he rejects Islamic authentic reports that Satan whispers in the ears of the Meccan polytheists about their idols with the name of God so they prostrated with the Muslims in the last verse of the Al-Najem (Ali, 1997, 53:19-23). Like other Orientalists, Watt (1966) insists that those two verses permitted intercession to the deities at some of the shrines round Mecca and Muhammad later realized that these verses could not have come to him from God and must have been suggested by Satan (p. 26). For Muslims, Allah assures that He has tightened the revelation to Muhammad and saves the Qur'ān as a final text for mankind. Therefore, no interferences can be made by any man. In fact, the use of the authentic information would have contributed towards more awareness of the Qur'ān and Muhammad. Throughout many sources of information, peoples can understand each other better than in the past. Norman Daniel (1966) describes the misunderstanding as a process by which the 'other' became the opposite of our own self-image (p. 65).

VI. CONCLUSION

The spread of accurate information about Qur'ān and Muhammad helps the West to understand Islam and Muslims. The academic research in the translation of the Qur'ān can create a new stage in Western interpretations of Islam. Western investigators require open understanding to Islam from its own sources. The 1400-year-Christian-Muslim heritage of an approximately steady progression of misinterpretation and distortion, the assignment of merely being truthful with each other and about each other's devotion is itself a colossal dispute. In the past, Christopher Marlowe's reference to the Qur'ān and the Prophet Muhammad in *Tamburlaine* (1587) the 'Turkish Alcoran' is to attack the Turkish pride in affronting it. However, to burn the Qur'ān, Marlowe disparages it, and unjustly fake deeds to Prophet Muhammad. Marlowe's hero Tamburlaine identifies the Qur'ān as a foe of the Elizabethans (Al-Olaqi, 2012, 2, pp. 177-201). Nowadays, the crimes and evil characteristics are attributed to the negative stereotyped images of Muslims. Some politicians believe that the Qur'ān promotes violence. Some Western academic opinion makers have articulated the West's attitude towards Qur'ān as a source of immorality for the Western communities. By 9/11 some Americans think that the Qur'ān is the spiritual architect of Islamic radicalism which stands on the motif of the terrorist attack on America. As a result, burning the Qur'ān is an individual tendency for some Western fanatics to defuse their fury and a remark of attacking Muslims' dignity. The evangelist Orientalist Jerry Farwell describes Prophet Muhammad as a terrorist. He consciously or unconsciously presents to his followers the same sort of negative portrayal of the Prophet of Islam that Voltaire did. Voltaire degraded the image of the Qur'ān. And other communal religious groups take more severe stances against Islam, echoing association of Muhammad with the devil and Islam is a threat. Nevertheless, many Europeans respect Islamic books including the Qur'ān, and appreciate the contribution of Islamic civilization and its legacy in human heritage. In addition, the increased number of converts to Islam proves that the Qur'ān and its teachings have enough truth and divinity that a human mind can peacefully realise it. Karen Armstrong (1993), a contemporary English biographer of Islam, remarks that it is a reappearance of the medieval accounts to attack on the Qur'ān and its Prophet (p.42).

Things are changing today. Prophet Muhammad is no longer believed to be an impostor; he is instead considered a reformer. The Qur'ān is a holy scripture. Islamic culture is no longer considered a curse to Christianity. With the real contact of the Orient, images of the Islam and its Prophet in literature go on in another direction far away from any misconception. However, those misleading views and attitudes about Islam and its Prophet have not vanished entirely from the Western media even in the dawn of the global century. More investigation in the English Oriental library to the sources of information is needed to help English writers to properly understand Prophet Muhammad. The unexamined works inspire men of letters in the current century who wants to approach Muslims in the context of history, culture, religion, and customs. Making a truthful image of the Prophet is part of knowledge, understanding, communication, and dialogue of civilizations between the Islamic World and the West.

In conclusion, the conventional description of Islamic events has remained astonishingly robust, even among modernist thinkers in the West. The writings of affiliated scholars of University of London's School of Oriental and African Studies in the 1970s such as John Wansbrough, Michael Cook, Patricia Crone, Andrew Rippin and Gerald Hawting, question Islam's origins from Islamic sources and perceptions. They call their works on this hypothesis a 'new history' of Islam (Hawting, 2002, p. vi; and Wansbrough, 2004, p. 23). This hypothesis examines the production of the Qur'ān which has been a matter of concern to Western researchers for a long time. It totally ignores Islamic sources. They claim that the Qur'ān is not quite truthful, as it seems. Those Orientalists have developed new intellectual techniques with a biblical understanding to Islam. Wansbrough thinks that the Koran is a literary text with devotional

references. Andrew Rippin, a professor of Islamic history at the University of Victoria in Canada, is the author of a revisionist history of Islam published by Routledge. He says that ‘the Sana'a manuscripts [of the Qur’ān] are part of the process of filling in the holes in our knowledge of what might have happened.’⁶ Ziauddin Sardar (1999) calls their works ‘Euro-centrism of the most extreme, pure blind kind, which assumes that not a single word written by Muslims can be accepted as evidence’ (p. 16). Sardar (1999) firmly situated the Western revisionists in the post-colonial Orientalist camp from where colonial ‘experts’ are constantly saying to Muslims that Western revisionists ‘know best about the origins of their primitive and barbarian religion.’ ‘The triumphant conclusion of Crone and Cook,’ Sardar adds, “was that Islam is an amalgam of Jewish texts, theology and ritual tradition’ (p. 16).

The Bible is different from the Qur’ān. Prophet Muhammad derives his importance from the Qur’ān but the Bible gains its significance from Prophet Jesus. For many Christians, Islam is heretic. The development of bogus accounts to attack Islamic teachings was widespread. It was indistinctly echoed in the West. Prejudice over the Holy Qur’ān is striking in many English writings. The spread of genuine information about Qur’ān and Muhammad helps to appreciate Islam and Muslims. Western researchers need to comprehend Islam from its own sources. Given the 1400-year Christian-Muslim legacy of an almost unbroken series of misunderstanding and falsification, the assignment of simply being truthful with each other and about each other’s devotion is itself an enormous challenge.

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EFL Practitioners' Perspectives on "The Prospect" Textbook: A Qualitative Study

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Abstract—Using a qualitative mode of inquiry, this paper aims at evaluating "The Prospect" course-book, taught nation-wide at junior high schools of Iran. To this end, the researchers interviewed experienced practitioners who were willing to share their views with the researchers. Having assured the participants that pseudonyms will be used in reporting the finding and having had their informed consent, the qualitative interviews were recorded, transcribed verbatim and finally coded to unearth themes specifying the strengths and weaknesses of the textbook. Iterative data collection and analysis continued until the practitioners' perspectives reached a point of theoretical saturation. Grounded in teachers' perspectives, the findings not only clearly show the merits and demerits of the textbooks, they also reveal suggestions for improvement. The findings have clear implications for practitioners, syllabus designers and policy makers

Index Terms—course-book evaluation, teachers' perspectives, strengths, weaknesses

I. INTRODUCTION

More often than not syllabuses are evaluated using checklists developed by people external to language education. There are two problems with these checklists: first, they do not reflect contextual constraints; second, they do not reflect practitioners' perspectives. To fill in this gap and provide policy makers with the situated knowledge of syllabus evaluation, the field is in need of data-driven evaluation criteria grounded in language teachers' perspectives. Since checklist designers have no access to local constraints in language education, they mainly focus on the universal features of textbooks. These checklists are useful if and only if they are supplemented with data-driven criteria covering local exigencies. For instance a checklist may emphasize the balanced and integrated presentation of language skills. Though this criterion is theoretically justified, it is totally useless in practice since language education in public high schools of Iran focuses on reading, vocabulary and grammar and this focus is shaped by the high-stake university entrance exam. Thus the field is in need of data-first studies that conceptualize teachers' perspectives to uncover context-sensitive criteria to be used along with theory-driven checklists which cover the universal features of textbooks.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Technology has overshadowed each and every aspect of language education; nonetheless, nothing can replace textbooks since they have withstood the test of time (Tomlinson, 2001). On the importance of textbooks, Skierso (1991) believes that teaching is next to impossible without textbooks. Similarly, Ansari and babaii (2002) believe that not using a textbook is synonymous with aimlessness in learners' views; a textbook can serve as a tool for managing teaching time; and it can act as a source of security and guidance for novice teachers. Having a textbook, on the other hand, students feel a sense of achievement through goal-oriented activities. Further, as Cunningsworth (1995) contends, a textbook specifies activities, systematizes teaching and learning activities, and act as a scaffold for inexperienced teachers.

Despite the importance of textbook for teaching and learning, it happens that at times they subjugate teachers and learners. Without a doubt, there is no single best textbook; hence, teachers should: (1) evaluate the textbook in terms of content, skill coverage, activities, exercises, topics and embedded cultural values; (2) do away with exercises which do not raise learners' awareness cognitively; (3) remove topics which are culturally biased; (4) add communicative activities if the textbook is medium-oriented; (4) add form-focused activities if it focuses exclusively on communication; (6) remove communicative activities which have very low communicative value. In short, rather than following the textbook, the teacher should actively manipulate the textbook by adding what is missing and removing what is redundant.

To be effective, textbook evaluation should be multidimensional, i.e., it cannot focus on one aspect at the cost of other aspects. A quick review of textbook evaluation in Iran reveals that this criterion has not been met. To date, many textbook evaluation studies have focused on one single dimension, e.g. culture (Aliakbari, 2005), pronunciation and grammar (Azizifar, et al, 2010), authenticity (Abdullahi-Guilani, et al, 2011), and gender bias (Amini & birjandi, 2012).

As a result, they cannot help practitioners in selecting, evaluating and modifying EFL textbooks.

According to Ostovar-Namaghi, Saboor and Tajzad (2014) textbook evaluation studies in Iran follow two important objectives: they develop textbook evaluation criteria; and they evaluate textbooks using textbook evaluation checklists. None of them, however, actively involved teachers' in developing criteria for evaluation through exploring their views through qualitative interviews. Since it is the language teachers who are actually in tune with the heartbeat of the students and deeply aware of contextual constraints, they are in a position to develop and propose evaluation criteria. Nonetheless textbook evaluation studies consider teachers at the consumer end of criteria since they have no part in developing the criteria for textbook evaluation.

III. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

To fill in this gap, this data-first study aims at theorizing teachers' perspectives concerning the strengths and weaknesses of an ELT textbook, rather than making them respond to externally-imposed criteria pre-determined by a textbook evaluation checklist. To this end, the study explores teachers' perspectives by eliciting relevant information through a general question. More specifically, the study collects theoretically-relevant data through the general question, "How do you evaluate "The Prospect"? Please identify areas of strengths and weaknesses and substantiate your position with reference to specific parts and activities of the textbook.

IV. RESEARCH METHOD

A. Participants

The study was conducted in Iran. Participants of this study were from Mashhad and Kashmar in Iran. This is an EFL context which concentrates on English as a foreign language in both public schools and private institutes. Focusing on snowball sampling, the study started with one interested participant who was willing to share his views with the researchers and then he was asked to introduce another interested participant. All in all, fifteen participants shared their views on the strengths and weaknesses of the local course book for junior high school- the prospect. To add diversity to the data, the participants were selected from both rural and urban areas. All of them had more than ten years of teaching experience and they were both males and females

B. Data Collection and Analysis

Data were collected through an open-ended qualitative interview. Prior to data collection, the researchers: (1) sought the participants' consented participation; (2) made sure that the information they present will never be accessible to any third parties; (3) informed the participants that the results will be reported through pseudonyms rather than the participant's real names. Having paved the way for naturalistic data collection, the participants' perspectives were audio-taped, transcribed verbatim and finally coded for themes and categories. The interview data was coded according to Miles and Huberman's (1994) qualitative data analysis scheme – data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification. To establish the credibility of the findings final propositions summarizing the participants' perspectives were verified through member-checking.

V. RESULTS

A. Advantages

1. Message-Oriented Approach

Communication, specifically, means to interact with people by maintaining the rules of speaking and social norms, but generally the term refers to speaking skill as interviewees consider it into account. Compared to the previous course-book in schools of Iran i.e. grammar dominated, the available book actively challenges the speaking skills and creates a convenient environment for pupils to interact. Therefore, it has provided an area for students to practice their ability to use language. The following statement of Reza supports the fact:

Before, students were asked to learn some rules and grammatical patterns, but the available book gives them the opportunity to use language for real communication.

Apparently, the use of language in a class is going to be fun and it is wrongly supposed that it is the most important end of learning a language. Besides, families and most teachers in Iran seem to have expectation of a tangible dominant of speaking ability for the pupils. Then, the book meets the need and plays a significant role in this field. Ali as one of our participants describes:

Nowadays communication plays an important role in the society. Our definition of learning English is to be able to speak and the book tends to sustain this skill.

It is clear that listening and speaking are not separable and closely pertinent to each other. So, one who is going to communicate, needs to be understood first. This is actually what the book focus on. Nahid explains:

In my idea using different conversation and concentrating on two important skills, listening and speaking, is a positive point to let pupils talk and is in line with the purpose of learning a second language.

Although teachers have considered the communication approach as an advantage, but it sounds as a disadvantage. It

was problematic particularly in poor settings of educational system where there is no facility to work. Teachers in these contexts were specifically complaining about the unequal level of the students' knowledge and the book. They had to even teach letters merely for some months to sort out the problem of students' unfamiliarity of new language and course.

2. Optimal Reduction of Form-focused Activities

Generally, learning a second language seems to be tough and tricky. The actual outcomes of the process depend on learner's proficiency in various numbers of elements such as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and so on. But the fact shows that it is difficult to cover all aspects perfectly. Researches show students learn some of these factors with disfavor. Grammar is the commonest. The following explanations of Monireh confirm the fact:

Previously, learners just learned some rules of grammar without learning how to use them, but in this book there is no explicit approach to grammar. Therefore, students receive grammar's points subconsciously that leads to internalization of the concepts. They are happy to be free of learning those grammatical structures too.

It seems that students need to develop their grammar subconsciously during the learning process. Interviewees believed that there is no concern for teaching grammar since students are learning different patterns indirectly. Learners, then, discover the grammatical rules through an indirect way of teaching. Monireh continues:

I asked my student these questions: "who is that boy or who is that girl?" They subconsciously applied the correct pronoun for each question that I hadn't explained before. It shows they are learning grammatical forms without teaching them directly or deductively.

3. Learner-Centeredness

Interviewees clarified that the communicative approach of the text-book has provided an active environment for students to use language in an authentic way. They added that pupils are actively keen on talking and doing exercises and apparently tend to participate to complete an exercise, sing the songs and play a role. It seems clear that there is a dynamic atmosphere and plenty of fun for all students. Different types of interaction occur in the classroom atmosphere and most of the time students compete for their turn to talk. Mahmood clarifies:

We as a teacher are just a facilitator. Students shoulder the most responsibility and carry out the 90 percent of class activities. They eagerly listen to the tapes and teachers and repeat the conversation. Sometimes they utilize the new words to create and produce a novel sentence. They experience learning as an enjoyable activity.

4. Effective Activities and Exercises

Teachers' views show that activities are one of the salient aspects of instruction. They need to be effective and fruitful enough to quench students' thirst for learning. By virtue of activities, teachers would be able to monitor the process of learning as well as increasing the students' understanding and perception. Activities could be useful to facilitate instruction and make it less demanding for teachers. Activities shouldn't be monotonous and they must consider different taste to appear. According to the participants, a great majority of activities in the book are beneficial and acceptable. Mahdi comments:

As most of the exercises are practical and useful, pupils tend to do them eagerly. They voluntarily attend to role play activities, producing new words like their names or their sister or brother names, they invent dialogues and conversation and would like to produce the sentences based on their incomplete knowledge. They greet each other and have fun.

5. Effective Illustrations

In terms of pictorial information, although some teachers considered it as negative factor, but most of them believed that colorful and real photograph of people, places and things provided a motivational atmosphere for pupils. They stated that availability of a picture dictionary at the end of the book helps students to practice and figure out the meaning of new words. Pictures are important source especially for beginners to receive the message mentally and internalize the meaning easily. Following explanations of Fateme support the idea:

Students have good opportunity to connect to pictures to figure out the meaning. Using the picture dictionary, they would be able to develop the knowledge of words based on building a picture in their mind. Students like to learn based on pictures, so ignoring a few unclear pictures, the rest are useful.

Among interviewees, four of them mentioned the weak clarity and obviousness of pictures. They explained that pictures in isolation do not play an effective role in learning. They also suggested that pictures are meaningful when used to contextualize the language.

B. Disadvantages

In this part, teachers castigate the text-book for different reasons which fail to contribute to use language in an authentic way. Due to the nature of learning a second language, they enumerate a various factors which affect the process of monitoring a learning environment and minimize the amount of useful achievement. In what follows we have presented those findings based on participants' complaints.

1. Ignoring Time-Constraints

Students' sketchy knowledge about English caused a demanding role for teachers. More than 90 percent of participants complain that they have no enough time to present materials and contents of the book. Allocating just two-hour a week is not useful enough to cover all concepts of the book especially when there is no homogenous knowledge environment. They also believed that this will make perplex problems to deal with. Ali explains the situation:

It sounds that the assumption is that students have enough background knowledge, but the fact is there is no equal

level of knowledge and understanding for learners especially those who live and study in villages, so two-hour a week decreases the efficiency and makes it tough and difficult for us as teachers to build a balance between multi-leveled students.

Reza criticizes that:

Two-hour a week! It is not enough at all. We have no time to work on student book let alone the work book.

Some parts of the result which is related to poor environment of the education in above mentioned context show more problems. Sadegh who teaches in a village shows his dissatisfaction in this way:

...That's awful. I can't work on the book at all. My students are not knowledgeable enough to deal with the book. I have closed the book, put it aside and work on my own way. I have no choice...

Teachers' comments in these types of areas clearly show the lack of practicality of the book for specific settings. The contents of the book apparently demand a large amount of knowledge for students to be able to use the book.

2. Ineffective Teachers' Guide

Changing a material and a course book needs to be gradual and it should take several steps. As teachers are mostly exposed to text books, they need to be aware of changes earlier and receive informative and practical tips to monitor the classes. According to interviewees, in-service program seems not to be effective enough to cover new schedule. Marzieh comments:

It is essential to have a fruitful and clear plan for teachers and make them aware of the changes. As we have worked in a GTM approach for many years in our local schools, this sudden change in the curriculum has been made many problems for us to deal with. There is no teacher-guide available as well to show us a clear and bright way to pass. We have to inform and convince students' family and they are not ready to accept the changes.

Results show that teachers' need is in line with designing the course book specially those which are related to local school. They believed that their experiences and information of being in the educational system could act as a key factor to ameliorate the process of designing a book.

3. Ignoring Reading and Writing

"A second language is a language studied in a setting where that language is the main vehicle of everyday communication and where abundant input exists in that language. A foreign language is a language studied in an environment where it is not the primary vehicle for daily interaction and where input in that language is restricted." (Oxford, R. 2003). Based on this definition, students in a foreign environment have no enough access to language, but they need to receive useful information and expose to different skills to acquire the new language. It means that skills are at the same level of importance especially for EFL. According to interviewees, the most limiting aspect of the book is ignoring two important skills, writing and reading. It has left no room for working on these skills. It may be possible to consider this one as most problematic area according teachers' point of view. Take the following comments from Hasan:

We are limited on writing and reading. The book leaves no room for writing home work or dictation and students' family are asking about the problem. Think about people who know their mother tongue perfectly and are illiterate. They believe that they are blind. If you ask them you know the language and interact with people and speak perfectly, but you consider yourselves as an illiterate person, they will answer because we are not able to write and read.

Furthermore, the results show that parents' expectations are different in comparison with studying English in Institutes. Local schools are the means to make students ready for the entrance exam of the university as the long-term goal for family. Maryam's comments clarify better:

Reading considers as the most important skill for parents and students in Iran because the need to pass the entrance exam of university, but the available book mainly focuses on speaking and listening which is not in line with students' need.

4. Impaired Audio Materials

Due to the nature of the book and the emphasis on listening, there is a need to provide useful audio material for schools. Participants claim that students are complaining about CD. Different aspects are mentioned. Taking the rate of speech and accent as examples, they mention that school facilities are not always available.

In my class all students are complaining about the speed of audio CD. They always lose the point and I myself have to repeat the utterances for them. If it was like software to let them use it and play some games, they learned more and had fun in the class and at home.

The big problem arises in poor setting where no facility is found to use. Teachers dissatisfied and have no chance to read the dialogues and texts themselves. Samaneh explain the situation:

Here I have nothing, no computer, no CD, even a cassette. How's it possible to work on the exercises and the book. If I can teach some letters and words, I have done a lot.

C. Suggestions

In the local school of an EFL environment, learning a new language comes to be a difficult task. It apparently challenges different areas such as teachers, teachers' trainers, materials, course books, and course book designers as well. Therefore, it is actually an integrative process which calls the effective co-operation of all groups. Interviewees in this research come to this conclusion that the book is in a dire need of change especially based on poor environments of education system. Unequal facilities for education in different environments make it difficult for teachers to use the

book properly. In other words, although they believe in a change of traditional course book, but they mainly believe that it needs to be a gradual change. Confirming the ideas, Zahra suggests that:

My main concern is limited time. The changes of the book call for more time to work on. Furthermore, students need to take an entrance exam of university which is the main goal for students in Iran, to this end; they need to learn the related materials which are mostly reading and vocabulary.

Participants were also worry about the outcomes and parents' expectations. They should be responsive and it seems that even families are confused. This sudden change even makes it difficult for teachers to explain for families and clarify the new approach to them. Ali suggests:

It was better for teacher to be aware of the change. There is a gap between the previous book and this one. I think we need a balance between the traditional one and the new one. Families are asking why their children have nothing to write at home and some say that the level of the book is higher than their ability to help their children.

In sum, a gradual change, taking teachers' point of views into account, considering all four skills, paying attention to poor settings and unequal level of knowledge and facilities were the most factors to be asked to consider as important elements while designing a book. However, it demands a big challenge to design a book, it sounds there is a need to bridge the traditional approach to the new one more scientifically.

VI. DISCUSSION

As the results clearly show the textbook introduces a shift away from form-focused instruction which aimed mainly at developing students' reading comprehension towards a message-oriented textbook which aims developing students' conversational skills. The shift seems to reflect an analysis of the learners' needs. Since the previous book did not improve learners' conversational skills, they went to schools to pass and get a degree and when it came to language development they supposed that they should go to private language schools. Since the textbook fills in this gap, it is welcomed by both teachers and learners because: (1) it is message-oriented rather than medium-oriented; (2) minimizes form-focused activities and maximizes meaning-focused activates; (3) reflects learners' needs, i.e., their willingness to develop their conversational skills rather than memorize useless facts and language forms; (4) contains goal-oriented activities and exercises rather than aimless practice of some forms; and (5) illustrations effectively help learners pictures the situations of language use. Despite these merits, the textbook suffers from many pitfalls. Taking the participants' perspectives into account, syllabus designers can greatly improve the quality of the textbook by:

- (1) improving the teachers' guide which is taken to be ineffective at the time being;
- (2) justifying the materials in terms of actual teaching time or time constraints which make teachers' shift-way from teaching to covering the textbook;
- (3) adding remedial materials for deprived students who had no language background;
- (4) accommodating reading and writing skills, at least minimally, to account for construct-underrepresentation, i.e., proficiency covers all four skills rather than just listening and speaking;
- (5) improving the quality of audiotapes which are taken to be deficient by the participants; and
- (6) adding formative and summative tests, flash-cards and visual information.

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An Analysis of the Causes and Countermeasures of Students' English Learning Weariness in Junior High School

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Abstract—Solving the problems of the students' English learning weariness plays an important role in improving the students' English learning achievement. The paper uses questionnaire to study students in The Third Junior High School of Yantai Development Zone. This paper analyzes the causes and countermeasures of students' English learning weariness based on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory. The survey shows that lack of learning motivation and interest is the main causes of students' English learning weariness. So this paper will study countermeasures of students' English learning weariness in the aspect of students' learning motivation and interest. And it proposes the following countermeasures to change the students' English learning weariness: By intriguing enthusiasm through competitive activities; By helping students set up their own goals to arouse their interest; By creating question situation to cultivate and stimulate students' learning motivation; By using the praise properly in the process of teaching; By making the English class more attractive; By creating a development atmosphere to arouse motivation; By cultivating a harmonious relationship between teachers and students.

Index Terms—English learning weariness, countermeasures, interest, motivation

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the problem of students' English learning weariness becomes more and more serious. It is remarkably broad in scope and presents complicated features. And its negative impact is becoming obvious and arouses people's concern. Psychological barrier is one of the most common and dangerous problem. In addition, English weariness is more likely to develop and spread because junior high school students influence each other. So, if the problem can't be solved in time, there would be serious consequences. Therefore, this topic is of great importance and significance. And finding the causes and countermeasures of students' English learning weariness has become an urgent problem.

For students junior high school is the most complex period as well as the most crucial period of the English study and development in the life time. English is used all over the world, which is one of the world's most important languages. In current English teaching, many students are weary of learning English. In addition, some students have a headache when hearing English. Some students even have a doze. They lack confidence in learning English and sometimes abandon learning English. The classroom has become dull. As a result, the teacher can't carry his teaching activities. And the students are weary of learning English. "Weariness" can also be called "learning weariness", which means that students lose interest in studying and feel tired of learning. It often embodies the stronger intensity of indifferent attitude, boredom, psychological conflicts and representing bad behavior from their reaction towards learning. The phenomenon of students' weariness in current has been the prevalence of school education. The situation is not optimistic. The atmosphere of weariness grows fast.

II. THEORY BASIS

Many psychologists and educators make the survey and conclude that interest plays a very important role in students' English learning. As Einstein (1979) said, "Interest is the best teacher. Interest can arouse people's creative enthusiasm, curiosity and thirst for knowledge." (P.144) The reason why many people acquire the great success in his career is that all of them are interested in the career they are engaged in (Guo Benyu, 2006, P.34). At the beginning of the 19th century, one of the earliest theories of interest was developed by Herbart (Antia, 2003, P.11). Interest is a phenomenon which comes from a person's interaction with his environment, and it can be regarded as a feeling of wanting to know, learn, or take part in something (Hidi, 1992, P.12). Schiefele makes a survey and concludes that individual's learning interest is related to the achievements (Schiefele, 1992, P.23). Due to lose interest in English, many students have the problem of English learning weariness. Students are unlikely to be very successful at learning anything unless they enjoy the process (Michael Lewis, 2009, P.12). So taking an interest in learning English plays a crucial role in learning English well. David Hayes (1997, P.2-6) argues that interest is a kind of psychological inclination demonstrated by children when they try to understand or do something. Study interest means children's positive inclination of recognition towards study, and it presents an intensive attitude of students to study. Study interest can be categorized into material and

psychological interest on the basis of the content of study, and divided into direct and indirect interest on the term of study targets. Study interest can be defined as permanent and temporary interest according to the study time, and categorized into wide and main interest on the term of study scope. Positive inclination of recognition presents an intensive attitude of students to study. Study interest plays an important role in students' study. Teachers should know the motivation that makes children study; it is also the most realistic, energetic and intensive internal factors to study. Interest is the best way to forget hardship and make people devote themselves to study; people are willing to try their best out of interest. Once the child becomes interested in study, he will try to take part in learning activities.

From Tao Xingzhi's opinion, he thinks that when the students are interested in something, he will do it wholeheartedly (Tao Xingzhi, 1985, P.22). The famous psychologist of our country, Pan Shu (1982, P.34) thinks that interest is the most realistic and active factor in learning motivation. Shen Jiliang (2008, P.31) investigates 278 junior high school students and concludes that the higher the level of students' learning interest is, the better the students' achievements will be. If the students are interested in English learning, their interest will be motivated and the achievements will be improved.

In recent China, researchers began to study interest to English learning in 1980s, and more and more researchers paid their attention to the study since 1990s, such as He Yaqin (2000, P.45-49). Improving the students' English and making the students practice English basic abilities is necessary, such as, listening, speaking, reading and writing initiatively is crucial. When a student has interest in something, he will express particular concern about it and explore it bravely. He would like to engage in activities related to the thing (Zhao Liqin, 2010, P.53). It can stimulate the students' interest and motivation actively and facilitate the students' English learning.

Language learning motivation is the reason why learners learn a language, the central force or inner power that make people move forward in the language learning process persistently, is also the dynamically changing increasing cognitive and emotional arousal in the language learning which decides how much conscious intellectual and physical effort the learner makes to attain a previously set goals and how long the learner keep this effort. It is one of the key factors that determine the result of learning.

A simple definition is provided by Keller (1999, P.389), "motivation refers to the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect". Gardner and Lambert (1959, P.266-272) first focus on the role of attitudes and motivation in second language acquisition. Later, researchers have carried out a great number of researches in the field of second/foreign language acquisition so as to find out what constitutes motivation to learn a foreign language, and how it functions in the process of foreign language acquisition.

American psychologist Abraham Maslow (2007, P.18-25) proposed that all humans seek to fulfill a hierarchy of needs, which he represented with a pyramid. Hierarchy of needs theory suggests that, to some extent, students who lack of learning motivation may be due to a lack of Deficiency needs. So teachers should not only care about students' study, but also care about their life and emotion to cultivate their learning motivation. Lack of motivation to learn is another cause arising English learning weariness. Motivation is a force which inspires, guide the person's behavior and make the behavior towards certain direction (Chen Qi, 2005, P.192). English learning motivation includes the purpose of learning English, attitudes, interests, and personal values. It is not simple structure but a multiple-layered, multi-level and multi-factors structure. American psychologist Maslow put forward Self-Actualization theory that it is called the main learning motivation theory. This theory points out that people have the desire of self-actualization, but they also have a lot of fears and worries (Chen Qi, 2005, P.171). Zhang Yimin believes that the New Zealand education attaches importance to cultivate students' self-confidence and sense of success. Losing self-confidence and sense of success would damage the "desire", and then will lead to English learning weariness. As Zhang Yimin (2006, P.32).said, the New Zealand education through the formation of the students' self-confidence and sense of success is effective in preventing English learning weariness. So that, in the teaching process, the students who are lack of learning motivation should be fully respected. Let them feel the love and the sense of belonging, and help them to realize the necessity of learning English and improve their recognition of the value. The humanistic psychologist Rogers (1971, P.36) thinks individuals' cognitive activities are always accompanied by a certain emotional factors. When the emotional factors are repressed even killed; self-invention also won't get development and implementation. Only by respecting and understanding of students' inner world attitude can stimulate the students' learning enthusiasm and enhance their self-confidence. So it is extraordinary necessary to train and motivate the students' motivation.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. *Research Subjects*

The subjects of the survey are from The Third Junior High School of Yantai Development Zone. They are from 4 regular classes, each of which is chosen from different grades. The sample consists of 100 students, 53 females and 47 males. After 3 years English learning, they have acquired basic knowledge of English and formed their own learning methods which are always used in real learning process.

B. *The Questionnaire Survey*

The author has omitted some items according to the need so as to avoid language barrier. This paper probes an

investigation and analysis into the main problem of students' English learning weariness in junior middle school. Students are the main role of the class. Therefore, they will encounter various problems while learning. Only if the teacher can find these problems, find the causes of these problems, the teacher can better help the students, help students to solve the problems.

The questionnaire survey aims to dig out the following questions:

- (1) What reasons result in students' English learning weariness in junior high school?
- (2) What are the effective strategies in solving students' English learning weariness?

The author did a questionnaire for the survey (see appendix) to make the survey more comprehensive. The questionnaire is designed from different aspects to investigate the main problems of students' English learning weariness in junior high school.

C. Results and Analysis

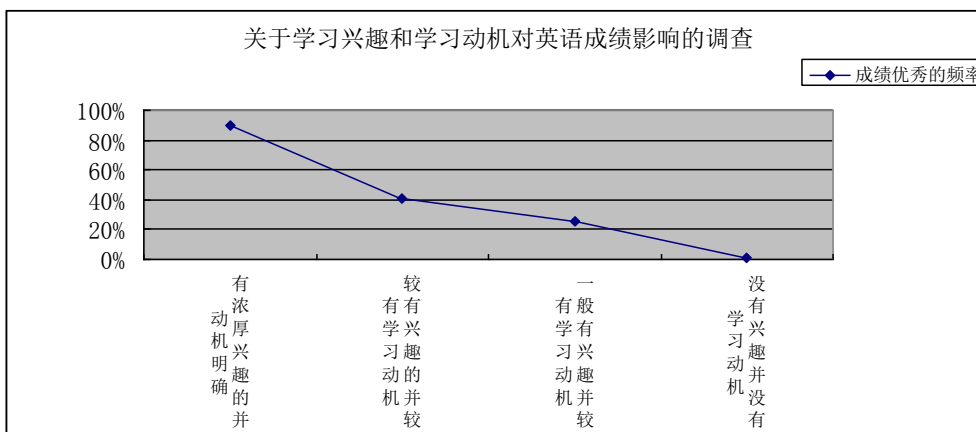


Figure about Learning Interest and Learning Motivation Influence on English Achievement

According to the survey: 90% of the students who can make excellent grades during the study at school are extremely interested in studying English and have clear motivation of learning English. 40.80% of the students who can make excellent grades during the study at school are interested in studying English and have motivation of learning English. 25.70% of the students who can make excellent grades during the study at school have a little interested in studying English and have motivation of learning English. 1.09% of the students who can make excellent grades during the study at school aren't interested in studying English and have no motivation of learning English. In addition, in the consultation, the most reaction is the idea that let the teacher change and improve students' interest in learning. The survey expresses that most students lack English learning motivation and most of them are not interested in learning English.

IV. EFFECTIVE STRATEGIES

A. Intrigue Enthusiasm through Competitive Activities

According to the survey: 90% of the students who can make excellent grades during the study at school are extremely interested in studying English and have clear motivation of learning English. So intriguing enthusiasm of the students is very important. Junior students share the same psychological characteristic that everyone wants to be the best among their peers. Therefore, competition just takes advantage of this point, being one of the most effective means to intrigue students' interest in studying. During the teaching process, competition employs various forms, including competition among individuals, among groups, between individual and groups, and between boys and girls. And its content is also abundant, such as English handwriting competition, common sense competition, recitation competition and acting competition, etc. Certainly, teachers should be impartial in the whole process, they can give a commendatory comment or applaud for students. All these would make students acquire the feeling of success. Therefore it will help students require confidence and intrigue huge enthusiasm to study.

Mr. Bruner said, "The best learning motivation is students' interest in learned material itself." Therefore, in the teaching process teachers should strive to create all sorts of pleasant situation for students to cause students' surprise, interest, questions, etc. And this will make the teaching process a kind of attractive to students and attract students actively devoted to learning. The author thinks teaching is not only in the classroom, but we also can make some practice out of class. Rich and colorful activities for children are always huge magnetic fields which have infinite attraction.

Competition with competitive mechanism drives students continuously to surpass others and himself to make further progress. There are many English competition projects. For example, knowledge vies to answer first, guessing riddles and the listening test, etc. In order to help students to memorize words, the author divides the students into two groups

carrying on memorizing the new words. Two students who are chosen at random take part in the game and their scores are recorded every day. The one who makes the highest score will receive rewards. The form and rule of the game can be made according to the actual situation of the students in different class. The game should be launched more frequently and make sure that more and more students will receive rewards.

The author designs an interesting game to help the students to learn the new words: head, hand, leg, foot, toe, and nose. The teacher requires that the students should point to the correct part when they hear the word. As the teacher gives the password faster and faster, the students can remember the words much deeper. Then teacher asks the students to send number in front of the class. As a result, all of the students do their favorite games, and master all the words. They also can communicate with other students using these words. This activity takes advantage of the characteristics of students' interests. Students feel the strong interest in a variety of activities by using his head, hands and mouth, which achieves good teaching effect and makes the students enthusiasm enduring.

B. Help Students Set Up Their Own Goals to Arouse Their Interest

According to the survey: 90% of the students who can make excellent grades during the study at school are extremely interested in studying English and have clear motivation of learning English. So it is important to arouse students' interest. What's more, to help the students to set up their own goals can also arouse their interest. A proper goal plays a significant role in learning English well. Studying English is a process in which one can't make progress one or two days. If one wants to make progress, he must study hard every day. But the students who are weary of learning English are poor in English in many ways. As a result, we should analyze them carefully first, and according to the right level of these students, teachers should help them set up their own proper English learning goals. As is known to all of us, the students will feel bored soon, if their goals are too easy to achieve. In order to avoid this, the teacher should make learning goals a little challenging, but not discouraging. Challenging goal offers students to explore the unknown and to activate thinking, which is expected to bring about a satisfactory result. However, if the goal is too hard to achieve, the students will feel frustrated. In that case, these students may give up their hope completely soon. Therefore, it should be too hard or too easy for the students to set up their goal. And later, teachers should offer various of learning style to make the students' make progress everyday and gradually achieve their goals.

C. Create Question Situation to Cultivate and Stimulate Students' Learning Motivation

Teachers should adopt various teaching methods. On selection and processing for the content of courses, teacher should attach importance to richness and novelty. In the mode of English teaching, teachers should pay attention to the heuristic teaching rather than the traditional cramming method of teaching. The teachers should break away from old teaching ideas, and create an atmosphere which can stimulate the students to engage. Stimulating students' interest in English learning and mobilizing students' learning enthusiasm and initiative is an important means to promote English language teaching. So the students can change his character from the audience to the actor. And the teacher should play the role well as the director and the actor, which creates a free space for the development of creative thinking and enables students to comprehensive development. Form interaction between teaching and learning, and create a comfortable question situation. Teaching is a kind of art. In the teaching process, the teacher should create the English atmosphere, and makes the students involving into their study. The teacher should try his best to enrich students' English information based on the practical situation. By design the teaching and learning activities to enhance students' learning enthusiasm, initiative, and indeed to stimulate students interest in learning English. The students' study desire can be heightened if the teacher asks a question clearly. Teachers will stimulate their thinking and bring their initiative and other positive factors into full play in classroom

D. Use the Praise Properly in the Process of Teaching

According to the survey, 1.09% of the students who can make excellent grades during the study at school aren't interested in studying English and have no motivation of learning English. So interest and motivation play an important role in studying English well. Motivation is the direction of students' efforts and the evaluation criteria. Appropriate praise and criticism can stimulate students' learning motivation. Correct evaluation, the appropriate praise and criticism, not only can strengthen the students' learning effect, but also can consolidate and develop students' correct learning motivation. This is because praise can stimulate the students' learning enthusiasm, cultivate the students' self-confidence; criticism can let students know the direction of the self-shortcoming in study and hard work. So praise and criticism have a certain meaning righteousness to the development of the students. As a result, the evaluation for students should pay attention to combine the praise with objective criticism to promote students' physical and mental development.

E. Make the English Class More Attractive

According to the survey: 90% of the students who can make excellent grades during the study at school are extremely interested in studying English and have clear motivation of learning English. So it is significant to arouse students' motivation to learn English. The teacher should know what to teach, and know how to teach so as to make the students be interested in learning English.

The teacher should make themselves as good actors. The teacher should make the class a place for the students.

Students are able to understand the vocabulary, patterns and the grammar more easily, if the teacher displays or performs how people use languages. The teacher will make the class very real. Students may be highly involved in the teacher's different tone of voice and colorful gesture. The students will be in high spirit, if the teacher could use real items when it is necessary. As a result, the backward students are able to remember the words quickly. What's more, the teacher should be friendly to every student in the class. Then the teacher will be popular with the every student in the class. The students love the teacher as well as your class. Then the students will be interested in learning English.

In the final, the teacher should give the backward students a chance to perform in class. In fact, the backward students don't like to ask questions. But the teacher should encourage them to speak in class and frequently give them positive feedback.

F. Create a Development Atmosphere to Arouse Motivation

American psychologist Abraham Maslow proposed that all humans seek to fulfill a hierarchy of needs, which he represented with a pyramid. Hierarchy of needs theory suggests that, to some extent, students who lack of learning motivation may be due to a lack of Deficiency needs. Teachers are too harsh and demanding, frequently reprimand and criticize students, which cannot meet students' security needs and respect needs, etc. And it is these factors, will become the main obstacle to student learning and self-realization, so teachers should not only care about the students study, but also should pay attention to student's life and emotions in order to stimulate their learning motivation

According to psychological researches, motivation is not genetic, it is learned. In other words, motivation is learnable and teachable. There are some factors that affect one's motivation, such as family, neighbors, prior teachers, learning conditions and so on. They are beyond our control. However, there are some ways that can change your learning habits and establish your motivation. Here are suggestions.

Proper level of concern can activate one's effort to learn. Learners should take care about what to learn and learning results, and have a right attitude toward learning. Suppose learners show indifference or unconcern about their learning, they will make no or little progress in learning. So we can say no learning without concern. Set up learning goals. Setting a goal demonstrates an intention to achieve and activates learning from one day to the next. Students will be motivated to take part in activities and try their best to achieve their goals. Acquire the sense of success. Success is more motivating than failure. How to gain success? Normally, the material must be relevant, and learners can choose proper activities rather than those that are difficult (little likelihood of success) or easy (high probability of success). Passing a test or getting a reward is a success. Every minor success is the progress toward goals. The more you get successes, the more satisfied you are, and the harder you learn. This is the emotional experience. Show one's interest to learning. Interest is the best teacher. Two methods can be used. First, try to find interesting learning materials (different people, different topics); second, try to connect your learning to realistic life (speaking, writing, and application).

G. Cultivate a Harmonious Relationship between Teachers and Students

Harmonious relationship between teachers and students is the foundation of cultivating students' learning motivation. Trust your master, follow his way. The relationship between teachers and students directly restricts the students' emotion and affects their learning behavior. The traditional opinion "Teacher way dignity" no longer adapts to the modern education environment. If you want to build a harmonious relationship between teachers and students, it requires teachers to change their roles. The teacher should walk down the tall podium to students and make friends with the students. And the teacher should give a hand to students in their learning process by using their own knowledge and experience. The building of good relationship between teachers and students should pay attention to the following points:

The teacher should stand in the perspective of students when he thinks a problem and design the teaching activities. There have the democratic platform between the teachers and students. Students are more likely to walk into the happy mutual learning atmosphere between teachers and students.

A good language teacher should have ethic devotion, professional competence and personal styles. The most important and difficult part is the development of professional competence. The teacher should learn from others, learn from his own experience and learn the received knowledge. The teacher should use his own charm to attract students and establish authority in students' mind. Only by this way can teacher be loved by his students. Teachers should discover the advantages of students especially a rebellious and learning difficulty student. Teachers in a positive or a approval, would give them a great deal of support and encouragement, and then close the relationship between teachers and students.

The teacher should treat students equally without discrimination. The teacher should equally treat every student. The teacher should not abandon the students who lag behind in study. On the contrary, the teacher should spend more time in helping the backward students to improve their English. The reason why the students are weary of learning English is that they are short of basic knowledge. Then they can't catch up with other students. As a result, the teacher should spare no efforts to take appropriate measures and find ways of mobilizing all positive factors to improve students' English level. In the meanwhile, the teacher should make out every student's different limitation. Then the teacher should give different help to different students according to his limitation. The teacher should help students to develop good habit of learning English.

Teachers should love every student and respect his opinion. Teachers should take efforts to make a harmonious

relationship between teachers and students. If teachers are full of energy, students may be involved in the class. Teachers should help the students with actual actions when students are in trouble. Teachers are ought to respect students. Students will respect teachers if their self-esteem is respected. Harmonious and close relationship between teachers and students will be naturally established if teachers are able to do that. Students are willing to complete what teachers ask them to do.

What's more, teachers should spare no pains to induce students' motivation for learning English well. First and foremost, in order to change students' English learning weariness, teachers should try their best to help students to build confidence in learning English well, which will make students believe that they are able to learn English well through their own efforts. It would also make students understand that learning is necessary and significant. If a student put enough effort into achieving a result, he will certainly achieve it. Students will naturally succeed if they are hard enough. The teacher should stimulate students' motivation to acquire knowledge and learning responsibility. Certainly, it is impossible for the students to be successful in short time. Only with long-term patient, can we expect students' vision broadened, ambition inspired and success expected. There is another factor that deserves some words here. It is necessary to enable students to experience the joy of success and to change the students' emotion of weariness. Therefore, students would gradually get rid of English learning weariness sooner or later.

V. CONCLUSION

The author study students' English learning weariness based on the survey of students coming from The Third Junior High School of Yantai Development Zone. The survey reflects all kinds of beliefs that are not beneficial to the changes of the junior high school students' English learning weariness. The results of the survey reflect that the lack of interest and motivation is the main cause which influences students' English learning weariness. So the teacher should spare no efforts to stimulate students' motivation of learning English and train the interest of the student consciously.

Questionnaire and data analysis are not sufficient enough to study English learning weariness. If the author spends more time on interviews and classroom observations, the results may be even more convincing. In addition, the numbers of the students who participate in the survey are not sufficient enough. In the meanwhile, students sometimes make the choices that can't reflect their real views. The author studies the causes and countermeasures of students' English learning weariness mainly from students' learning interest and motivation. The author makes the conclusion that students who can make excellent grades during the study at school are extremely interested in studying English and have clear motivation of learning English. The author doesn't study other aspects which influence students' English learning weariness. So the future study can focus on other aspects that influence students' English learning weariness.

APPENDIX. 初中学生厌学英语的调查问卷

班别: 性别:

我们这次问卷调查的目的是为了改进学校和老师的工作, 提高英语教学质量。本次问卷不记名, 不会对你有任何影响, 请你按照自己的真实情况选择, 并在你同意的小方框里打“√”里。感谢你的合作。

调查对象	初中生
调查内容	1 你的英语成绩如何? <input type="checkbox"/> 优秀 <input type="checkbox"/> 良好 <input type="checkbox"/> 及格 <input type="checkbox"/> 不及格
	2 你喜欢英语么? <input type="checkbox"/> 非常喜欢 <input type="checkbox"/> 比较喜欢 <input type="checkbox"/> 一般 <input type="checkbox"/> 不喜欢
	3 你对上英语课有兴趣吗? <input type="checkbox"/> 非常感兴趣 <input type="checkbox"/> 比较感兴趣 <input type="checkbox"/> 一般 <input type="checkbox"/> 不感兴趣
	4 你想学好英语吗? <input type="checkbox"/> 非常想 <input type="checkbox"/> 比较想 <input type="checkbox"/> 一般 <input type="checkbox"/> 不想
	5 你觉得英语对自己重要吗? <input type="checkbox"/> 非常重要 <input type="checkbox"/> 比较重要 <input type="checkbox"/> 一般 <input type="checkbox"/> 不重要
	6 我英语学好主要是因为 <input type="checkbox"/> 对英语感兴趣 <input type="checkbox"/> 自己想学好 <input type="checkbox"/> 老师教的好 <input type="checkbox"/> 其他
	7 我英语学的不好主要是因为 <input type="checkbox"/> 对英语不感兴趣 <input type="checkbox"/> 没有学习的动力 <input type="checkbox"/> 老师教的不好 <input type="checkbox"/> 其他
	8 你认为造成你厌学英语的最直接原因是 <input type="checkbox"/> 缺乏学习动机 <input type="checkbox"/> 老师方法枯燥, 没兴趣 <input type="checkbox"/> 自己不努力 <input type="checkbox"/> 其他
意见征询	你对英语教师的教学还有哪些意见?

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The Effect of Semantic Mapping Strategy Instruction on Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension

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Abstract—The present study attempted to investigate the effect of semantic mapping strategy instruction on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' listening comprehension. A quasi experimental research with the pretest-posttest control group design was used in this study. The study was conducted at Meraj language institute in Tabriz, Iran. A CELT test was administered and based on its results two classes were chosen as the homogenous ones, which were randomly assigned into the experimental and control groups, each with 35 students. After the listening comprehension pretest, which was already constructed for the purpose of this study, the experimental group received semantic mapping strategy instruction after listening to their supplementary books' activities, while the control group did not receive this treatment. At the end of the 15 instructional sessions, the post test of listening was administered in both groups. The results of Independent-Samples t-test indicated that the experimental group outperformed the control group in listening comprehension. Hence, it is concluded that semantic mapping strategy instruction in comparison with commonplace approaches significantly enhanced Iranian intermediate EFL learners' listening comprehension. The implications are provided for the syllabus designers, textbook writers and EFL teachers and learners.

Index Terms—instruction, listening comprehension, semantic mapping, strategy

I. INTRODUCTION

Listening is a receptive behavior in knowledge acquisition. It was not until the late 1940s that listening was considered as a field of investigation as a result of the works of the “fathers of listening” such as Brown, Nichols and Weaver (Feyten, 1991, p. 173). Most of the students excel at understanding written text, but still struggle with listening comprehension; because listening often proves to be a challenging task for second language learners and when listening one must deal with new grammar and vocabulary as well as the clarity, pace, and intonation of the speaker (Grochowski, 2006).

Teachers tend to overlook the process of helping students learn to listen (Vandergrift, 2004). They usually employ the traditional lecture method that is “a passive, one-way method of transferring information” (Sullivan & McIntosh, 1996, p. 1). It is necessary for EFL teachers and learners to have both suitable teaching methods and learning approaches in listening classrooms where teachers would not be “attempting to teach learners only the pertinent information that they would need to pass a test” (McMahon, Lytle, & Smith, 2005, p. 180). In order to compensate for the above weakness, utilizing a variety of learning strategies which makes listening classes more enjoyable and encourages learners in their own listening learning is suggested (Mai, Ngoc, & Thao, 2014).

Learning strategies suitable for individuals' need facilitate English learning. A strategy is an action selected deliberately to achieve particular goals (Kashani Mahmood, Reymani Nikoo, & Bonyadi, 2013). Amidst the instructional strategies that research validates to be used in the classroom to assist students' learning, employing some strategies such as semantic mapping or graphic organizer is more noticeable (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2001). The instructional methods generate an instructional strategy which aids students in spotting similarities and differences in the information that is accessible within their classrooms (Kashani Mahmood et al., 2013).

One way to help learners to comprehend with difficulty of listening activity is to equip them with effective learning strategies like graphic organizers. They help make ideas visible; which are also powerful tools that lend themselves especially well to the teaching of reading or listening comprehension (Moore & Hall, 2012).

Semantic mapping is a graphic presentation that illustrates the interaction between words and ideas, visually, to the learners as they carry out the learning task. It is one of the cognitive strategies which resembles Ausubel's (1968) advance organizer as a preliminary means to triggers learners' schemata or background knowledge. Graphic Organizers are visual presentations of overall related concepts (Kashani Mahmood et al., 2013).

Semantic mapping has been used in a variety of ways including pre reading or pre listening activities designed to help learners understand and remember vocabulary that will be heard or read (Oxford, 1990). It is vital to explore

prominent factors that end in learners' systematic learning in the classroom (Slavin, 2008; Van Merriënboer & Kirshner, 2007).

An important part of learning a foreign language is mastering learning. Mastering the fundamentals of learning not only can help language learners in learning vocabulary, acquiring basic structures, and improving the necessary linguistic and communication skills, but also help the learners to be in active control of their own learning processes (Soleimani & Hajghani, 2013). There is a consensus that the issue of teaching and learning English in Iran is linked to the teaching methodology and improper methods the English teachers utilize (see Asai, 1959; Dahmardeh, 2010; Noora, 2008). EFL teachers depend mostly on fruitless traditional strategies which are mainly wordlists, definitions and translations (Abdelrahman, 2013). Beckman (2002) supposed that strategic learners had strong motivation, self-monitoring, and self-regulation ability.

From among various types of learning strategies, semantically-based strategies are almost neglected in EFL classrooms whose application seems very crucial in the EFL learning context of Iran. Most of the latest studies are focused on general language learning strategies. The significance of this study derives from the fact that it is, to the researchers' knowledge, the first to investigate the effectiveness of using semantic mapping strategy on intermediate learners' listening comprehension skills in Iran.

Accordingly, the present study aimed to probe into this important issue by providing formal instruction of the semantic mapping strategies to a group of Iranian EFL learners and comparing their listening comprehension with another group not receiving such an instruction. Therefore, the following null hypothesis was formulated: Teaching semantic mapping strategy does not enhance listening comprehension of Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. Theoretical Views

The graphic organizer is a teaching/learning tool to assist student comprehension and organization of content of texts (Tang, 1994). Guardado (2001) defines graphic organizers as a carefully planned diagram that expresses a message that is comprehensive than simply the sum of its parts, and it can be more apparent and economic than a heavily packed original text.

The concept "advance organizer" was first introduced by Ausubel (1963, as cited in Nowell, 1984), and it aims "to facilitate the learning and retention of the material which follows it. The advance organizer serves as a bridge or anchorage, relating the material to be learned to information already known by the students" (p. 1).

Williams and Burden (1997) consider the advance organizers as a "helpful strategy for teachers to aid their learners' memorization of information" (p. 17). They mention that "it can be both helpful and important when introducing a new topic or set of ideas to begin by talking about what will follow from these ideas even before the ideas themselves are grasped" (p. 17). Although being typically connected with assisting reading, they are currently used as important didactic devices in diversity of skills such as listening and writing (Guardado, 2001).

Information provided in advance organizers in a language class tend to be cognate recognition, syllable-morpheme information, contextualized meaning, chronological ordering, time frame reference, cross-cultural differences, redefinition, and direction of discourse (Spinelli & Suskin, 1987). Advance organizers can include "pictures, verbal descriptions, key vocabulary, pre-questioning techniques, and cultural background knowledge" (Herron, 1994, p.179).

Clarke (1990) describes graphic organizers as "words on paper, arranged to represent an individual's understanding of the relationship between words. Whereas conventions of sentence structure make most writing linear in form graphic organizers take their form from the presumed structure of relationships among ideas" (p. 30). A further definition of graphic organizers is put by Tate (2003), who regards them as visual accounts, which aid the left and right hemispheres of the brain to comprehend information and seek for patterns in the information it processes.

Also, Pittelman and Johnson (1985) claimed that semantic maps can help teachers evaluate the learners' previous knowledge, and prepare them for dealing with the text. According to Pearson and Johnson (1978, as cited in Clark, 2005) semantic mapping is a strategy that helps students to organize the information they know about a subject into different categories.

B. Empirical Studies

Most of the studies in the area of advance organizers like semantic mapping have been conducted on their effectiveness on reading comprehension (e.g., Hudson, 1982) and vocabulary (Abu-Hussein, 2007; Srinaowaratt, 2001; Zaghlool, 2004). For instance, Hudson (1982) compared two advance organizers, a visual advance organizer and a non-visual organizer on reading and found that the visual organizer was superior to the non-visual one. Few empirical studies have been conducted to test assumptions about advance organizers for L2 learners' listening comprehension.

In one of the first studies by Hadley (as cited in Taichert, 1996), he reported that pictures aided listening comprehension. Mueller (1980) used beginning German as a foreign language students in university classes. The advance organizer was a simple picture which described an interview, upcoming listening material in this experiment. The two experimental groups were exposed to the picture, the only difference being that the first group saw the picture before listening to the material and the other afterwards. The control group did not have any visual aids. For those who learned little or nothing of the target language in high school, a significant difference was seen, and the picture

addressed before the listening task was most effective. In contrast, students who learned German for four to six semesters in high school were not affected by the visual aids conditions.

Another experiment reported by Ruhe (1996), involved the effectiveness of key visuals or semantic maps on lecture comprehension by junior college students. Subjects were divided into four groups, a control group, a graphics group and two vocabulary groups one of which received the list of words from the nodes in graphics whereas the other received an alphabetical list of words. For analysis, the questions were categorized into graphic related and non graphic related. The graphics group did significantly better on graphic related questions than the other groups. As a conclusion the author states that since the mean scores of vocabulary groups did not differ considerably from that of the control group "it was the graphics that were responsible for enhanced comprehension in graphics group" (p.52). Because the graphics participants had the graphics in front of them when answering the questions it is predictable that they would do better than other groups (Burger, 2001).

Tsubaki and Keiko Nakayama (n.d.) explored the impact of an advance organizer on the comprehension of a lecture. The lecture outline, provided before lecture, served as advance organizer. The aim of the study was to examine if Japanese students as EFL learners with relative lower English proficiency for lecture listening would privilege the lecture outline or not. The learners were randomly assigned either to the experimental group or the control group and they were requested to note what they remembered after listening to the lecture. The control group was not provided with the outline. The results of this study recommended that the advance organizer enhanced lower proficiency group's performance but the higher proficiency group did not benefit from its use. The findings of this study imply that teachers should provide appropriate materials for the level of English proficiency for English acquisition.

In this regard, Burger (2001) conducted a research to find out the role of key visuals or graphic organizers in improving listening comprehension of ESL students; the purpose of this study was to compare two preparation techniques to see which was more helpful for ESL students. There were two groups of university students who received training with problem solving lectures; one group received vocabulary instruction before lectures and the other group worked with a key visual or graphic organizer, a third group, the control group, received no training. All groups improved in their ability to understand the test lectures which made it impossible to say whether either of pre training methods was more effective than the other. The teacher's and students' reaction to graphic organizers was positive and the technique made them conscious of lecture comprehension. Thus the researcher concluded that "the language training courses should incorporate many techniques among which are using graphic organizers for information presented in lectures" (p.iv).

III. METHOD

A. Participants

This study was conducted in an intermediate class at Meraj language institute in Tabriz in East-Azərbayjan, Iran, in year 2014. The participants ranged in age from 20 to 26 and were selected based on a standardized proficiency test (CELT) administered to 150 female students and 70 of them whose scores fell between one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected. They were divided into two equal groups consisting of 35 students in control and 35 in experimental groups.

B. Instruments and Materials

A set of instruments utilized in the study was a test to ascertain the homogeneity of the subjects, a pre test and posttest and a supplementary book. The subjects took the test of listening section of the Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT) (Harris & Palmer, 1970). The listening section of the CELT has 50 multiple choice items divided into three subsections; in the first subsection test takers should select the best answer to the question they heard, in the second they are required to paraphrase a statement and the third requires them to listen to a short conversation and draw a conclusion based on it. The test takes about thirty minutes to complete (Haggstrom, Morgan, & Wiczorek, 1995).

Pretest and posttest of listening were extracted from the book entitled Listen Here (West, 2010), which is a supplementary book for lower intermediate and intermediate students, taught during the semester. It includes 28 units covering a wide range of topics and situations and tasks to improve listening skills in English.

The pretest and post test consisted of listening comprehension questions selected from the listening activities of the supplementary book and had the same format. They were checked for content validity by four English teachers to make sure that they were appropriate. They were also checked for internal consistency through Cronbach's Alpha and a high internal reliability was obtained for the pretest ($\alpha = .84$) and posttest ($\alpha = .88$), which seemed promising for the purpose of this study. The material used in the study was the same for both groups. The first eight units of the supplementary book were covered during the semester which includes different listening activities and vocabulary exercises.

C. Procedure

To accomplish the purpose of this study first, 150 students were selected from Meraj language institute. Due to practical limitations it was impossible to select a randomized sample; therefore, an intact group design was adopted. Second, the proficiency test was conducted on the students during the first week of the course; it helped to find the two

classes of homogenous students who were going to act as the control group and experimental group. Third, the pretest which was constructed and validated for the purpose of this research was administered among the participants. Then the treatment sessions started.

One of the researchers as their teacher first presented and described the semantic mapping strategy explicitly for the students at the pre listening phase and gave them enough practice on how to use it. The following time frame was made: forty-five-minute of the standard ninety-minute class time was allocated to usual class activities and covering the course book; the remaining forty-five minutes were devoted to working on supplementary book and doing its exercises using semantic mapping strategy provided by the teacher for the experimental group, and the usual listening instruction techniques for the control group.

Each lesson of the supplementary book introduces a topic; in the experimental group, each session, after listening to the activities of the book, the teacher wrote the central theme of the lesson on the board. The students were encouraged to work individually, in pairs, or in groups and invited to provide their own semantic maps about the central topic. They were asked to suggest words related to the central concept using the words provided in the listening activity while being allowed to ask for words they didn't know the meaning. The teacher wrote the suggested words on the board and connected them with lines and arrows to the main topic. All semantic maps were created on the board and shared with the class. After creating the semantic maps, the students had to explain to the rest of the class why they have included words in their semantic maps and explained and described words that were not known by the students. Then the students copied the maps in their notebooks. After listening to the text, students took part in some post-listening activities such as writing journal or discussing and sharing views with the classmates. In the control group, the students were not encouraged to organize new words around a central concept. The teacher first presented the listening topic, exposed the students to some new words and made the opportunity for them to be involved in the listening tasks. The students first listened to the listening activity while they were allowed to take notes of the words they did not know the meaning; after that the teacher invited them to ask their questions. In this phase, the teacher asked other learners to provide synonyms, definitions, or first language equivalents and whenever no one could explain the meaning they were encouraged to check the dictionary. Once the learners had no more questions the teacher let the students to listen for the second time while doing the exercises simultaneously. At last, the teacher looked through their answers and provided the feedback to them.

After 15 weeks, the students in both classes took posttest which acted as an assessment device to measure the improvement in listening competence in the experimental group who had been taught with semantic mapping instruction activities in comparison with that of the students in the control group who were trained with no semantic mapping instruction activities.

D. Design

Non-randomized intact group quasi-experimental design with the pretest, posttest and control group was used in this study. The semantic mapping instruction was the independent variable and listening comprehension was the dependent variable of the study.

E. Data Analysis

The collected data were entered into the SPSS 20 for further analysis. As the researchers intended to compare the two groups' performance, an Independent-Samples t-test was run to see if the two groups performed significantly different on the listening comprehension tests.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

After the administration of CELT test in the first session of the study, the subjects were divided into two intact groups (one experimental and one control group). The CELT listening test has 50 items, ranging between 0 and 50 in the total scores; after calculating the scores, 70 students with the scores of one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics for this test.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE CELT

CELT	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	150	18	48	35	11.00

Based on the results of descriptive statistics, 70 learners whose scores fell between one SD below and above the mean (i.e., 24 – 46, respectively) were considered as the participants of the study and were randomly assigned into the experimental and control groups with 35 students in each.

In order to establish the homogeneity of the groups in terms of listening comprehension prior to the study, the pre test which was already constructed was administered to the groups. Then the performance of the students on the pretest was compared and analyzed applying an Independent-Samples t-test; the results of which are displayed in Tables 2 and 3.

TABLE 2.
GROUP STATISTICS FOR PRE TEST MEAN SCORES

	Groups	N	Mean	Std.	Std. Error Mean
Scores of pre test	Control group	35	25.05	5.06	0.24
	Experimental group	35	25.09	5.03	0.18

Table 2 indicates that the mean scores of the pretest were ($M=25.05$, $SD= 5.06$) for the control group and ($M=25.09$, $SD= 5.03$) for the experimental group which shows that the students in both classes had almost the same English listening competence level.

TABLE 3.
INDEPENDEN SAMPLES T-TEST ANALYSIS OF THE PRE TEST LISTENING SCORES

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	3.425	0.73	-.104	106	.626	.05	.36
Equal variances not assumed			-.102	85.632	.605	.05	.32

Note. * $p < .05$

As Levene's Test for Equality of Variances in the Table 3 denotes, the column Sig. displays the value of .073 which exceeded .05; thus, the row Equal variances assumed would be considered in the interpretation. As the value of Sig. (2-tailed) at the row Equal variances assumed was .626 which was greater than .05, there was no significant difference in listening pretest mean scores between the control group and experimental group, which again exhibits the similarity in terms of learners' English listening competence level between the two groups. Therefore the two research groups enjoyed similar level of listening comprehension, and the groups were not significantly different with respect to proficiency level prior to the study.

In order to examine whether semantic mapping instruction activities had impact on EFL learners' listening comprehension, posttests were employed. There were 35 students in the control group and 35 students in the experimental group. However, few students in both classes didn't participated in the posttest because they were absent on the day the tests were administered; therefore, only 33 students in the control group and 31 students in the experimental group took the posttest. Then, normality test was carried out on both groups' scores and the results revealed that the distribution of the scores in both groups was normal. Therefore, an independent-samples t-test was run on the data obtained from the posttests. The results of the descriptive statistics and independent-samples t-test are presented in Table 4 and Table 5, respectively.

TABLE 4.
GROUP STATISTICS FOR POST TEST MEAN SCORES

	Groups	N	Mean	Std.	Std. Error Mean
Scores of posttest	Control group	33	22.10	6.72	6.46
	Experimental group	31	35.06	5.83	1.00

Based on the results in Table 4, the mean score of the experimental group ($M=35.06$, $SD= 5.83$) was higher than the mean score of the control group ($M=22.10$, $SD=6.72$). In order to test the null hypothesis of the study, an independent samples t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the control and experimental groups (see Table 5).

TABLE 5.
INDEPENDEN SAMPLES T-TEST ANALYSIS OF THE POST TEST LISTENING SCORES

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	0.823	.529	-6.50	70	.002	-1.07	.315
Equal variances not assumed			-6.51	68.82	.002	-1.07	.318

Note. * $p < .05$

As Table 5 displays, there was a significant difference, $t(70) = 6.50$, $p = .002$, between the mean scores of the control and experimental groups. Therefore, the null hypothesis of the study is rejected, implying that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group on the post-test.

The results revealed that semantic mapping strategies have statistically significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' listening comprehension. This finding is in line with previous research findings concerning the effect of semantic mapping in the EFL classrooms for teaching a wide array of topics aimed at providing opportunities for

language development (Anders, Bos, & Filip, 1984; Margosein, Pascarella, & Pflaum, 1982; Stahl & Kapinus, 1991). This major effect of semantic mapping activities can be related to the fact that in semantic elaboration the relationships between words are discovered and thus more connections among them are made in the lexical knowledge system of the learner (Abdollahzadeh & Amiri Vardani, 2010). Researchers also assert that teachers can explicitly instruct students about the knowledge structures and integrate the use of different semantic maps to represent them (Early, 1990; Early & Tang, 1991; Mohan, 1986; Tang, 1993). Once students are able to use the concepts and the visuals, they can try out creating their own, and building oral and written discourse from maps prepared by the teacher, peers, or prefabricated graphics from other sources (Guardado, 2001).

Also, the findings of this study matched with the general conclusion drawn from other related studies (Bos & Andres, 1990; Crow & Quigley, 1985; Morin & Goebel, 2001; Zaid, 1995) that teaching semantic mapping strategy has a significant effect on learners' language development by enhancing vocabulary learning. For instance, Morin and Goebel (2001) observed that vocabulary instruction that considers semantic mapping as an acquisition strategy is more efficient than those techniques that only teach words rather than strategies for learning words (Keshavarz, Ateai, & Mohammadi, 2006).

The results of this study demonstrate that although semantic mapping is costly in terms of class time, it can be very beneficial by supplying students with ample of information about new words and the interrelationships of the concepts connected with the words in their long-term memory (Abdollahzadeh & Amiri Vardani, 2010), which in turn helps them improve their listening comprehension.

V. CONCLUSION

The goal of this study was to obtain information about the usefulness of using semantic mapping strategies instruction on improving students' listening comprehension in Iranian intermediate EFL classrooms. The results indicated the significant role of using semantic mapping strategies in enhancing the students' vocabulary knowledge and as a result their listening comprehension ability. In other words, the results were in favor of using semantic maps in teaching words appeared in listening activities. Learning the vocabulary, which will be appeared in listening activities, would be more enjoyable for learners when they are taught through semantic mapping strategy instead of traditional ways of vocabulary learning.

Findings of this study have some implications for teachers, learners and syllabus designers. The teachers should help students in selecting the most appropriate strategies for developing their listening skills. They can instruct new lexical items by preparing some challenging and motivating vocabulary activities based on semantic mapping strategy and in this way they can promote their listening comprehension skill. Syllabus designers and textbook writers can design pre-listening activities in which the learners employ the semantic mapping strategies in learning the new vocabulary of the listening passage.

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