Iranian EFL Journal

The Iranian EFL Journal

June 2011

Volume 7

Issue 3

Chief Editors:

Dr. Paul Robertson

Dr. Rajabali Askarzadeh Torghabeh

Table of Contents

Foreword

Welcome to the third edition of the year 2011. The Iranian EFL Journal is a bi-monthly journal from 2011, and this has created a golden opportunity for our readers to access to more articles. The journal has had strong growth over the last few years with a monthly readership now exceeding 2500 readers. For a journal examining the topic of EFL/ESL, Literature and Translation studies, the growth and readership has been pleasing. Statistically, readers are coming from almost 80 countries. In the third issue of volume 7 we present 15 articles for your reading. In the first article, the authors Mahmood Salimi, Mansoor Tavakoli and Saeed Ketabi present testing EFL learners' knowledge of English collocations: an exploratory factor analysis approach. In the second article, Azar Hosseini Fatemi, Reza Pishghadam and Zahra Heidarian have studied gender delineation in high school and pre-university ELT textbooks: a criterion-oriented approach to text analysis. In the next article, recounting and fine-tuning academic word list for four academic fields is done by Iman Alizadeh and Hadi Farjami. The fourth article is an article in the area of literature. In this article, the plays of Eugene O'Neill are studied and different aspects of his plays are discovered. In the next article, Mohammad Salehi has studied the acquisition of preposition pied piping and preposition stranding by Iranian learners of English. In the sixth article, Afsaneh Baharloo has explored the anxiety about L2 reading tasks. In the seventh article, the effect of explicit training of metacognitive vocabulary learning strategies on recall and retention of idioms by advanced EFL students is presented by Mehdi Mardani and Ahmad Moinzadeh. In the eighth article, a semantic analysis of interchangeability and synonymy of the discourse markers *But* and *However* is scrutinized by Hassan Fartousi. In the ninth article of the issue, Abbas Pourhosein Gilakjani and Seyedeh Masoumeh Ahmadi have presented the impact of authentic listening materials on Iranian EFL learners' english listening comprehension. In the tenth article of the issue, form and content in the argumentative writing of extroverted and introverted Iranian EFL learners is studied by Fateme Layeghi. In the next article, Mohamad Reza khodabakhsh has explored the effect of modified speech on listening to authentic speech. Moreover, Peyman Rajabi, Gholam Reza Kiany and Parviz Maftoon have introduced the impact of ESP in-service teacher training programs on Iranian ESP teachers' beliefs, classroom practices and students' achievements. In the next article, acquisition of English syllable structure as a foreign language by Iranian Farsi and Arabic speakers is done by Ali Akbar Jabbari and Amrollah Fazlinezhad. In the fourteenth article of the issue, the relation between paragraph organization and the topic progression used in English paragraphs selected from native books on teaching writing is presented by Zargham Ghabanchi and Sahar Zahed Alavi. And in the last article of the issue an investigation of e-mail writing style in Persian learners of English: the effects of social distance and closeness on the formality of the written e-mails is done by Shahla Janghorban and Saeed Ketabi.

We hope you enjoy this edition and look forward to your readership.

Title

Testing EFL Learners' Knowledge of English Collocations: An Exploratory Factor Analysis Approach

Authors

Mahmood Salimi (Ph.D. Candidate)
University of Isfahan, English Department, Isfahan, Iran

Mansoor Tavakoli (Ph.D.)
University of Isfahan, English Department, Isfahan, Iran

Saeed Ketabi (Ph.D.)
University of Isfahan, English Department, Isfahan, Iran

Bio data

Mahmood Salimi is a Ph.D. candidate for Applied Linguistics at Isfahan University, Isfahan, Iran. He is also an EFL/ESL teacher at Mofid University, Qom, Iran. His main areas of interest are language testing, e-learning and oral interpretation.

Mansoor Tavakoli is assistant professor at the University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran. He has published many articles in various journals in the area of English language teaching and learning. His main areas of interest are language testing and research in applied linguistics.

Saeed Ketabi is assistant professor of applied linguistics at the University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran. He has published numerous articles in the area of English language teaching and learning. His main areas of interest are English Teaching Methodology and Materials development.

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to develop a Test of Collocational Competence (TCC) for measuring the Iranian EFL learners' knowledge of English collocations and to investigate its construct validity. Following a systematic procedure the test was developed. For the purpose of this study, 345 Iranian EFL learners served as the participants. The test results were

obtained and using various statistical techniques, the questions of the study were investigated.The results of the statistical analyses showed that the final version of the TCC enjoyed well-discriminating items and a high Cronbach alpha coefficient of .88 indicating good internal consistency. Performing PCA, the factor structure of the TCC was explored and results of PCA also revealed that knowledge of collocation was a trait different from what the general proficiency tests usually aim at measuring. This provided evidence in support of the construct validity of the TCC. The obtained results were discussed and the implications for practioners and teachers in an EFL context were presented.

Keywords: Collocations, Lexical collocation, Grammatical collocation, Collocational competence, Construct validity, PCA.

Introduction

Recent findings in corpus linguistics attest to the fact that native language users are intuitively aware that many words in their language tend to co-occur in relatively fixed and recurrent combinations (e.g. *commit a crime, blonde hair, reckless abandon*, to name but a few). Drawing on those same intuitions, native speakers reject violations of such lexical combinations even when the resulting utterances appear to be grammatical and intelligible according to the general rules of the language as is often the case with the language of foreign language learners. Many such word combinations are so recurrent (Foster, 2001; Erman and Warren, 2000; Pawley and Syder, 1983) that the choice of one of their constituents appears to automatically trigger the selection of one or more other constituents in their immediate context. These word combinations have been given various names, the most popular one being *collocation*, and have been the focus of research especially in recent corpus-based language studies. While some research has looked at the role of these prefabricated chunks and collocations in second language acquisition (e.g. Peters, 1983 Weinert, 1995; Wray, 2002; and Gitsaki, 2002), the use and development of this domain of knowledge among adult ESL/EFL learners has remained anecdotal in nature and for the most part underscored. The development of reliable and valid measures of this construct (i.e. collocation) is a first step towards a better understanding of its importance in L2 acquisition, processing and use. This study is an attempt in that direction. It proposes to develop a reliable and valid test which can tap and measure the EFL learners' knowledge of collocations.

Theoretical background

It is now widely acknowledged that collocations play an important role in SLA. Bolinger (1976: 14) was one of the first to point out that our language does not expect us to "build everything starting with lumber, nails, and blueprint". Instead, it provides us with an incredibly large number of conventionalized multi-word combinations. Pawly and Syder (1983) argue that collocational knowledge, as the essence of language knowledge, is indispensable for language learners to produce fluent and appropriate language. In Lewis' (2000: 8) words,

> … the single most important task facing language learners is acquiring a sufficiently large vocabulary. We now recognize that much of our 'vocabulary' consists of prefabricated chunks of different kinds. The single most important kind of chunk is collocation. Self-evidently, then, teaching collocation should be a top priority in every language course.

Support for this view has been provided by research in corpus linguistics over the last few decades (e.g. Sinclair, 1991; Altenberg, 1998; Stubbs, 2001). Further evidence has come from neurophysiological and psychological studies, which indicate that the human mind is better equipped for memorizing than for creative processing. The use of ready-made multi-word expressions reduces the processing effort and thus plays a major role in language production and comprehension (Pawley and Syder, 1983; Cantos and Sánchez, 2001; Wiktorsson, 2003; Schmitt, 2004; Nesselhauf, 2005).

Furthermore, the fact that collocations are a problematic area for L2 learners should equally be taken into consideration. From a purely linguistic perspective, it seems reasonable to assume that the arbitrary nature of collocations is the main cause of the attested difficulties of non-native speakers. However, from a more pedagogical point of view, different explanations have been put forward to account for this phenomenon. On the one hand, it has been argued that since EFL learners are not aware of the collocational patterns of English, this usually results in their excessive reliance on L1 to L2 transfer (Farghal & Obiedat, 1995). Thus, language learners tend to produce deviant collocations due to the fact that they seem to assume wrongly that there is always a one-to-one correspondence between their mother tongue and the language they are learning in terms of collocations. On the other hand, authors who are more psycholinguistically oriented contend that the main reason why collocations

pose a problem for non-native speakers is to be found in the way they approach new vocabulary. Unlike native speakers, L2 learners seem to focus on learning individual words and gradually building up bigger units, so it becomes particularly hard for them to establish strong associations between pairs of words forming collocations (Schmitt & Underwood, 2004; Wray, 2002). As a result, L2 learners tend to resort to the creative mechanism to combine isolated words, rather than store, retrieve and produce ready-made collocations. Using Sinclair's (1991) terminology, they heavily rely on the open-choice principle where the idiom principle would, in fact, work best.

Having all this in mind, it has been suggested that we need to add collocation as a new dimension to Hyme's (1972) conception of communicative competence (Hill, 1999). Drawing on these new insights into the nature of language , Celce – Murcia (2007) revised her earlier model of communicative competence and integrated formulaic competence into her most recent model.

Despite this recognition, the study of collocations has not received adequate attention in language testing, and only in the last two decades has the need to tap into learners' collocational competence attracted some attention. A review of literature reveals that only few research projects can be said to have concentrated on the assessment of collocational knowledge to date: Biskup (1992), Bahns and Eldaw (1993), Farghal and Obiedat (1995), Schmitt (1998), Bonk (2001), Mochizuki (2002), Barfield (2003), Gyllstad (2005 and 2007) and Keshavarz and Salimi (2007) and Jaén, (2007).

A brief review of these studies follows. As with vocabulary tests, collocational measures, in general, seem to fall into two categories: the ones which attempt to measure the productive knowledge and those assessing receptive knowledge. When Bahns and Eldaw (1993), Biskup (1992), Farghal and Obiedat (1995) and Schmitt (1998) designed the first tests of collocations, they only focused on the productive aspect of collocational knowledge. These tests presented the test-taker with a translation task where the target collocations had to be supplied. In addition, Bahns and Eldaw as well as Farghal and Obiedat combined this with a completion format where the test takers were also required to fill in the sentence gaps. Schmitt didn't use any of the above formats. His test consisted of sentence prompts to elicit collocations. The tests constructed and used in these studies suffered from similar limitations. Biskup does not specify how many collocations were included in her study. As for Bahns and Eldaw's study, the test they used in their study consisted of only 15 items, and Farghal and Obiedat's test constituted 22 items. On the whole, we can observe that the sample of collocations assessed is so small that the conclusions drawn by these studies might be

questionable. In addition, the unsystematic way in which the specifications were made in Bahns and Eldaw's test is another matter of concern. The other two studies even do not report how they specified the collocations to include in their tests. Another shortcoming of all these studies was that they lacked statistical reliability analyses.

Turning our attention to the tests constructed in the current decade (Barfield, 2003; Bonk, 2001; Gyllstad, 2005 and 2007; Keshavarz & Salimi, 2007; Mochizuki, 2002; Jaén, 2007), with the exception of Bonk and Jaén, they all fall into the second category mentioned above since all tap the receptive dimension of collocational knowledge. Bonk's and Jaén studies are the only ones aiming to include both productive and receptive aspects of collocational competence. However, it must be noted that Bonk only performed correlation analyses between collocational proficiency and general English proficiency. No internal comparison was made between the receptive and productive dimensions of the participants' collocational competence. Therefore, this is an aspect still to be tackled in this area of research.

One feature all these five recent studies share is that one of the formats they all made use of to assess receptive collocational knowledge was the multiple choice format. In fact, this is the most popular format with receptive collocational tests, and researchers have often found this test format most suitable when other formats have failed being tried out. This was the case with Gyllstad's COLLMATCH test, which was arranged in grids consisting of 3 verbs and 6 nouns, where students were required to indicate the possible combinations. However, due to the attested difficulty in finding nouns that fit with more than one verb, the majority of the combinations in the grid produced deviant collocations. Therefore, "the test primarily measured learners' ability to reject pseudo-collocations (65%), rather than their ability to recognize real collocations (35%)" (Gyllstad, 2005: 22). For this reason, the author had to reject this format in favor of a multiple choice one.

It should be noted here that, unlike the first group of tests, these recent measures offer more conclusive and reliable findings. This improvement was due to the fact that they used a larger number of items; they range from 50 items (Bonk, 2001) and to 150 items (Keshavarz and Salimi, 2007) and they were subjected to more adequate statistical analyses.

Yet, in spite of all good qualities these tests enjoyed, they still suffered from a shortcoming which continues to be a persistent problem in the assessment of collocational knowledge: the selection of items. Bonk and Keshavarz and Salimi didn't follow a systematic procedure in selecting the collocations to include in their tests. They seemed to use their own intuition as the only criterion. In the other receptive tests, the researchers seem to have taken

some preliminary steps to adopt a systematic corpus-based approach for the selection of items. Yet, their tests suffer from some drawbacks, too. As regards Mochizuki and Gyllstad's studies, the main criterion used to include collocations in their tests was the individual frequency of the words they contained. To make this selection more systematic, Gyllstad also performed a z-score analysis on all the collocations obtained in order to check whether they were all frequent combinations in the British National Corpus.

In our opinion, selecting collocations on the basis of the frequency of both words as independent entities reflects the theoretical assumption that the two elements integrating collocations are at the same linguistic level. In contrast, a number of studies (Corpas Pastor, 1996; Hausmann, 1989; Mel'cuk, 1998) have shown that one of the elements of a collocation is always a semantically independent base which is freely chosen by the speaker whereas the other element is a collocate whose meaning and use is restricted by the base. Following this definition, we believe that the most appropriate way for selecting collocations would be to select the base from a frequency word list and then to choose its frequent collocates from corpora or corpus-based dictionaries, thus following a corpus-driven approach. It is important to point out that the only test which has followed this procedure to date is Barfield's (2003). The main problem with his research, however, is the inclusion of some items which could be considered as free combinations rather than collocations (e.g. *protect body*, *govern country*, etc.). This could seriously affect the construct validity of the test.

Finally, there are several other aspects which need consideration to complete this brief account of the state of the art in terms of collocational testing. Firstly, most studies have traditionally focused on verb-noun combinations due to their high frequency in the language and other types of collocations have been largely neglected. Secondly, corpus-based studies (Barfield, 2003; Gyllstad, 2005 and 2007; Mochizuki, 2002) have relied on data provided by only one corpus, with the limitations that this may entail in terms of linguistic representativeness. Thirdly, even though among the studies mentioned some studies have focused on both receptive and productive aspects of collocational knowledge (Bonk, 2001; Jaén, 2007), none has used different test formats to test either aspect. Bonk has used only multiple-choice test format to test the receptive knowledge of collocations. Fourthly, with the exception of Bonk and Gyllstad, no study has investigated the construct validity of the test they have used.

All in all, this area is still ripe for research to improve the assessment of L2 learners' collocational competence. Hence, this study is an attempt to contribute to the field – to provide empirical evidence in support of the construct of collocation. Therefore, the main

purpose of this study, following a systematic procedure, is to develop a test of collocations to measure the Iranian EFL learners' collocational competence and to investigate its construct validity.

Construct definition

Since language testing researchers study the measurement of language constructs, it is crucial to define them. Chapelle (1998) defines a construct as "… a meaningful interpretation of observed behavior"(p. 33). For example, when a learner's score on a vocabulary test is interpreted as an indicator of vocabulary knowledge, then "vocabulary knowledge" is the construct that gives meaning to the score. The fundamental requirement for interpreting observed behavior as a construct is performance consistency and the problem of construct definition is to hypothesize the sources of performance consistency. According to Chapelle (1998: 34), theorists have adopted three approaches to construct definition: trait approach, behaviorist approach, and interactionalist approach. Based on the trait perspective, performance is attributed to characteristics of test takers, and therefore constructs are defined in terms of the knowledge and fundamental processes of the test taker. In contrast to trait approach, in behaviorist approach to construct definition, performance consistency is attributed to contextual factors (e.g., the relationship of participants in a conversation) and therefore constructs are defined with reference to the environmental conditions under which performance is observed. Interactionalist perspective, which is the combination of both trait approach and behaviorist approach, performance is attributed to traits, contextual features, and their interaction.

Since the study of collocation as a construct is still in its infancy, in this study the authors have taken a trait-oriented perspective to the definition of collocation. Thus, collocation was operationally defined as the frequent co-occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each word (4 words to the either side of the base) including both lexical and grammatical words.

Questions of the study

This study was conducted to investigate the following questions.

1. Do the item development procedures used result in items with a good discrimination index?
2. How reliable is the TCC and its subtests for the targeted population?

3. What is the factor structure of the TCC?
4. Can any evidence of construct validity for the TCC be shown?

Method

Participants

345 EFL learners participated in this study. The participants were undergraduate students including both English majors and non-English majors ranging from freshman to senior. The English majors were studying at several Iranian universities, namely, Qom University, Azad University of Qom, Kashan University and Payame Noor University of Saveh. Non-English major participants were engineering students studying at the Industrial University of Sharif in Tehran.

The participants included both male and female students. The ratio of the female to male students was 3 to 2: 207 of the participants were male and 138 were female. The participants' age ranged from 18 to 45.

The selection of the participants for the study followed a certain procedure. First, the tests used in this study were administered to 417 participants studying at the mentioned universities. Then, based on their total score on the structure and vocabulary tests they were screened. The criterion was a total score of 30+. Out of 417 test takers, 361 met the criterion. The test takers underwent another screening. Those who acquired 30 on the structure and vocabulary tests but left any subtest of the TCC blank were also excluded from the study. That left a final number of 345 participants for the study.

It should be noted that before sitting for the tests, the participants were told that they were taking the tests for research purposes.

Instrumentation

Two tests were used in this study: Structure and Vocabulary subtests of Cambridge English Language Test CELT which were condensed for the purpose of this study and the 90-item Test of Collocational Competence (TCC) which was developed in this study. The procedure for the development of the TCC will be discussed in the following section. The original version of Structure and Vocabulary subtests of CELT had 75 items each which were first shortened to include 40 items each and based on the analysis of the results of the pilot study they were further shortened to include 30 items each. The condensed version of the structure and vocabulary sections served as the criterion measures in the study. We didn't have access

to the Structure and Vocabulary tests' Cronbach alpha coefficient values. However, in the current study, the Structure test had good internal consistency with a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .72. The Vocabulary test had a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .82 which is well above the acceptable level of .7.

Development of the TCC

To develop the TCC, several steps were taken. First, the words in the Oxford 3000 wordlist were categorized according to their part of speech. Then, using the categorized lists, 120 vocabulary items were randomly selected. To find the common collocations of the selected items four English collocation sources were used. The first source was Collins COBUILD English Collocations on CD-Rom (1995). Using Collins COBUILD, the collocations of the chosen words with their frequencies were extracted. After extracting the collocations for each word one collocation was randomly selected for each item. The researcher made sure to choose collocations in which both the node (base) and the collocate were present in the Oxford list. Then, the chosen collocations were checked in three more English collocation sources to make sure they were commonly considered as collocation. These sources were: Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English (2002), Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English on CD-Rom (2005) and the BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations (1997). The criterion to keep the extracted collocations from Collins COBUILD for inclusion in the TCC was that the collocation in question should exist in at least two of the three sources just mentioned. Thus, considering the fact that collocations were first extracted from Collins COBUILD Dictionary, each collocation to be included in the TCC must at least exist in three English collocations sources. One thing which has to be born in mind is that since in the third subsection of both the LCS and the GCS the test takers were required to produce the missing word, the collocations to be included in those subsections served as the criterion for accepting or rejecting the test takers' responses. However, if a subject gave an answer different from the criterion but seemed plausible, that answer was checked in the four sources, and if it met the same criterion, it was accepted as correct; otherwise it was rejected as wrong.

After it was decided which collocations to test, appropriate stems for the collocations in question were written. World Wide Web, Oxford Collocations Dictionary, BBI and Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English were used as the main sources to provide the context for the collocations in question. In order to help the participants of the study to focus their attention on the collocations in the TCC items and not to be distracted by the content of

the stems, enough care was taken to choose as the context sentences which seemed to be the easiest in the sources mentioned.

The next step was to construct the test items based on the contextualized collocations. Three types of item types were found most popular in the literature. Therefore, three types of items were constructed for each subtest of the TCC: Multiple-choice, Fill-in-the-blanks, and Translation. In the multiple-choice items, one constituent of the collocation in question which was thought to be the base (node) was removed from the stem and the collocate was written in bold type. Four choices were provided, one being the correct response and the other three serving as distracters, and the test takers were required to choose the word which habitually co-occurs with the word(s) in bold type. For distracters, we relied on our intuition and teaching experience about the interferences between L1 and L2 collocations. However, a further analysis was carried out to ensure that the distracters and the bold typed word in the stem didn't make acceptable collocations in English. To do this, the distracters for each item were checked in the four sources mentioned earlier as well as in the World Wide Web. An example of this item type is provided here:

This website provides **a --------------------- range** of information.
  a. deep   b. vast   c. wide   d. large

The second question type was fill-in-the-bank type in which one of the constituents of the collocation in question was left out but its first two letters were provided in bold type as a clue. Here again like the multiple-choice type, the retained constituent was written in bold type. The test taker was required to provide the missing word considering the word written in bold type and the first two letters of the missing word. It should be noted that in the GCS no letter of the missing word was provided. An example of the second type of question is:

He had **re-------------------** entirely **faithful** to his wife.

In the third type of items (i.e., translation) there was one missing constituent and the other constituent(s) were written in bold type. In addition, the Persian equivalent of the collocation in question was provided at the end of each stem and the test takers were required to provide the missing word taking the word(s) written in bold type and the Persian equivalent into consideration. For the Persian equivalents, two Iranian EFL teaching experts were consulted. An example of the third type follows:

We want to --------------------- all **obstacles** to travel between the two countries.

<div dir="rtl">(موانع را برطرف کردن/رفع مانع کردن)</div>

It must be noted here that for the pilot study for each test format of either subtest of the TCC, 20 items were constructed. Therefore, the TCC, as a whole, comprised 120 items with each subtest consisting of 60 items. After the test was constructed, appropriate rubrics were provided for each item type. Then, the resulting test was given to two EFL teachers for review. After applying the comments they made, the test was piloted for item and reliability analyses. 32 EFL students took the test in the pilot phase. Based on the test results of the pilot administration of the test, 5 items were discarded from each item type for each subtest.

Therefore, the final version of the TCC consisted of two subtests: the Lexical Collocations (LCS) and the Grammatical Collocations subtest (GCS), each comprising three subsections - each being devoted to one test format: Multiple-choice (MC), Fill-in-the-blanks (FB), and Translation (TR), respectively. There were 15 items for each test format in both subtests. Hence, the whole TTC consisted of 90 items: 45 items for the LCS and 45 items for the GCS. The reliability statistics for the TCC and its subtests are reported in the results section.

Procedures and scoring

The procedure of the study was as follows: First, the required steps were taken to construct the TCC. The procedures for the development of the TCC were described above. Then, the Structure and Vocabulary sections of an earlier version of the Cambridge English Language Test (CELT) were condensed to include 40 items. The original version of the each section had 75 multiple-choice items. The selection of the items to be included in the tailored version was carried out randomly.

Then, the TCC and the Structure and Vocabulary (SVT) were piloted. The two tests (Structure and Vocabulary subtests are here referred to as one test) were administered in two separate sessions in the pilot stage. 32 EFL learners took the test in the pilot stage. For practical reasons, based on the analysis of the test results in the pilot administration, the Structure and Vocabulary subtests were further condensed to include 30 items each.

The next stage was to administer the final versions of the tests for the main study. The tests were administered to 417 participants. The participants took the tests in a 90-minute session. In order to control for the fatigue factor, the administration procedure for the TCC

and the SVT was counterbalanced. Then, the test answer sheets were scored. 1 point was given for each correct response and there was no penalty for possible guessing. Next, test results for all items as well as for every individual participant were put into Excel sheets. Based on the participants' total scores on the SVT, those who got a total score of 30 and above were retained for the final analysis and those who got under 30 were excluded from the study. Also, the test takers who missed one or more parts of the TCC completely were not included in the analysis of the test results and the final analysis. This left a total of 345 participants for the final analysis. Then, the data were imported into SPSS 16 statistical package and ITEMAN 3.6 for data analysis.

Data analysis and results

In this section of the article, using different statistical techniques the questions of the study are investigated and the results are presented.

Item analysis

The first question of the study concerned whether the procedures used resulted in items with a good discrimination index. Using ITEMAN 3.6 software, traditional item analysis was done to compute different item statistics, including item facility (*IF*), item discrimination (*ID*), and Point-biserial correlation (*pbi*). The results for the LCS and the GCS item analysis are given in Appendix 1. The analysis of the results showed that both the LCS and the GCS enjoyed acceptable *ID* indices. The *ID* mean values revealed that through item development and validation procedures detailed above, a large number of well-discriminating items were constructed.

Reliability analysis

To investigate the second question of the study concerning the reliability of the TCC and its subtests, using SPSS 16 a reliability analysis was done and Cronbach alpha coefficients for the TCC and its subtests were obtained. The results are reported in Table 1. The TCC had good internal consistency with a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .88. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the LCS and GCS were .76 and .87, respectively indicating that the test development procedures used in this study resulted in a highly reliable test for measuring the English collocational competence of the targeted population.

Table 1 Cronbach alpha coefficients of the TCC and its subtests with all items included

TCC	LCS	LCMC	LCFB	LCTR	GCS	GCMC	GCFB	GCSR
0.88	0.76	0.49	0.73	0.63	0.87	0.63	0.75	0.67

To answer the third question of the study which concerned the factor structure of the TCC, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted. Prior to running the factor analysis, items in the TCC which showed a very low *ID* and *pbi* value (less than .2) were identified and excluded from factor analysis. Exclusion of the items with low *ID* and *pbi* resulted in retaining 76 items for factor analysis. 14 items were not included in factor analysis: 7 items from each subtest. The 76 remaining items of the TCC were subjected to principal components analysis (PCA) using SPSS 16. To perform PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin value was .62, exceeding the recommended bare minimum value of .5 as the cut-off point for selecting factors (Kaiser, 1974) and the Barlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. Principal components analysis revealed the presence of 25 components with eigenvalues above 1, explaining 73.16 per cent of the variance. However, a close inspection of the screeplot revealed a break after the 18th component, though not very clear due to the large number of variables. Using Catell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain 18 components for further investigation. This was further supported by the results of Parallel Analysis, which showed 18 components with eigenvalues exceeding the corresponding criterion values for a randomly generated data matrix of the same size (76 variables × 345 respondents). The results of the Parallel Analysis and the corresponding eigenvalues from the PCA are provided in Table 2.

Table 2 Comparison of eigenvalues from PCA and the corresponding criterion values obtained from PA

Component number	Actual eigenvalue from PCA	Criterion value from parallel analysis	Decision
1	9.749	2.0842	accept
2	3.986	2.0000	accept
3	3.566	1.9349	accept
4	3.068	1.8785	accept
5	2.782	1.8298	accept
6	2.609	1.7864	accept
7	2.433	1.7440	accept
8	2.176	1.7029	accept
9	2.063	1.6647	accept
10	1.944	1.6285	accept
11	1.824	1.5941	accept
12	1.783	1.5599	accept
13	1.723	1.5263	accept
14	1.651	1.4969	accept
15	1.621	1.4657	accept
16	1.539	1.4409	accept
17	1.471	1.4123	accept
18	1.397	1.3843	accept
19	1.312	1.3565	reject

The 18- component solution explained a total of 62.35 per cent of the variance. Table **3** shows the amount of variance each component contributes to the total variance. To aid in the interpretation of these components, Varimax rotation was performed. The rotated solution revealed a number of strong loadings for all components and almost all variables loading substantially on only one component. Few variables loaded on more than one factor. Moreover, for variables which loaded on more than one component, the second loading was not substantial.

Table 3: 18-Component solution with the contribution of each component

	Total Variance Explained								
	Initial Eigenvalues			**Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings**			**Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings**		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.749	12.827	12.827	9.749	12.827	12.827	3.801	5.001	5.001
2	3.986	5.245	18.072	3.986	5.245	18.072	3.568	4.694	9.696
3	3.566	4.692	22.764	3.566	4.692	22.764	3.178	4.181	13.877
4	3.068	4.037	26.802	3.068	4.037	26.802	3.079	4.051	17.928
5	2.782	3.661	30.462	2.782	3.661	30.462	3.023	3.977	21.905
6	2.609	3.433	33.896	2.609	3.433	33.896	3.012	3.963	25.868
7	2.433	3.201	37.096	2.433	3.201	37.096	2.950	3.882	29.749
8	2.176	2.864	39.960	2.176	2.864	39.960	2.818	3.707	33.457
9	2.063	2.715	42.675	2.063	2.715	42.675	2.756	3.626	37.083
10	1.944	2.558	45.233	1.944	2.558	45.233	2.312	3.042	40.125
11	1.824	2.400	47.633	1.824	2.400	47.633	2.278	2.998	43.122
12	1.783	2.346	49.979	1.783	2.346	49.979	2.244	2.953	46.076
13	1.723	2.267	52.245	1.723	2.267	52.245	2.243	2.952	49.027
14	1.651	2.172	54.417	1.651	2.172	54.417	2.161	2.843	51.871
15	1.621	2.133	56.551	1.621	2.133	56.551	2.109	2.774	54.645
16	1.539	2.025	58.576	1.539	2.025	58.576	1.980	2.606	57.251
17	1.471	1.936	60.512	1.471	1.936	60.512	1.962	2.582	59.833
18	1.397	1.838	62.350	1.397	1.838	62.350	1.913	2.517	62.350

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

To investigate the fourth question of the study which concerned whether any evidence of the construct validity for the TCC can be shown, another exploratory factor analysis was conducted. The six collocational subtests of the TCC and the two structure and vocabulary subtests were subjected to Principal Component Analysis. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of a sufficient number of coefficients of .3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin value was .8, exceeding the recommended bare minimum value of .5 as the cut-off point for selecting factors (Kaiser, 1974) and the Barlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix.

Principal components analysis with the eigenvalue set at 1.0 revealed the presence of 2 components. An inspection of the screeplot indicated a clear break after the second component. Using Catell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain 2 components for further investigation. This was further supported by the results of Parallel Analysis which showed only two components with eigenvalues exceeding the corresponding criterion values for a randomly generated data matrix of the same size (8 variables × 345 respondents). The results of the Parallel Analysis and the corresponding eigenvalues from the PCA are provided in Table 4.

Table 4 Comparison of eigenvalues from PCA and Criterion eigenvalue from Parallel Analysis

Component number	Actual eigenvalue from PCA	Criterion value from parallel analysis	Decision
1	3.738	1.2321	accept
2	1.508	1.1442	accept
3	.714	1.0805	reject

The 2-component solution explained a total of 65.58 per cent of the variance, with Component 1 contributing 46.73 per cent and Component 2 contributing 18.85 per cent. After rotation, there was a slight change in the amount of contribution each factor made, with Component 1 explaining 41.5 per cent and Component 2 explaining 24 per cent of the variance. (See Table 5).

Table 5 two-component solution with the contribution of each component

Total Variance Explained							
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings[a]
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	3.738	46.731	46.731	3.738	46.731	46.731	3.585
2	1.508	18.849	65.581	1.508	18.849	65.581	2.077

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

To aid in the interpretation of these two components, Direct Oblimin rotation was performed. The rotated solution revealed a number of strong loadings for all components and all variables loading substantially on only one component (see Table 6).

Table 6 Factor loadings and communality values for the TCC and Structure and Vocabulary subtests

	Pattern Matrix[a]		Communality
	Component		
	1	2	
Grammatical Collocations (Fill-in-the-blanks)	.852		.731
Grammatical Collocations (Translation)	.830		.783
Lexical Collocations (Fill-in-the-blanks)	.806		.661
Lexical Collocations (Translation)	.804		.626
Grammatical Collocations (Multiple-choice)	.792		601
Lexical Collocations (Multiple-choice)		.853	.700
Vocabulary		.720	.502
Structure		.708	.643

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

Factor loadings in Table 6 reveal that with the exception of lexical collocations (Multiple-choice) variable, there is a clear pattern of convergence of collocation variables on Factor 1 and structure and vocabulary variables on Factor 2.

Discussion

One important characteristic of a good test is its reliability. Since this study involved developing a test, in this case the TCC, it was necessary that its reliability be analyzed. To this end, a reliability analysis was carried out and the results were reported in the data analysis section. Reliability analysis of the final version of the TCC revealed that the TCC, as a whole, enjoyed high internal consistency with a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .88. In addition, reliability analysis of the subtests of the TCC and their subscales showed a relatively high Cronbach alpha coefficient for the GCS and an acceptable Cronbach coefficient for the LCS, the coefficient values being .87 and .76 respectively. As for the subscales of the two subtests,

with the exception of two subscales (LCFB and GCFB), the other four subscales had a Cronbach alpha coefficient below the acceptable level of .7, with LCMC being much lower: LCMC, .49, LCTR, .63, GCMC, .63, GCSR, .67. However, given that the number of items in each subscale was very small (15) and the Cronbach alpha method for estimating reliability is sensitive to the number of items, with the exception of LCMC subscale, reliability estimates reported for other three subscales can be considered acceptable. Yet, given that the TCC was piloted with a small number of participants, after inspection of the *ID* and *pbi* indices, some items were found to be problematic. These items being excluded, the reliability estimates of the subscales were improved to an acceptable level. However, as it can be seen in Table 8, not much was added to the reliability coefficient of the TCC as a whole and its subtests: the LCS and the GCS.

Table 7 Cronbach alpha coefficients of the TCC and the subtests with some items excluded

TCC	LCS	LCMC	LCFB	LCTR	GCS	GCMC	GCFB	GCSR
0.89	0.8	0.63	0.74	0.74	0.87	0.71	0.76	0.7

The Cronbach alpha coefficient of the TCC was .88 before excluding some items for reliability analysis and after removing the problematic items, it increased to 0.89 which is not considerable. The reliability coefficient value for the LCS before leaving out some items was .76 which increased to .80 and for the GCS there was no increase in the value after removing the problematic items. Given that the problematic items didn't have any contribution to the reliability and validity of the TCC and that with the problematic items removed, the test as a whole can still enjoy high internal consistency, the problematic items can be left out altogether. In other words, the TCC with 76 items can still be used as a reliable measure of the Iranian EFL learners' knowledge of English collocations. However, these same problematic items can be replaced by other items and piloted with larger samples to increase its reliability to a still higher value.

Going through the *IF*, *ID* and *pbi* values reported for the three different test formats used in the TCC subtests, we can observe that the best test format for measuring collocational knowledge seems to be the one with Fill-in-the-blanks item types in both subtests. The mean *IF*, *ID* and *pbi* values for LCFB and GCFB are .51, .5, .34, .55, .5 and .47 respectively indicating that Fill-in-the-blanks test format among the three formats used in this study. This is further supported by the reliability values reported for these two subscales in Table 1 being

.73 for LCFB and .75 for GCFB. Furthermore, looking through the problematic items which were removed from the TCC for factor analysis, only one item was found to be problematic in two subscales and that was item 20 in the GCFB and even for this item the problem was reported to be with its *ID* and it was mainly because of the fact that its *IF* value was .87 being very high. To account for this, we may say that since for this item type the learners were required to produce the missing constituents and the first two letters of the missing elements were provided, this left them with little possibility of guessing. Therefore, only those who really knew the collocation in question would be able to give the correct answer corresponding test item. The multiple-choice test format proved to be the easiest one in both LCS and GCS. This goes well with both intuition and the trend in the literature that recognition items in general are much easier than production items. The third test format used in this study was found to be the most difficult one in both subtests of the TCC. This may be due to further processing burden that this type of item may impose on the test taker. That further processing burden may be said the focus of the test taker on the L1 equivalent of the collocation in question. In the fill-in-the-blanks item types which were just discussed the test taker may just have to check the missing constituent with the context provided with particular attention to the constituent provided in bold type as well as the first two letters of the missing element while in translation item types in addition to all these except for the first two letters of the missing word, the test taker has to further compare the collocation in question with its equivalent in L1.

All in all, we may suggest that the multiple-choice item types for measuring collocational knowledge can best be used with learners of lower proficiency since they are much easier than the other two test formats while the second and the third test formats may best be used with learners of intermediate and advanced proficiency levels.

As for the factor structure and construct validity of the TCC, the results revealed that collocation may be regarded as a construct. The results are consistent with an earlier finding by Bonk (2001) who reported preliminary evidence for the construct validity of a collocations test he developed. However, there was one thing odd in the findings and that was the loading of one of the lexical collocations test formats on the same factor on which structure and vocabulary variables loaded. One reason for this may be due to the fact that this subscale of LCS was not a reliable measure on its own and as it was mentioned earlier it had the lowest reliability compared to the other subscales. Even with the exclusion from the LCMC of the problematic items, it still had the lowest reliability estimate of .63 (see Table 8) suggesting that being too easy it couldn't account for the true variance and that there was too much error

variance involved. So it may have wrongly loaded on the factor which is believed to be involving general English proficiency of which structure and vocabulary are two components. This subscale also had the least mean (*pbi*) value among the other five subscales (0.18) meaning that the items in the subscale didn't have much shared variance.

The findings confirm previous evidence provided by Bonk (2001) about the construct validity of the collocations test he developed. In addition, the findings provide support for Hill's (1999) proposal that we need to add collocation as an extension to Hyme's conception of communicative competence and for Celce-Murcia's (2007) revised model of communicative competence which includes formulaic competence (another term for collocational competence) as one of its main components. The obtained results can also be said to provide support for Halliday's (1966) argument in his 'Lexis as a linguistic level' for considering lexis as an independent level of analysis in parallel with grammatical analysis and Firth's (1957a, cited in Halliday, 1966) recognition of 'collocational level'. Sinclair's (1991) distinction between the open choice principle and the idiom principle can be said to find support in this study.

Conclusion

According to recent developments in linguistic theory, language knowledge is more of an idiomatic nature than it was thought in the past. The phenomenon of collocation is thought to best reflect this idiomatic nature. Being pervasive and ubiquitous, collocations may reflect an underlying psycholinguistic reality. To provide empirical evidence for this view, following a systematic procedure, the TCC was developed and its test characteristics including reliability and validity were investigated. The results of the study provided some preliminary empirical evidence for the psycholinguistic reality underlying the EFL learners' knowledge of collocations, hence, collocational knowledge being a construct. Given the findings of this study, our conception of language proficiency has to be reconsidered and revised. Accordingly, we need to reconsider our language teaching practices incorporating collocations into our teaching and learning as well as testing resources.

The findings of this study have implications for both SLA researchers and EFL practitioners in the context of language teaching and testing. Given the ubiquity and pervasiveness of collocations, SLA researchers can conduct studies to investigate how EFL learners develop, process and use collocations and how L2 acquisition, processing and use of

collocations is similar to or different from those of L1 and thus applied to actual practice of L2 education.

EFL practitioners can help their learners develop collocational knowledge by raising their awareness of the collocations and phraseological aspect of language which can lead to more fluency and naturalness in production. They can also include collocation tasks and items in their tests when assessing their learners' achievement. Also, syllabus designers and materials writers should incorporate collocation into the syllabi and materials they develop. Developers of the internationally administered tests such as TOEFL and IELTS also should consider including collocation in the tests they develop.

To conclude, since the study of collocation is still at its infancy, more studies need to be conducted to delve into the nature of this phenomenon in order to provide more insight for a more comprehensive understanding of collocational knowledge and how this understanding can help us better understand the nature of language.

References

Altenberg, B.(1993). Recurrent verb-complement constructions in the London-Lund Corpus. In J. Aarts, P. Haan and N. Oostdijk (eds.). *Englishlanguage corpora: Design, analysis and exploitation. Papers from theThirteenth International Conference on EnglishLanguage Research onComputerized Corpora, Nijmegen 1992*, 227–245. Amsterdam:Rodopi.

Al-Zahrani, M. S. (1998). *Knowledge of English lexical collocations among male Saudi college students majoring in English at a Saudi university*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, Pennsylvania.

Bahns, J. (1993). Lexical collocations: A contrastive view. *ELT Journal 47*, 1, 56-63.

Bahns, J. & Eldaw, M. (1993). Should we teach EFL students collocations? *System*, 21,1, 101-114.

Barfield, A. (2003). *Collocation recognition and production: Research insights*. Tokyo: Chuo University.

Bartlett, M. S. (1954). A note on the multiplying factors for various chi square approximations. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, 16* (Series B), 296–298.

Benson, M., Benson, E., and Ilson, R. (eds.). (1997). *The BBI Dictionary of Englishword combinations*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing

Company.

Benson, M., Benson, E., and Ilson, R. (1986a).*The BBI combinatory dictionary of English: A guide to word combinations.* John Benjamins publishing company.

Biskup, D. (1992). L1 influence on learners' renderings of English collocations. A Polish/German empirical study. In P. Arnaud & H. Béjoint (Eds.), *Vocabulary and applied linguistics*. London: Macmillan, pp. 85-93.

Bolinger, D. (1976). Meaning and memory.*Forum Linguisticum 1*, 1-14.

Bonk, W.J. (2001). Testing ESL learners' knowledge of collocations. In T.Hudson & J.D. Brown (Eds.), *A focus on language test development: expanding the language Proficiency construct across a variety of tests. (Technical Report #21).*Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, Second LanguageTeaching and Curriculum Center, pp. 113-142.

Cantos, P. and Sánchez, A. (2001). Lexical constellations: What collocates fail to tell. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics 6* (2), 199–228.

Catell, R. B. (1966). The scree test for number of factors.*Multivariate Behavioral Research, 1*, 245–276.

Celce-Murcia, M. (2007). Rethinking the role of communicative competence in language teaching. In: E. Alcón Soler and M.P. Safont Jordà (eds.), *Intercultural Language Use and Language Learning*, 41–57. Dordrecht: Springer.

Chapelle, C. (1998) Construct definition and validity inquiry in SLA research. In L. F. Bachman & A. D. Cohen (Eds.), *Second language acquisition and language testing interfaces,* (pp. 32-70). Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Corpas Pastor, G. (1996).*Manual de fraseología española*. Madrid: Gredos.

Crowther, J., Dignen, Sh., & Kea, D. (eds.) (2002).*Oxford collocations dictionary forstudents of English*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Erman, B. and Warren, B. 2000.The idiom principle and the open-choiceprinciple. *Text 20*, 29-62.

Farghal, M. & Obiedat, H. (1995). Collocations: A neglected variable in EFL. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, *33*, 4, 315-331.

Firth, J. R. (1957).Modes of meaning. In J. R. Firth, *Papers in linguistics* 1934 – 1951 (pp. 190-215). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Firth, J. R. (1957a). 'A synopsis of linguistic theory', in J. R. Firth et al. (eds.), *Studies in linguistic analysis*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Foster, P. (2001). Rules and routines: a consideration of their role in the task- based language

production of native and non-native speakers. In Bygate, M.Skehan, P. and Swain, M.,
(eds.), *Language tasks: teaching, learning and testing*. London: Longman.

Gitsaki, C. (2002). *Second language lexical acquisition: A study of the development of
collocationalknowledge.* Maryland: International Scholars
Publications.

Gyllstad, H. (2007). Testing English collocations: Developing receptive testsfor use
with advanced Swedish learners. PhD dissertation, LundUniversity.

Gyllstad, H. (2005). Words that go together well: Developing test formats formeasuring
learner knowledge of English collocations. In F. Heinat, andE.Klingvall, (Eds.).*The
department of English in Lund: Working papers in linguistics*. 5, pp. 1-31.
Retrieved from http://www.sol.lu.se/engelska/dokument/wp/vol05/gyllstad-wp-05.pdf

Halliday, M.A.K. (1966). Lexis as a linguistic level. In Bazell, J. C. Catford,
M.A.K.Halliday, R.H., Robins (Eds.).*Memory of J.R. Firth.* (pp.148-162).
New York: Longman.

Hatch, E., & Lazaraton, A. (1991).*The research manual: Design and statistics for
applied linguistics.* New York: Newbury House.

Hausmann, F. (1989).Le dictionnaire de collocations. In F. Hausmann, H.Wiegand &
L. Zgusta (Eds.), *Wörterbücher, Dictionaries, Dictionnaries. Eininternationals
Handbuch zur Lexikographie*. Berlin: de Gruyter, pp. 1010-1019.

Hill, J. (1999). Collocational competence.*English Teaching Professional,* 11, pp.3 - 6.

Howarth, P. (1998). Phraseology and second language proficiency.*Applied
Linguistics*, *19* (1), 24-44.

Hymes, D. (l972). On communicative competence. In: Pride J. B., Holmes J(Eds.).
Sociolinguistics: Selected Readings. Penguin, Harmondsworth, pp 269–293.

Kaiser, H. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity.*Psychometrika*, 39, 31–36.

Mel'cuk, I. (1998). Collocations and lexical functions.In Cowie, A.P. *Phraseology:
theory, analysis and applications* (pp. 23-53). Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Keshavarz, M. H. & Salimi, H. (2007). Collocational competence and cloze test
performance: A study of Iranian EFL learners. *International Journal of
Applied Linguistics, 17*, 1, 81-92.

Mochizuki, M. (2002). Exploration of two aspects of vocabulary knowledge:
Paradigmatic and collocational.*Annual Review of English Language Education
in Japan*, 13, 121-129.

Nattinger, J., & DeCarrico, J. (1992).*Lexical phrases and language teaching*.Oxford: Oxford

University Press.

Pawley, A., & Syder, F. H. (1983). Two puzzles for linguistic theory native-like selection and native-like fluency. In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication* (pp. 191–230). London: Longman.

Peters, A. (1983).*The units of language acquisition*. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

Schmitt, N. (ed.). (2004). *Formulaic sequences*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Schmitt, N. (1998). Measuring collocational knowledge: Key issues and an experimental assessment procedure. *I.T.L. Review of Applied Linguistics 119*, 27-47.

Schmitt, N., & Underwood, G. (2004). Exploring the processing of formulaic sequences through a self-paced reading task. In N. Schmitt (Ed.),*Formulaicsequences: Acquisition, processing and use* (pp. 173-189). Amsterdam: JohnBenjamins Publishing Company.

Sinclair, J. (1991). *Corpus, concordance, collocation*. Oxford: OUP.

Stubbs, M. (2001).*Words and phrases: Corpus studies of lexical semantics*. Oxford and Massachusetts: Blackwell.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001).*Using multivariate statistics* (4th ed.). New York: HarperCollins.

Weinert, R. (1995). The role of formulaic language in second languageacquisition: A review. *Applied Linguistics, 16*, 180-205.

Wiktorsson, M. 2003. *Learning Idiomaticity: A Corpus-based study of idiomatic expressions in learners' written production*. Stockholm: Almqvist & Wiksell International.

Widdowson, H.G. (1989). Knowledge of language and ability for use. *Applied Linguistics, 10*(2), 128-37.

Wray, A. (2002). *Formulaic language and the lexicon*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Web Source

The Oxford 3000 wordlist.

http://www.oup.com/elt/catalogue/teachersites/oald7/oxford_3000/oxford_3000_list?

Title

Gender Delineation in High school and Pre-university ELT Textbooks: A Criterion-oriented Approach to Text Analysis

Authors

Azar Hosseini Fatemi (Ph.D.)
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad Iran

Reza Pishghadam (Ph.D.)
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad,Mashhad Iran

Zahra Heidarian (M.A.)
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad,Mashhad Iran

Bio data

Azar Hosseini Fatemi, is assistant professor, Department of English, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran. Her areas of interest include issues in second language teaching and learning.

Reza Pishghadam, is associate professor in TEFL, Department of English, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran. His main research interests are: Language testing, First language acquisition, and Sociolinguistics.

Zahra Heidarian, M.A. in TESL from Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran. Her primary research interests concern second language acquisition, SL/FL language teaching methodology, psycholinguistics, and sociolinguistics.

Abstract

The main concern of this study is to identify patterns of inequity in instructional materials. The article addresses "Gender imbalance and gender stereotyping in high school and pre-university English textbooks following Rifkin's model. The study was set in a qualitative paradigm based on criterion-driven studies; using feminist's approaches as the underlying theory, however; to enrich the findings both quantitative and qualitative techniques were utilized for data collection and analysis. Descriptive and chi-square statistics were used to analyze data quantitatively, and content analysis was used to analyze the representation of both sexes qualitatively in four English textbooks. The analysis of verbal and pictorial parts showed great imbalance in the representation of males and females in the sense that these books were biased towards males. The overall portrayal of women in the textbooks was low

and their subordinated status confirmed the traditional view of gender stereotyping. Overall, these books fairly failed to reflect the wide range of roles played by woman both in Iranian culture and target language culture.

Introduction

Gender bias is taught implicitly through the resources chosen for classroom use. Using texts that omit contributions of women, that tokenize the experiences of women, or that stereotype gender roles, further compounds gender bias in school curriculums. While research shows that the use of gender-equitable materials allows students to have more gender-balanced knowledge, to develop more flexible attitudes towards gender roles, and to imitate role behaviors contained in the materials (Klein, 1985), Iranian schools continue to use gender-based texts.(Biglar, 2009)

Waves of feminism

Feminism as a movement wasn't always in a form, it always moves between unity and difference; "We can read the history of feminist movement in terms of a tension between unity and difference" (Scott, 1996, p.10). This tension occurred between the early 20th century movement as unified and the late 20th century as diversified movements. (Hodgson, cited in Gamble, 2001, Thompson, 2001)

 The first wave: refers to the movement of the 19th through early 20th centuries, which dealt mainly with suffrage. The first wave emerged in decade 60th after the French revolution by Mary Wollstone Craft in her "Vindication of the rights of women". (Sanders, cited in Gamble, 2001)

The second wave:calledthe political second wave was a reaction to the personal first wave, (Thornham, cited in Gamble, 2001). It started (decade 70-80s) in Britain withSimone de Beauvoir who wrote in her work,' The second sex': "one isn't born, but rather becomes a woman" (Thornham, cited in Gamble 2001 pp. 28, 29). Her theory of gender as social not a biological construction formed the foundation of second wave feminism.(Thornham, cited in Gamble, 2001 & Gamble, 2001)

 The second wave dealt mainly with the inequality of laws,cultural inequalities, women participation in the society and the suffrage for women. In America two different movements

were active in those days: Betty Friedan's NOW (National Organization for Women) and the "Women's Liberation Movement" which sought equality and participation in society for women. (Thornham, cited in Gamble, 2001& Genz & Brabon, 2009)

The third wave or post feminismis a term that is very much in vogue these days. Gamble (2001) argued:

> In the context of popular culture it's the Spice Girls, Madonna and the Girlie Show: women dressing like bimbos, yet claiming male privileges and attitudes. It tends to crystallize around issues of victimization, autonomy, and responsibility. It is a kind of liberal humanism which embraces a flexible ideology which can be adapted to suit individual needs. Post feminism seeks to develop an agenda which can find a place for men as lovers, husbands, fathers and friends(Gamble, 2006 p.36).

Feminism and many feminist's views have been considered important these days. Nowadays in post feminism or post modernism era the emphasis on differences and divergent views are acceptable. The development of feminism has been so much that many movements, books and articles are influenced and have influence on it. The mutual influences of feminism are observable in literature, philosophy, religion, film, culture, religion and language.

Language and society

Feminists believe that language and society reflect one another; hence concern about the use of sexist language is part of their increased awareness about the role that it may play in gender discrimination. They as McCant (1999) perceived that:

> Patriarchy is a social structure built on the dominator model of social organization; andocentric language supports the patriarchal structures. If language shapes as well as reflects culture, inclusive language will dismantle the myth of male superiority, without which patriarchy can't survive (Mc Cant, 1999, p.116).

Fairclough (1999) discussed the relationship between discourse and social practices as follows:

> Discourse figures in broadly three ways in social practices. First, it figures as a part of the social activity within a practice. Second, discourse figures in representations. Third, discourse figures in ways of being, in the constitution of identities - for instance the identity of a political leader such as Tony Blair in the UK is partly a semiotically constituted way of being (p.2).

However, Sipmpson (1993) believed that the relationship between the language and gender is not that much straight forward. He believed that sexism is either inherent in the language the use ofwhichtriggers inequality or encoded in the language by speakers of that language. In this way it is the language which confirms and reinforces inequality in the society. In her

view, changing the lexicon doesn't remove sexual bias from society; instead determinism must be replaced with a more functional view of the language. In other words the codes aren't significant, the way of their use is important.In this view which is more compatible with the weaker form of Sapir-Whorfian hypothesis, language and society both affect and are affected by each other but neither of them determines the other.

Gender and ESL context

Shehadeh (1999) discussed that in the field of second language learning and teaching various factors, external and internal, affect language learning. These include the role of the first language and instruction, differences in setting, age, gender, and individual learner differences. These factors should be examined in order to specify the nature of the input which best suits L2 learners 'comprehension, and the nature of the output which they produce at a particular stage of their learning. In order to specify more the role of gender in second language learning and teaching he argued:

> There is fairly consistent evidence from NS/NS, NS/NNS, and NNS/NNS cross-gender conversations to suggest that men and women seem to play different roles in conversation with regard to the negotiation of meaning, dominance, interpersonal relations, amount of talk, leading the conversation, interlanguage modifications, and opportunities for comprehensible input and comprehensible output. It is not yet clear whether these apparent differences are innate/biological or socio- cultural. Nor is it clear at this stage how much these differences affect classroom situations, progress, and final achievement in the L2.However, the available evidence shows that in mixed-sex tasks men appear to take greater advantage than females of opportunities to communicate, promote their productive skills, and progress in the L2 (Shehadeh, 1999, p.260).

He suggested that the ESL/EFL teacher, be equipped with a good syllabus and a good methodology, and be able to engineer situations that create and provide equal opportunities for both males and females in all aspects of classroom interaction.

Language and gender in the classroom

Freeman and McElhinny (cited in McKay& Hornberger, 1996) argued that schools as the social institutions can reinforce the stereotypical role of men and women through curricular choices and classroom organizations. She stated that inequities based on gender, race, ethnicity, language background, age, sexuality… can be challenged and transformed by thoughtful selection of materials which represent gender equally, giving equal opportunities to both genders for achievement, and encouraging students to analyze their use of language critically.

Swan (1993) suggests that challenging the traditional roles of men and women and changing the curriculum content with alternative images isn't sufficient. She believed that teachers should encourage students to discuss the traditional and alternative images and criticize reading materials with respect to women's and men's roles, and their representation in them.

Others such as Sadker and Sadker (1993) and Tannen (1994) also argue that boys are more advantaged in traditional competitive classes while girls are more advantaged in post modern collaborative classes.

However; other findings prove women and men interaction in different groups are not defined according to their gender and other factors such as race, ethnicity, participation framework, and activity type also can be influential.

It must be noticed that especially in teacher fronted classes the amount of interaction by girls and boys can be defined by the teacher, because he/she is the one who defines student's roles and can change the dynamics in the classroom, (Freeman & McElhinny, cited in McKay& Hornberger, 1996).

Research in gender delineation in ELT textbooks

Kelly (2002) examined the expansion of women's primary, secondary and higher education enrollments worldwide in the post-war period and asked if that expansion led to equality of access, process, outcome and output with males. While equality of access to education had been achieved in a number of countries, even to higher education, women didn't receive the same quality and kind of education as did men. As educational opportunity expanded for women, greater differentiation between male and female schooling appeared to occur. The article also looked at the labor force and political outcomes of women's education and asked if they had changed as a result of changed women's educational opportunity. While women's educational enrollments had expanded, there had been few changes in women's participation in the labor force; in fact in Third World countries there has been erosion in female employment. Women's income relative to men's has remained stagnant and in many countries changes in women's educational levels have been accompanied by progressive political disenfranchisement.

Ansary and Babaii (2003) explored the status of sexism in current ELT textbooks of *Right path to English 1&2* taught in Iran. They did both a quantitative analysis on sex visibility and topic representation and a qualitative analysis on occupation, activity types, stereotypes, firstness, and masculine generic construction, and understood that these books are sexist toward males.

Dominguez (2003) conducted a research on *New Interchange Intro* to discuss how men and women are represented in this book. He analyzed the book in terms of word level, male and female characters, occupational roles, amount of talk and male and female illustrations, and concluded that this book is not biased toward any of the sexes.

Harashima (2005) conducted a quantitative analysis of one unit of an English textbook published in Japan based on Porreca's: omission, firstness, occupation, nouns, masculine generic constructions, adjectives and illustrations to understand if there is any trace of sexual bias in this book. He found that not only it has great degrees of bias toward males but also contains cultural bias against people with less dominant cultures, culturally non-valued physical features and people with less money. He, therefore, recommended to use non sexual and non cultural biased textbooks.

Biglar (2009) in his essay argued that Iran with the world's youngest population needs to pay utmost attention to the content of textbooks instructed at primary and secondary levels due to the fact that in many parts of Iran, except for some affluent parts of the capital, the only reference books for the teachers and students are the textbooks. If these textbooks contain gender-bias reflected in their language and illustrations especially at lower levels of education, this invaluable human resource for sustainable development of Iran as a developing country can be affected by the pictures of gender stereotypes and biases generated through these textbooks. In this article, it is argued that due to the religious and social context of Iran there is still utmost emphasis on the social theory of men and women differences. This social role theory in Iran together with cultural values leaves no room for other versions of feminities and masculinities to be expressed in the social sphere of Iranian society.

These studies show the studies done to examine the role of women in the societies and some to examine it in educational context or textbooks. But none has examined women representation in high school English textbooks in Iran.

Purpose of the study

Gender justice includes three basic dimensions: gender equality, respect for difference, and free choice (Colclough, 2004). In reality, schools construct and reproduce the gender injustice of the social culture through multiple dimensions that include the visible and the invisible curriculum, and the teacher's behavior (Desheng, 2009). So, this study tries to examine gender representation in English high school books and the English pre-university textbook of Iranian schools to examine the degree to which these instructional materials reflect wide range

of roles played by women in Iranian culture in their reading parts. In examining these books, the inclusion or exclusion of women from these instructional materials, as well as the degree to which women's role are depicted as equal, subordinated, distorted, or degraded to men's roles will be examined according to the strictly defined criteria in Rifkin's case study in Russia.

Method

Instrumentation

The checklist used in this study is Rifkin's (1998) criteria presented in his research on the basis of his own investigations.

Rifkin's checklist is divided in two parts:

Pictorial part:

1. Presence or absence, 2.Foregrounding or backgrounding, 3.Children or adult form, 4.Motion or stasis, 5.Caption or unnamed. 6. Professional or domestic setting, 7. Captioned in title or not

Verbal part

8. Named or ambiguous, 9.References to characters, 10. Respectfully named or not, 11.Pronouns, 12.Subjects, objects, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, 13.Unique verbs, adjectives and adverbs, 14.Precedence, 15.Domestic or professional role, 16. Occupations, 17.Famous characters, 18. Brunt of joke, 19. Authors

In addition to this checklist, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs used for females and males also will be considered.

Procedure

The general procedure in this study is divided into two main phases:

Phase 1: Quantitative Phase

Based on the criteria established by Rifkin (1998), the pictorial and verbal parts of high school and pre-university English textbooks were examined to decide whether the books under study provide an equitable delineation of both sexes. For quantitative analysis chi-square and descriptive statistics were used to evaluate the relative frequency of criteria related to pictorial and verbal parts of each book. In this study, two nominal variables: gender, with two levels (male and female), and textbooks with two levels (pictorial and verbal) have been examined.

Phase 2: Qualitative Phase

For qualitative analysis again descriptive statistics was used along with content analysis.

Results

In the quantitative phase in both the pictorial and verbal, all instances in which males and females were depicted in any role were included in the corpus. Considering frequency counts and percentages of each criterion cited above, quantitative analysis was done to measure the amount of male bias in four textbooks.

Quantitative phase: pictorial parts

Table 1: **Frequency counts and percentages of each criterion in four books**

Pictorial part				
	F		M	
Q	F	%	f	%
total 1	9	16.07	47	83.93
f)2	7	15.22	39	84.78
b)	2	20.00	8	80.00
ch)	1	9.09	10	90.91
m)3	3	11.11	24	88.89
s)	6	20.69	23	79.31
n)	2	40.00	3	60.00
p)	0	0.00	6	100.00
d)	2	66.67	1	33.33
c)	2	22.22	7	77.78
f: fore-grounded, b: back-grounded, ch: children, m: motion, s: stasis, n: named in a caption, p: professional, d: domestic, c: captions identify individuals				

Table 1 provides a portrait of gender depiction in the pictorial parts of the four books. The ratio of the presence of men to women is 9 to 47 which is nearly one fifth of the men. The ratio of fore grounded characters to the total characters is nearly the same for both genders, but surprisingly the percentage of back-grounded male characters and male children are more than female characters. Moreover; just 3 out of these 9 women are in motion and the remained 6 are in stasis, although the number of men presented in motion and stasis is nearly the same, the frequency of their representation is more than women.

The depressing point to be mentioned is the frequency of each gender in professional or domestic setting. In contrary to 6 men depicted in professional setting no woman is depicted in the same setting, and they are just portrayed in domestic roles.

Other depressing points to be mentioned are the frequencies of each gender in the "named in a caption" and "captions identify individuals" criteria which again proves inequality. Raw frequencies of men in these criteria are 3 and 7 and for women they are 2 and 2 respectively. The question we need to ask is whether the differences in observed frequencies and expected frequencies for both genders are large enough to conclude that they are truly different and the textbooks are characterized by gender inequalities. To do this chi-square test procedure was used to test the first null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference in the frequency of use of pictures between male and female in four English textbooks.

Table 2: Chi-square values in the pictorial parts of four books.

books	High school Book 1	High school Book 2	High school Book 3	Pre-university book
Chi-square value	54.08434	7.736842	-	34.12903

(There are no pictures related to passages in high school English book three)

In Table 2 high school English book one has the largest and high school English book two has the lowest value of chi-squares among the four books discussed. No stable progress can be seen through the four books in establishing equality of genders and the value of chi-square in each book is significant in comparison with the critical $x^2=3.84$ value. So the first null hypothesis of no significant difference will be rejected.

The lack of gender equality in high school English books is quite striking as compared with the textbook taught at grade three.

Female characters and references as compared to male characters are 1 to 5 and 1 to 3 respectively. Table 3 shows that women are nearly absent from the books and they aren't considered important. Throughout the four books, women and men are shown in their stereotypical roles without any attention to women's modern and new roles in nowadays societies. Criterion 13 proves this claim as women are the only ones who have domestic setting in all the four books discussed.

Quantitative phase: Verbal parts

Table 3: summary of reports of the detailed results of text analyses

Four English textbooks				
Verbal part				
	F		M	
Q	f	%	f	%
n) 4	11	16.18	57	83.82
r)	48	23.30	158	76.70
cha.)t	5	18.52	22	81.48
First n)5	12	25.53	35	74.47
Diminutive	0	0.00	0	0.00
Respectful	5	16.13	26	83.87
1st) 6	0	0.00	20	100.00
2nd s.)	4	30.77	9	69.23
2nd p.)	0	0.00	0	0.00
7sub.)	47	22.93	158	77.07
8 obj.)	9	21.95	32	78.05
9 u)	0	0.00	1	100.00
v	55	20.91	208	79.09
10 u)	0	0.00	0	0.00
adv.)	0	0.00	6	100.00
11 u)	0	0.00	2	100.00
adj.)	1	3.70	26	96.30
12 f/m or m/f	1	16.67	5	83.33
13 d)	2	100.00	0	0.00
14 p)	1	7.14	13	92.86
15 o)	4	18.18	18	81.82
16 rt)	2	22.22	7	77.78
17 famous	5	8.33	55	91.67
18 j)	0	0.00	3	100.00
Text)	0	0.00	30	100.00
n: named, r: reference, t: total, cha: character, j: joke, rt: reference in title, u: unique				

Even in the number of pronouns men are dominant and no woman in all the four books has a voice to talk about herself. Men are both dominant in first person singular and second person singular pronouns and most of the sentences in these four books are devoted to them.

The great discrepancy is obvious not only in the number of pronouns but also in the number of subjects, objects, adjectives and adverbs. In these criteria men were 5, 3,26,6 times more than women the subjects, objects, adjectives and adverbs respectfully. Even one unique verb and 2 unique adjectives are used for men in contrast to 0 ones for women. Criterion 12 shows that mostly men are precedent and women are fairly ignored (just one out of six times women

are precedent). The percentage of male references to occupations, titles, and famous individuals were 63.64%, 55, 56% and 83.34% more than their female counterparts.

The worst point to be mentioned is the absence of female writers from these four books and the writers' gender can be figured out especially in books one and two. Optimistically great transformation has happened in the four books and prejudice toward one gender isn't that much tangible especially in books three and pre-university.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the frequency of lexical items (verbal part) used for male and female in four English textbooks.

Table 4: chi-square values in four books

Comparative chi-square test statistics verbal parts				
books	High school Book 1	High school Book 2	High school Book 3	Pre-university book
Chi-square value	398.0118	49.22727	28.125	11.57407

Comparing the four values of x^2 computed by means of chi-square statistics were compared. The higher the x2 value, the lower the probability that the levels are the same. As Table 4 displays high school English book one has the highest and pre-university English book has the lowest value of chi-squares among the four books analyzed. In all the four textbooks, the value of x^2 exceeds the critical x^2 value; therefore, the second null hypothesis was also rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis.

Qualitative phase: Pictorial parts

A progressive movement towards establishing equality between both sexes can be recognized especially in verbal parts of the four books, however; the amount of bias in favor of men remained significant throughout the four books.

Comparing the percentages for each criterion, it is concluded that the percentages of both back-grounded male characters and male children are more than female characters. In a sense; this can't be a sign of egalitarianism, because women are nearly absent from the books and their weak presence in these criteria is the result of the subordinate status given to women in context of instructional materials.

Even if; few female characters are presented, most of them are portrayed in stasis which inspires a sense of inactiveness on their part. On the other hand, men are not only dominant in their presence but also active in depicting their characters.

Women in all the four books aren't assigned to any specific professional role. The only named female character is a nun whichis hardly considered as a profession. In addition; the naming of female characters in all the four books is so few to be noticed. On the contrary, the men statuses are highlighted through the four books.

The Pictorial parts of the four books do not show any sign of progress toward egalitarianism, and even male bias is more apparent in pre-university book, and again the first null hypothesis is rejected.

Qualitative phase: Verbal parts

Male bias is observable through the four books in all aspects such as; fore-grounding, being in motion, being named, and having the best kinds of verbs, adjectives, adverbs, occupations, pronouns … On the contrary just one woman has a role in one book and in the other three, a female character has not been given even a name. Moreover; women mostly have weak and secondary roles and their presence is just to help in foregrounding men's roles.

Analyzing the books from different perspectives proved male bias, both quantitatively and qualitatively, and the second null hypothesis was rejected, however; against all these criticisms, progress towards establishing equality can't be ignored.

Discussion

As mentioned earlier, there were two hypotheses in this study. These two hypotheses were statistically analyzed and rejected.The first hypothesis relates to the pictorial part of Rifkin's checklist. The statistical analysis of this part revealed that men outnumbered women in the pictorial parts of Iranian high school and pre-university EFL textbooks.The second hypothesis covered the verbal part of Rifkin's checklist. The statistical analysis revealed that these books show women in their traditional and stereotypical roles or even omit them from any presence.The qualitative analysis of the books showed that the overall representation of women in these textbooks is low and the traditional view of gender stereotyping is confirmed. So, both the qualitative and qualitative analyses were compatible with each other and proved male bias.

No single policy exists for achieving gender equality in education, but there are many reforms which help inachieving the goal more quickly. The challenge for countries is to look at every policy to recognize the multiple connections between the education of parents and their children. Both women's and men's interests need to be explicitly considered in the design of all legislation, policy and programs in which the state has a critical role to play. The government can help in creating an enabling environment for promoting gender equality in education through legislative, policy reform, redistribution, targeting resources for female education, introducing special measures to reduce inequities,and making schools better places of learning for both girls and boys through positive curricula changes, teachers' skills and attitudes, safety and improved facilities. The main requirement is to bring the necessary political commitment, expertise and resources together in order to achieve the goal. A shift towards the creation of gender equality in education ensures a range of personal, economic and social benefits. It allows women and men to enjoy the rights and freedoms they were deprived of more than fifty years ago.

The analysis of high school and pre-university English textbooks has revealed a clear gender imbalance both in texts and illustrations in favor of males. A greater degree of balance in gender portrayal could be recommended in the Iranian context for at least the following reasons: (a) to accord to boys more prominent roles than girls in the presentation and educational materials goes against principles of gender equity; (b) women in Iran are entering the workforce in increasing numbers – to portray them primarily in mothering and domestic roles is inaccurate; and (c) women in Iran are under-represented or ignored in many textbooks. Textbooks that gave equal prominence to males and females in their presentation might help encourage more females to consider the full range of careers.

So, gender imbalance in education and textbooks is a prominent factor which must be considered in every policy and publications to put justice and improvement in progress. Improvement in material development and justice in gender representation can increase social and individual confidence of women which in itself may result in educational and social development.

Even though no stable progress is observable in the pictorial parts of the four books and even pre-university book has the greatest value of imbalance, chi-squares of verbal texts indicate progress. However, tangible progress in establishing equality and movement toward transformation in writer's attitudes cannot be ignored. The exclusion of women from FL textbooks may seriously impair their abilities to understand the target language and its culture. While this article did not attempt a solution of the problem of gender discrimination, it does

suggest that such a solution cannot be a simple one. The portrayal of women does not match the realities of our society, and their representation no longer fit quite well with the portrait presented in high school English textbooks. Besides, their qualifications do not match the stereotypes. Therefore, one must conclude that their stereotype needs to be broadened for women, or an entirely new stereotype must gain acceptance.

One of the main reasons for men's long desire to keep the status quo and keep women from full equality is their unwillingness to lose their superior social status. Today Iranian women can generally go into any profession they desire, whether it was formerly held sacred to men or not. This fact can be reflected in instructional materials by thoughtful selection of the content of ELT textbooks in the hope that it may remove sexual/gender bias from society.

References

Ansary, H. & Babaii, E. (2003). Subliminal sexism in current Iranian secondary school ELT textbooks. *IJAL, 6*(1), 40-56.

Biglar, A. (2009). Iran's female students and a fresh perspective on masculinity and feminity. http://call-for-papers.sas.upenn.edu/node/33748.

Birjandi, P., Anabi Sarab, M. & Samimi, D. (1388). *English 1&2*. Tehran: Sazman Pajuhesh va Barnamerizi Amuzeshi Vezarat Amuzesh va Parvaresh, Sherkat Chap va Nashre Ketabhaie Darsi Iran.

Birjandi, P., Noruzi, M. & Mahmudi, GH. (1388). *English 1*. Tehran: Sazman Pajuhesh va Barnamerizi Amuzeshi Vezarat Amuzesh va Parvaresh, Sherkat Chap va Nashre Ketabhaie Darsi Iran.

Birjandi, P., Noruzi, M. & Mahmudi, GH. (1388). *English 2*. Tehran: Sazman Pajuhesh va Barnamerizi Amuzeshi Vezarat Amuzesh va Parvaresh, Sherkat Chap va Nashre Ketabhaie Darsi Iran.

Birjandi, P., Noruzi, M. & Mahmudi, GH. (1388). *English 3*. Tehran: Sazman Pajuhesh va Barnamerizi Amuzeshi Vezarat Amuzesh va Parvaresh, Sherkat Chap va Nashre Ketabhaie Darsi Iran.

Colclough, Ch. (2004). Achieving gender equality in education: What does it take?*Prospects, 34*(1), 3-10.

Desheng, G. (2009).Gender justice and school education. *Front. Educ China, 4*(2), 252–267.

Dominguez, L. (2003). Gender textbook evaluation. *CELS*, 1-19.

Fairclough, N. (1999). The dialectics of discourse: discourse and social practices. *International Journal of Science Education, 26*(7), 865–867.

Freeman, R. & Mc Elhinny, B. (1996). Language and Gender. In S. McKay,& N. Hornberger (Eds.). *Sociolinguistics and Language Teaching* (pp. 215-280). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Gamble, S. (2001).*The Routledge companion to feminism and post feminism.*London: Routledge.

Genz, S.,& Brabon, B. (2009). *Post Feminism: Cultural Texts and Theories*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press Ltd.

Harashima, H. (2005). Sexual bias in an EFL textbook: a case study. In K. Bradford-Watts, C. Keguchi, & M. Swanson (Eds.) *JALT2004 Conference Proceedings* (pp. 1005-1011) Tokya: Jalt.

Hodgson, S. (2001). Early Feminism. In S. Gamble (Ed.) *The Routledge companion to feminism and post feminism* (pp. 3-15).London: Routledge.

Kelly, G. (2002). Education and equality: Comparative perspectives on the expansion   of education and women in the post-war period. http://.*inkinghub.elsevier.com*

Klein, S. (1985) *Handbook for achieving sex equity through education.* Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Lloyd, M. (2005).*Beyond identity politics: feminism, power & politics*. London: SAGE Publications.

McCant, J.W. (1999), Inclusive language and the gospel. *Religious Education, 94*(2), 172-186.

McKay, S. & Hornberger, N. (1996).*Sociolinguistics and language teaching*, New York: Cambridge University Press.

Rifkin, B. (1998). Gender representation in foreign language textbooks: A case study of textbooks of Russia. *The Modern Language Journal, 82*(2), 217-236.

Sadker, D.,& Sadker, M. (1994).*Failing at fairness: How our schools cheat girls*. Toronto, ON: Simon & Schuster.

Sanders, V. (2001). First wave of feminism. In S. Gamble (Ed.) *The Routledge companion to feminism and post feminism* (pp. 15-25).London: Routledge.

Scott, J. (1996).*Feminism and History :Oxford Readings in Feminism*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Shehadeh, A. (1999). Gender differences and equal opportunities in the ESL classroom.*ELT Journal,53*(4), 256-261.

Simpson, P. (1993). *Language, ideology, and point of view*. London: Routledge.

Swan, J. (1993). *Girls, boys and language*. Oxford: Basil Blackwel.

Tannen, D. (1994). *Gender and discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press Thornham, S. (2001). Second Wave Feminism. In S. Gamble (Ed.) *TheRoutledge companion to feminism and post feminism* (pp. 25-36).London: Routledge.

Thompson, D. (2001). *Radical feminism today*. California: SAGE Publication.

Thornham, S. (2001). Second Wave Feminism. In S. Gamble (Ed.) *The Routledge companion to feminism and post feminism* (pp. 25-36).London: Routledge.

Title

Recounting and Fine-Tuning Academic Word List for Four Academic Fields

Authors

Iman Alizadeh (M.A.)
Semnan University, Semnan, Iran

Hadi Farjami (Ph.D.)
Semnan University, Semnan, Iran

Bio data

Iman Alizadeh is an EFL instructor at the Department of English Language and Literature, Semnan University, Iran. He holds M.A. in TEFL. He has taught Research, General English and EAP courses. He has published and presented articles at national conferences. His research interests include vocabulary learning, reading comprehension, learners' and teachers' beliefs and CALL.

Hadi Farjami assistant professor at the Department of English Language and Literature, Semnan University, Iran. He has taught EFL, EAP and teacher training courses for 15 years. He has published articles in international and national journals. He has also authored and co-authored EFL textbooks.

Abstract

The Academic Word List (AWL), developed by Coxhead (2000), has two serious practical shortcomings: lack of discipline specificity and lack of sense specificity. The present research aims at both lacks by attempting at1) discipline-specific lists based on the current one 2) comparing the senses of the same words in different disciplines. For the first purpose, 400 feature articles associated with four disciplines, Law, Management, Mathematics, and Physics, were pooledfrom refereed research journals.Next, Using the Find function in Word 2007, the frequency of each of the 570 AWL items was determined. Then, 210 words which were most frequent in each discipline were identified. Thus, there were four discipline-specific sub-lists of 210 rank-ordered words for each discipline.Kruskal-Wallis test andSpearman's rank order correlation weresubsequently used to statistically analyze the data. The findings of the analyses revealed that the frequency-ranking of AWL items in each of these disciplines was significantly different from the current ranking provided by Coxhead (2000). For the second purpose, the senses of the AWLitems were investigated for the four

disciplines. So, each word in the current AWL was given four senses according to the four disciplines. Finally, fined-tuned sub-lists of academic words were included in the current AWL.

Keywords: Academic Word List, ESP, Frequency-Ranking, Vocabulary Teaching.

Introduction

Students and teachers in English for academic purposes (EAP) programs are keenly interested in the lists of words closely related to their courses. Teachers have always been in search of specialized academic words necessary for students to know. Their aim is to use time optimally and to meet students' immediate needs. However, teachers have always had problem deciding which words to teach. Research for the purpose of specifying and hand-picking words for language teaching/learning in academic contexts is not as frequent as research on other areas of vocabulary teaching and learning. However, there has been some theoretically and practically significant corpus research in the areas of ESL/EFL vocabulary. For example, West (1953) developed the famous General Service List (GSL), which contains the most widely used 2000 word families in English, to meet the needs of ESL/EFL learners. This list covers up to 90% of fiction texts, 75% of nonfiction texts, and 76% of the academic texts (Coxhead, 2000).

When learners focus their effort on specific fields of study, another need arises among other things—the need for specifying words specific to those fields. This type of analysis, recently known as lexical frequency profiling (LFP) (Laufer and Nation, 1995), has been useful in clarifying and resolving specific problems of vocabulary acquisition. To meet the vocabulary needs of readers of academic texts a variety of word lists have been compiled. Campion and Elly (1971) and Praninskas (1972), for example, identified frequent words across a range of passages. Lynn (1973) and Ghadessy (1979), moreover, compiled word lists by examining students' annotations and highlights next to words in their textbooks. Xue and Nation (1984) also furnished the University Word List (UWL) by editing and combining these lists.

Maybe the most influential and frequently cited work in this area is done by Coxhead (2000), who compiled a list of 570 word families from a corpus of 3.5 million words of academic journals and textbooks. The thrust of his research, as Coxhead (2000) claims, is that the resulting list, widely known as Academic Word List (AWL), accounts for about 10% of the words in academic texts but only 1.4% of words found in fiction. In other words it is time efficient. In the process of developing his academic word list Coxhead included all the criteria

required for developing a corpus , that is, the representativeness of the text of interest to the researcher, the organization of the corpus , its size and the criteria used for word selection. In his research he answers the questions regarding the frequency and uniformity of items across a wide range of academic materials and the frequency of items in different genres. He also compares AWL with UWL (Xue& Nation, 1984) and investigates the percentage of words that AWL covers. In developing AWL, Coxhead (2000) selected words based on three criteria, namely specialized occurrence, range and frequency. The word families included in AWL are not those included in GSL represented by West (1953). Besides, members in word families had to occur between 10 to 15 times in each of the main sections of the corpus and in subject areas to be included in the in AWL. The members of each word family had to have a frequency of at least 100 in the academic corpus (Coxhead, 2000). As a result, the Academic Word List yields 570 word families that constitute a specialized vocabulary with good coverage of academic texts, regardless of the subject.

The analyses done so far have been on corpora of combined texts from various fields. Moreover, university students may enjoy even more vocabulary support and learning benefit if further analysis is specifically done on passages from particular fields of study. This benefit will be more graphically acknowledged if it is established that items in present lists are not evenly distributed across disciplines.

The current AWL, developed by Coxhead (2000),is really useful, and responds to lots of problems in English for academic purpose (EAP) programs. Although using AWL in material development and vocabulary teaching sounds plausible in principle, the list suffers from some problems and there is still room for its improvement. There are two serious practical shortcomings: lack of sense specificity and lack of discipline specificity. Regarding the first shortcoming one may claim that not all words have the same sense or meaning in different disciplines or in different contexts in the same discipline. To put it more simply, different words may have different meanings and function differently in different courses or in the same course. For example, the word "element" has different meanings in Chemistry and Management and the word "function" has different meanings in different contexts in Physics. Therefore, it's important to specify the senses of the words for different disciplines. The second shortcoming in the current AWL is concerned with the discipline specificity. In the current list, words are indiscriminately ranked based on a broad-based corpus of texts from a wide range of academic fields. Therefore, for different disciplines, there may be AWL words which are not as frequent as they are ranked in the list and there may be even items which deserve higher frequency rankings. There is also the likelihood that there are frequent items in

some disciplines which are not covered by the current AWL inventory of words. Although it is a research-worthy endeavor, this study doesnot deal with items which may be frequent in some fields but are excluded from AWL. The present research mainly targeted the second shortcoming by attemptingat discipline-specific lists based on the current one. It empirically investigated whether the frequency rankings of the afore-mentioned 570 words for four disciplines, namely Law, Management, Mathematics, and Physics were significantly different from their rankings in the current AWL. It also specified a sub-list of 210 highest frequency items for each of the four target disciplines which revealed a significantly different ranking from AWL ranking. The reason that 210 items were chosen was the number of words which can be conveniently and effectively dealt with in a typical one-semester EAP/ESP coursewith a vocabulary-learning component.

Purpose of the study

As it was mentioned, the purpose of the study was to recount and fine-tune the current AWL for four disciplines, namely Law, Management, Mathematics, and Physics and to see whether there were significant differences between the rankings based on the four samples and that of the current AWL established by Coxhead. Another purpose of the study was to specify the senses of the AWLitems in different disciplines. To achieve the above-mentioned purposes, the following questions were formulated:

Question 1:
Does recounting existing academic word list for the four disciplines of Law, Management, Mathematics, and Physics lead to different frequency-rankings of words than Coxhead's (2000) academic word list?
Question 2:
Do different AWL words have different senses for different disciplines and/or in the same discipline?

Method

In order to add the representativeness and balance of the research, four academic disciplines with apparently differing discourses were chosen. These areas were also chosen because the researcher had access to informed people in them to help him with discipline-related uncertainties. For the first purpose of the study, 400 articles were pooled from different

refereed research journals which were associated with the four disciplines so that there were 4 sets, 100 articles each. From each set, 25 articles were randomly selected. In compiling journal lists and article access, the consultation and help from experts in each of the fields were sought. The list of the journals is given in appendix G. Next, the AWL was extracted from Coxhead (2000) article in TESOL Quarterly, "A New Academic Word List". Using the Find function in the Office Suit 2007, the frequency of each of 570 AWL items was determined for each discipline. In the counting process, all the words in different parts of the article - topic, body, tables, graphs, references and appendices were considered. AWL words in each discipline were ranked for frequency and discipline-specific lists of the most frequent 210 academic words for each discipline were compiled in frequency order. For the second purpose of the study, the sense or senses of different items in the AWL developed by Coxhead were checked for the four disciplines in different general and specialized dictionaries for each discipline.

Word list organization

The resulting word list was organized for the four disciplines. To do so,after determining the frequency of the AWL items for each of the discipline, the frequency-ranking of the items was also separately listed for each of the four disciplines in a table. As a result, we had a table of four lists of items for each of the four disciplines. Subsequently, to facilitate the process of analysis, a separate table was specified to each of the disciplines. So, we had four tables for four disciplines including the current AWL items developed by Coxhead (2000) , the frequency-ranking of the current AWL items, the frequency of items in a particular discipline and the frequency-ranking of the items in that particular discipline.

Findings

Word frequency analysis

After organizing the AWL items developed by Coxhead (2000) in different tables, the frequency of each item was counted for the four disciplines by the Find function of Office 2007.After counting the items, they were ranked in frequency order. The frequency of the first 10 words in the AWL by Coxhead (2000) , 10 words of highest frequency for each discipline along with their frequency (the numbers in front of each item), and the descriptive statistics related to the frequency counting are given in tables 1 , 2 and 3 respectively. For the

frequency of all items and the 210 most frequent items in the four disciplines see Appendices
A, B, C and D.

Table 1The frequency of the first 10 items in AWL

Coxhead	law	Physics	Math	Management
Analyze	18.0	2.0	6.0	5.0
Approach	171.0	63.0	36.0	161.0
Area	78.0	4.0	19.0	91.0
Assess	33.0	0.0	0.0	27.0
Assume	39.0	90.0	93.0	16.0
Authority	124.0	0.0	0.0	4.0
Available	142.0	11.0	17.0	62.0
Benefit	65.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Concept	375.0	1.0	16.0	44.0
Consist	93.0	1.0	2.0	0.0

Table 2 10 words of highest frequency in the four disciplines in descending order

Coxhead	Math		Management		Physics		Law	
Analyze	Function	333	Research	444	Function	380	Legal	1117
Approach	Positive	222	Data	179	Parameter	256	Ratio	588
Area	Method	161	Construct	164	Formula	180	Data	375
Assess	Hence 136		Positive	163	Series	157	Concept	375
Assume	Rational	130	Approach	161	Obtain	142	Principle	368
Authority	Constant	126	Process	157	Structure	117	Theory	320
Available	Obtain1	25	Theory	155	Complex	105	Contract	306
Benefit	Assume	93	Survey	139	Section	103	Commit	277
Concept	Complex	81	Income	122	Process	98	Individual	271
Consist	Norm	81	Network	105	Constant	81	Commission 271	

Table 3 Descriptive statistics for the frequency counting

Variable	N	Minimum f	Maximum f	Mean	Std. Deviation
Management	570	.00	444.00	12.5965	30.25809
Math	570	.00	333.00	7.6561	24.24663
Physics	570	.00	380.00	7.1281	26.74299
Law	570	.00	1117.00	43.6947	77.09897

After collecting the data, in order to see if there were significant differences between the rankings of the four disciplines and that of the current academic word list, Kruskal-Wallis test was used. It was utilized to find the mean rank of the AWL items in different disciplines. The mean rank of 10 items for each discipline is given in table 4 below. For the mean ranks of all items in the four disciplines see Appendix E.

Table 4 Mean ranks of 10 items in AWL in the four disciplines

Disciplines Item	N	Mean rank Coxhead	Mean Rank Law	Mean Rank Management	Mean Rank Math	Mean Rank Physics
Analyze	1	570	274.00	346.50	445.00	418.00
Approach	1	569	543.00	565.00	538.50	553.00
Area	1	568	487.50	556.00	514.50	457.00
Assess	1	567	361.50	501.00	152.00	178.00
Assume	1	566	385.50	454.50	563.00	561.00
Authority	1	565	532.00	324.50	152.00	178.00
Available	1	564	537.50	543.50	508.00	503.00
Benefit	1	563	465.00	89.00	152.00	178.00
Concept	1	562	566.50	528.00	504.00	377.50
Consist	1	561	507.50	89.00	377.00	377.50

Table 4 shows the mean ranks of AWL items in Law, Management, Physics, and Math according to the ranking of this study and that of Coxhead (2000). In the table above, the word with the mean rank of 570 in the AWL items developed by Coxhead (2000) is the highest in ranking and the other numbers show the lower ranks respectively. As can be seen, the word with the highest mean in ranking in the AWL suggested by Coxhead (2000) has the

mean rank of 274 in Law, 346.50 in management, 445 in math and 418 in physics. The table also indicates that different items in different disciplines have different mean ranks and in some cases the difference is very large.

After determining the mean rank of each item in different disciplines, their correlation with the AWL developed by Coxhead (2000) was calculated. To this aim, the Spearman's rank order correlation was utilized. The rank order correlations between the items in different disciplines and the AWL items developed by Coxhead (2000) were significant. That is, the ranking proposed by Coxhead (2000) was not the same for the for disciplines. The following table shows the results of spearman's rank order correlations.

Table 5 Spearman's rank order correlations for the four disciplines

Coxhead	N	Correlation coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Law	570	.546[**]	.000
Management	570	.439[**]	.000
Physics	570	.301[**]	.000
Math	570	.232[**]	.000

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

Word Sense Specification

To specify the sense of different words in different disciplines or to specify the different senses of the same word in the same discipline and disciplines closely related to it, the items developed by Coxhead (2000) were listed in four tables, one for each of the four disciplines. Then, the meanings of each item were looked up in both general English dictionaries such as Longman contemporary English and Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary and specialized dictionaries for each of the four disciplines. After checking the meanings of these items in these dictionaries, the researcher consulted with some professors and M.A. students to find the exact senses of these words in each discipline. Items which had more than one sense in a discipline were listed in order. As a result, we had four tables specifying the senses of different items for each of the four disciplines separately. The senses of the 10 first items for the four disciplines are given in table 6 below. For the full list of items see Appendix F.

Table 6 Senses of 10 items in AWL in the four disciplines

Coxhead	Law	Math	Physics	Management
Analyze	Study Closely Psych-Analyze	Break down into parts Derivation Examine	Make an analysis Examine	Study Closely
Approach	Plea Method	Move Towards Approximate Method	Technique Approximate Method	Method
Area	Discipline Region	Size Dimension	Size Dimensions	Region
Assess	Determine Value	Gauge Evaluate	Gauge Analyze	Cost Value
Assume	Accept Presume Appropriate	Suppose	Suppose	Surmise Suppose Conclude
Authority	Power Control Jurisdiction Evidence Testimony	Specialist	Specialist	License Expert
Available	Obtainable, Accessible	Obtainable Accessible	Obtainable Accessible	On Sale Obtainable Accessible
Benefit	Advantage Comfort Reward Merit	Advantage	Advantage	Advantage Comfort Reward
Concept	Theory Hypothesis Idea Conception	Theory Hypothesis Idea	Theory Hypothesis Idea	Idea Notion Conception
Consist	Composed Of Characterized by Inherent in	Be Composed Of	Be Composed Of	Be Composed Of Characterized by Inherent in

Discussion

The academic word list developed by Coxhead (2000) specifies 570 word families as the most frequent words in academic texts. This list fails to specify the frequency of these words in different disciplines. It seems Coxhead assumed that the frequency of the items in different disciplines is similar or not important enough to be considered. Besides, the senses of the items in the list are not determined. Moreover, assuming that the items have similar senses in

different disciplines seems to be very unlikely. The results of the current study shed some light on both of the above-mentioned points.

The word frequency analysis in the current study was concerned with the frequency of 210 most frequent academic words developed by Coxhead (2000) in four disciplines. In contrast to the assumed notion that these words may have the same frequency in all disciplines, the results of the word frequency counting for four disciplines indicated that the items in the AWL by Coxhead (2000) had different frequencies in the four disciplines. For example, the word "Assess", which is among the most frequent words in the AWL by Coxhead (2000) with the mean rank of 567, had a frequency of 33,27,0,0 and a mean rank of 361.5, 501,152,178 in Law, Management, Math and Physics, respectively. Or the word "Analyze" which is the most frequent item in the AWL by Coxhead (2000),is not among the 10 highest frequent words in the four disciplines. So, one can conclude that although the words in the AWL by Coxhead (2000), like many other words not included in this list, are present in different disciplines , these words are of different frequency , and consequently of different degree of importance in different disciplines.

Moreover, the frequency counting of the 570 academic words developed by Coxhead (2000) in the four disciplines revealed that, except in some rare cases, these words were more frequent in the disciplines related to Humanities than Basic sciences. As shown in table 1, the sum of the frequencies for each word in Law and Management is almost always more than the sum of the frequencies of the same word in Math and Physics. For example, in Table 1, except the word "assume", the frequency of other words in Humanities is much greater than their frequency in Basic sciences. Also, as shown in table 2, the means in the disciplines related to humanities (12.596 and 43.694 for Management and Law respectively) are larger than the means in the disciplines related to Basic sciences (7.656 and 7.128 for Math and Physics respectively).Thus, one may argue that the texts based on which the AWL was developed were mostly related to Humanities, and therefore more suitable for disciplines related to Humanities.

Moreover, the correlation between the mean rank of different AWL items in the four disciplines and those of AWL items by Coxhead (2000) proved to be statistically significant at 0.01 degree of significance. The Spearman's rank order correlations between the AWL items in the four disciplines, namely, Law, Management, Physics and Match and the AWL items by Coxhead (2000) were 546, 439, 301, and 232, respectively. The noteworthy point about the results of the Spearman's rank order correlations is that the items in the AWL by Coxhead (2000) were by and large correlated to Management and Law and less to Physics

and Math. As a result, the findings of the Spearman's rank order correlations support the claim that the AWL by Coxhead(2000) is more suitable for disciplines related to Humanities. From the discussion about the different frequencies of AWL items in different disciplines and the discussion in the previous paragraph about the AWL correlation with different disciplines one can conclude that if AWL by Coxhead(2000) is going to be effectively applicable to different disciplines either in Humanities or in BasicSciences, its items should be fine-tuned for different disciplines.

Furthermore, the analysis of the senses of the words in the four disciplines revealed some thought-provoking facts. As can be seen in Table 6, each item has its own specific meaning if used in a discipline specific discourse. Also, it is to be mentioned that all items may convey a general sense in some disciplines, but even in this case some subtle differences are conceivable if the items are used in their own discipline-specific discourses. Considering the ultimate goal behind all corpus studies, that is, providing specific word lists for students' specific needs; it seems that this aim has not been considered in the preparation of the AWL by Coxhead (2000). It seems Coxhead assumed that all of the items in AWL have the same senses in different disciplines or students in different disciplines would specify the specific senses of the items on their own. In fact, he never mentions in his work that the items in the list should be considered in their context of use. However, it is axiomatic that at least some of them have different senses in different disciplines as shown in Table 6. If the goal is to have word lists to cater to students' specific needs in different disciplines,it will be more helpful for students to have access to word lists which are specific in senses, from the very outset. If students have access to lists of academic words, both specific in sense and discipline, they will be able to use their time and energy optimally .Moreover, the accuracy and appropriacy of the words they use in their discipline will be supported.

Additionally, as indicated in Table 6, some words have different senses in one discipline. So, inface of these words, students may have wrong interpretations. The AWL developed by Coxhead (2000) fails to consider this possibility as well. It does not specify the sense of the items in different disciplines, and in the same vein, it does not specify the different senses of the same word in the same discipline. So, some itemsin AWL are open to misinterpretation both within a specific discipline and cross disciplines.

Conclusion

The logic of ESP and EAP,as time and energy efficient endeavors, is to teach students only the portions of English they need, as they often have restricted time. So, it makes sense to specify the linguistic items that EAP and ESP learners need to learn. One important need that EAP and ESP courses try to provide for is facilitating the learning of core academic vocabulary. The Academic Word List developed by Coxhead (2000) is really helpful to achieve this goal but it has some problems such as lack of discipline specificity and lack of sense specificity. The whole thrust of this study was to see whether recounting existing academic word list for the four disciplines of Law, Management, Mathematics, and Physics leads to a different frequency-ranking of words that of Coxhead's (2000) Academic Word List. In fact, the analysis of the data yielded different frequency ranking for the four disciplines. So, we can conclude that although AWL is highly useful, it should be fine-tuned for different disciplines. And if so, we will have different AWLs for different academic disciplines from the original AWL. These AWLs are attuned to the needs of the learners in different disciplines and can be fruitful for them. Besides, an inventory of academic words sorted out according to specific disciplines can be a useful frame of reference for ESP and EAP practitioners. As for the second point of interest, unlike the current version of AWL, which does not specify the senses of words for disciplines ,this study specifies the senses of the academic words in relation to specific fields and suggests including the academic word sub-lists, which are fined-tuned according to sense and disciplines, in the current AWL.

The output of this research has significant applications. Material designers and teachers can make sure high-frequency vocabulary items are not neglected. Students in the fields covered by this study will have guiding suggestions in developing academic vocabulary competence.

Although the researchers were careful to follow different steps in the research as accurately as possible, some shortcomings made their way into the study because of practical constraints. One of the shortcomings of the study was its limited number of disciplines. More disciplines could be included in the study and increase its theoretical and practical value. Another shortcoming of the study was its limited number of articles. More articles and books could be included in the study for each discipline to make the results of the study more reliable.

The current study focused on the frequency of 570 academic words developed by Coxhead and studied them in four disciplines. Future studies can investigate the frequency of

these words in other disciplines. Moreover, as Coxhead's study was done more than a decade ago, his academic word list may be in need of revision. So, attempts to develop a new list from scratch may be well in order.

References

Bogaards, P. & Laufer, B. (eds.). (2004). *Vocabulary in a second language*. Amsterdam: John Benjamin Publishing Company.

Campion, M. & Elly, W. (1971). *An academic vocabulary list*. Willington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Corson, D. (1997). The learning and use of academic English words. *Language Learning*, 47(4), 671-718.

Coxhead, A. (2000). A new academic word list. *TESOL Quarterly,* 34 (2), 213-238.

Coxhead, A. (2006). *Essentials of teaching academic vocabulary*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Ghadessy, P. (1979). Frequency counts, word lists, and materials preparation: A new approach. *English Teaching Forum,* 17(1),24-27.

Laufer, B. & P. Nation (1995). Vocabulary Size and Use: Lexical Richness in L2 WrittenProduction. *Applied Linguistics*, 16 (3), 307-322.

Lynn, R.W. (1973). Preparing word lists: A suggested method. *RELC Journal*, 4 (1), 25-32.

Praninskas, J. (1972). *American university word list*. London: Longman.

West, M. (1953). *A general service list of English words*. London: Longman.

Xue, G. & Nation, P. (1984). A university word list. *Language Learning and Communication*, 3, 215-229.

Appendices

Appendix A: Frequency for Physics

The frequency of 210 most frequent items for physics are given in the following. The numbers in front of the items represent frequency of the items.

function380	unique20	source6	sector2	require1
parameter256	distinct20	establish5	apparent2	predict1
formula180	shift20	principle5	job2	philosophy1
series157	Abstract 19	uniform5	contrast2	Criteria 1
obtain142	actor18	issue 5	Isolate 2	style1

complex 105	correspond18	precise5	reverse2	trend1
structure117	construct18	obvious5	constitute 2	network1
section103	principal18	survey5	contract2	consist 1
process98	coincide18	accurate5	justify 2	amend1
constant81	unique20	index5	illustrate2	status 1
explicit 81	instance16	identical 5	stable2	challenge1
scheme81	initial16	couple4	rely 2	mplicit1
theory 77	Technology16	transfer4	Analyze 2	refine1
positive 75	volumes15	involve4	interpret2	clarify1
define73	via15	context4	stress2	medium1
approach 63	final14	area 4	objective2	utilize1
assume 59	relevant14	eliminate 4	individual2	nherent1
data58	Lecture14	recover4	retain2	resolve 1
similar57	evaluate14	topic4	text2	error1
sum 57	valid 13	major4	Finite 2	implement1
denote55	identify 13	create4	feature2	thereby1
odd52	available 11	hierarchy4	concentrate2	period1
Hence52	region11	guarantee 4	radical2	maximize1
Integral 50	imply11	symbol 4	impose2	equate 1
element49	sufficient10	Alternative4	Project 2	normal1
equivalent43	technical10	summary 4	Individual 2	Seek1
method41	research10	technique4	minimum 2	vary1
previous34	restrict10	ensure4	brief 2	insight1
previous34	whereas10	couple4	assign2	encounter1
potential31	substitute 9	transfer4	interpret2	Visible 1
potential31	adjust9	involve4	crucial2	reveal1
fundamental30	Academy9	demonstrate3	nevertheless2	confirm 1
compute30	Energy9	label3	plus2	assemble1
domain29	deduce8	target3	Analyze 2	display1
occur29	grant8	Hypothesis3	sector2	exhibit1
interval29	specific8	compatible3	analogy2	comprehensive1
dimension28	specific8	aid3	text2	
rational28	input7	specify3	feature2	

transform27	generate7	trace3	sector2	
derive26	coordinate7	Somewhat 3	generation1	
link25	expand 6	acknowledge3	concept 1	
chart23	estimate6	contribute 3	locate1	
version22	integrate6	Physical 3	evident1	
Straightforward22	source6	exclude2	remove1	
role21	random6	consult2	period1	

Appendix B: Frequency for Math

The frequency of 210 most frequent items for Math are given in the following. The numbers in front of the items represent their frequencyof the items.

Function 333	locate22	item9	occur6	exhibit3
positive222	Range21	potential9	primary6	uniform3
method161	context21	relevant9	ensure6	intermediate3
Hence136	specific21	framework9	psychology6	environment2
rational130	final21	layer9	converse6	consist2
constant126	previous20	implement9	So- called6	create2
obtain125	technique20	Notion9	objective6	restrict2
assume93	phase18	preliminary9	summary5	resource2
complex81	accurate17	portion9	shift5	strategy2
norm81	precise17	role8	proportion5	despite2
Similar 80	imply17	straightforward8	journal5	option2
section78	available17	Define8	source5	job2
denote74	establish17	involve8	principle5	predict2
deduce68	concept16	illustrate8	major5	professional2
compute65	integral16	correspond7	principal5	Subsequent2
error64	index16	remove7	sphere5	Academy2
element64	coincide14	task7	thereby5	Trend 2
Theory 62	topic14	output7	trace5	intelligence2
equivalent61	definite14	insight7	reverse5	Incorporate2
odd52	period14	goal6	interpret4	classic2
image57	derive14	identify6	community4	couple2
formula51	component14	analyze6	impact4	eliminate2

cycle48	obvious14	occur6	rely4	Finite2
dimension44	via13	primary6	communicate4	thesis2
estimate41	implicit13	ensure6	grant4	somewhat2
data41	whereas13	psychology6	challenge4	accumulate2
domain41	version13	converse6	generate4	detect2
furthermore39	generation13	So- called6	mental4	exploit2
sum37	approximate13	objective6	confirm4	plus2
scheme37	instance13	summary5	crucial4	attain2
region36	minimal12	shift5	vehicle4	
approach36	Overall2	proportion5	compatible4	
interval32	hypothesis12	journal5	scenario4	
unique30	Technology12	source5	constitute3	
initial29	focus12	principle5	vary3	
sufficient28	aspect11	major5	aid3	
discrete28	individual11	principal5	survey3	
transform27	format11	correspond7	Comment 3	
normal26	fundamental10	remove7	criteria3	
research26	Parallel 10	task7	label3	
structure25	demonstrate10	output7	capacity3	
valid25	appropriate10	insight7	enable3	
prime25	require10	goal6	expand3	
explicit25	issue9	identify6	Diverse 3	
parameter24	process9	analyze6	Mode 3	

Appendix C: Frequency for Management

The frequency of 210 most frequent items for Management are given in the following. The numbers in front of the items represent their frequencyof the items.

research444	fund41	scope20	perceive14	exhibit8
data179	dynamic41	culture20	journal14	priority8
construct 164	relevant40	percent20	establish 14	identical8
positive163	policy39	vary19	economy13	flexible 8
approach161	resource 39	emphasis19	involve 13	display8
process157	annual38	technical19	demonstrate13	brief8

theory155	source 38	sufficient19	locate13	psychology8
survey 139	release37	adequate19	Physical 13	cycle8
income122	external37	Academy19	retain13	apparent8
network105	qualitative37	contact19	capacity13	task 8
objective98	attitude37	link19	gender13	reverse7
impact97	estimate36	obtain18	input 13	export7
purchase96	summary35	seek18	hierarchy13	credit7
area 91	identify34	criteria18	contract12	Element 7
context86	prior33	occur 18	team12	feature7
factor81	paradigm32	technique17	interact12	Maximize7
similar80	previous32	implement17	rely12	react7
tem80	index31	Abstract17	acknowledge12	promote7
perspective76	evaluate30	ncentive17	domain12	aware7
role67	hypothesis30	labor17	component12	expand7
specific 67	Hence30	via17	Maximize 12	monitor7
potential65	affect 30	assume16	respond 11	accurate7
core64	whereas30	aspect16	constant11	transfer6
issue63	contribute29	Corporate16	principal11	distribute 6
series62	assess 27	proportion16	predict1 1	communicate6
individual62	outcome26	valid16	contrary11	integrate6
available62	Project26	expert16	detect11	regime6
method62	channel26	intelligence16	preliminary11	sum6
structure60	format26	transport16	panel11	equivalent6
strategy 58	complex 25	adult16	conduct 10	evolve6
function56	parameter25	text16	normal10	rational6
appropriate 55	trend25	require 15	mechanism10	aid6
environment55	Energy25	community15	reveal10	eliminate6
volume53	sector24	distinct15	intermediate 10	
empirical53	section24	status15	constitute9	
major51	ensure23	crucial 15	maintain9	
focus 49	minor23	insight14	encounter9	
primary47	statistic23	create14	guarantee9	
site47	media23	comprehensive14	specify9	

subsidy46	egion22	unique14	enable9	
internal45	instance22	enhance14	output9	
concept44	initial21	conflict14	option9	
period43	contrast21	professional14	Overall9	
framework41	final21	Technology14	random8	

Appendix D: Frequency for Law

The frequency of 210 most frequent items for Law are given in the following. The numbers in front of the items represent their frequencyof the items.

legal1117	distinct 113	sufficient67	normal44	resource33
Ratio588	similar112	constitute67	Abandon44	Overall32
mode394	framework109	sector66	Notion44	mediate32
concept375	context106	Benefit65	expert43	consume32
data375	create106	document64	obvious43	sustain33
principle368	Fundamental 104	method64	aware43	acknowledge32
format346	culture104	positive63	maintain43	nvironment31
theory320	Significant101	link63	ensure43	image31
contract306	comment101	grant60	precede41	brief31
commit277	structure98	Achieve59	Conform41	goal31
individual271	reside96	exclude58	equate41	Corporate30
Author267	instance95	Intrinsic58	adequate40	technical30
policy 264	imply95	element58	respond40	enable30
issue240	consequent94	major56	Design40	apparent 29
require242	income94	publish55	despite40	Hence29
mental223	predict93	confer55	network40	Project29
sum217	consist93	emphasis54	prospect40	justify28
journal212	affect92	previous53	assume39	medical
construct195	final92	invest52	interact39	cite27
norm193	seek86	site52	task39	comprehensive27
process191	Focus 86	impose51	Physical39	Abstract 27
rely 184	region85	chapter51	minimal39	demonstrate26
restrict183	potential85	obtain50	series39	violate26

section155	appropriate84	edit49	sphere38	mechanism26
logic175	domestic83	code49	job38	thesis26
vision172	impact82	consent49	regime38	furthermore26
approach171	Range 82	proportion49	formula38	principal25
text156	Alternative82	promote49	derive37	status25
section155	occur82	philosophy48	regulate37	contrary25
fund144	area78	assist48	partner37	hierarchy25
source143	factor78	complex48	challenge37	diminish25
relevant 142	Function 77	research48	consult 37	contribute25
available142	aspect76	Debate47	primary36	Participate25
feature137	circumstance76	attitude47	reveal36	percent24
community132	Access75	error47	contemporary36	
establish130	identify75	outcome47	constrain35	
involve127	prior74	labor47	layer35	
authority124	internal72	protocol47	minor35	
interpret120	Sequence72	objective46	incentive 35	
Civil118	implement70	Ethic46	sex34	
role117	Conclude69	contrast 46	resolve34	
alter117	tradition69	Select 46	ultimate34	
specific116	Proceed69	estimate45	emerge33	
aid114	period67	Category45	assess33	

Appendix E: Mean Rank of Different Words in Different Disciplines

In the following table the mean rank of 100 words in the four disciplines and in AWL by Coxhead is given.

Words	Law	Physics	Math	Management	Awl
analyze	274.0	418.0	445.0	347.5	570.0
approach	543.0	553.0	538.5	566.0	569.0
area	487.5	457.0	514.5	557.0	568.0
assess	361.5	178.0	152.0	502.0	567.0
assume	385.5	561.0	563.0	455.5	566.0
authority	532.0	178.0	152.0	325.5	565.0

available	537.5	503.0	508.0	544.5	564.0
benefit	465.0	178.0	152.0	89.5	563.0
concept	566.5	377.5	504.0	529.0	562.0
consist	507.5	377.5	377.0	89.5	561.0
constitute	468.0	418.0	403.0	400.5	560.0
context	519.5	457.0	521.5	556.0	559.0
contract	562.0	418.0	152.0	421.0	558.0
create	519.5	457.0	377.0	440.0	557.0
data	566.5	552.0	545.0	569.0	556.0
define	27.0	554.0	460.0	89.5	555.0
derive	376.0	532.0	499.0	347.5	554.0
distribute	278.5	178.0	152.0	364.5	553.0
economy	297.0	178.0	152.0	429.5	552.0
environment	353.5	178.0	377.0	538.5	551.0
establish	534.0	471.5	508.0	440.0	550.0
estimate	407.0	480.5	545.0	515.0	549.0
evident	172.0	377.5	152.0	89.5	548.0
export	157.5	178.0	332.5	377.5	547.0
factor	487.5	519.0	511.5	555.0	546.0
finance	157.5	178.0	152.0	300.0	545.0
formula	380.5	568.0	549.0	213.0	544.0
function	485.5	570.0	570.0	540.0	543.0
identify	481.5	526.5	152.0	513.0	542.0
income	509.5	178.0	332.5	562.0	541.0
indicate	411.0	178.0	152.0	89.5	540.0
individual	559.5	418.0	483.5	544.5	539.0
interpret	530.0	418.0	421.0	347.5	538.0
involve	533.0	457.0	460.0	429.5	537.0
issue	555.0	471.5	470.5	547.0	536.0
labor	416.5	178.0	152.0	463.5	535.0
legal	570.0	178.0	152.0	267.0	534.0
legislate	75.0	178.0	152.0	89.5	533.0
major	445.0	457.0	434.5	535.0	532.0
method	462.5	543.0	568.0	544.5	531.0
occur	492.5	537.0	445.0	468.5	530.0

percent	322.0	178.0	152.0	480.0	529.0
period	468.0	377.5	499.0	528.0	528.0
policy	557.0	178.0	152.0	522.5	527.0
principle	565.0	471.5	434.5	325.5	526.0
proceed	471.0	178.0	152.0	89.5	525.0
process	549.0	562.0	470.5	565.0	524.0
require	556.0	377.5	479.0	448.0	523.0
research	421.5	499.0	530.5	570.0	522.0
respond	391.5	178.0	152.0	414.0	521.0
role	527.5	526.5	460.0	550.5	520.0
section	541.0	563.0	559.0	492.5	519.0
sector	466.0	418.0	152.0	492.5	518.0
significant	515.5	178.0	152.0	300.0	517.0
similar	523.0	550.5	560.0	553.5	516.0
source	539.0	480.5	434.5	520.5	515.0
specific	526.0	488.5	521.5	550.5	514.0
structure	514.0	565.0	527.5	542.0	513.0
theory	563.0	556.0	553.0	564.0	512.0
vary	297.0	377.5	403.0	474.5	511.0
achieve	451.0	178.0	152.0	89.5	510.0
acquire	265.5	178.0	152.0	300.0	509.0
administrate	8.5	178.0	152.0	89.5	508.0
affect	505.5	178.0	152.0	506.0	507.0
appropriate	497.0	505.5	479.0	538.5	506.0
aspect	483.5	377.5	332.5	455.5	505.0
assist	421.5	178.0	152.0	300.0	504.0
category	407.0	178.0	152.0	213.0	503.0
chapter	433.0	178.0	152.0	89.5	502.0
commission	559.5	178.0	152.0	213.0	501.0
community	535.0	178.0	421.0	448.0	500.0
complex	421.5	564.0	561.5	495.5	499.0
compute	242.5	539.5	556.0	89.5	498.0
conclude	471.0	178.0	152.0	89.5	497.0
conduct	531.0	178.0	152.0	408.0	496.0
consequent	509.5	178.0	152.0	89.5	495.0

construct	551.0	519.0	152.0	568.0	494.0
consume	357.5	178.0	152.0	267.0	493.0
credit	231.5	178.0	152.0	377.5	492.0
culture	517.5	178.0	152.0	480.0	491.0
design	391.5	178.0	332.5	325.5	490.0
distinct	524.0	524.0	514.5	448.0	489.0
element	448.5	545.0	554.5	377.5	488.0
equate	396.0	377.5	152.0	213.0	487.0
evaluate	109.0	509.5	514.5	506.0	486.0
feature	536.0	418.0	332.5	377.5	485.0
final	505.5	509.5	521.5	483.5	484.0
focus	502.0	178.0	486.5	534.0	483.0
impact	492.5	178.0	421.0	559.0	482.0
injure	189.0	178.0	152.0	89.5	481.0
institute	322.0	178.0	152.0	89.5	480.0
invest	435.5	178.0	152.0	347.5	479.0
item	172.0	178.0	470.5	553.5	478.0
journal	552.0	178.0	434.5	440.0	477.0
maintain	400.0	178.0	152.0	400.5	476.0
normal	404.0	377.5	530.5	408.0	475.0
obtain	430.0	566.0	564.0	468.5	474.0
participate	329.5	178.0	152.0	89.5	473.0
perceive	322.0	178.0	152.0	440.0	472.0
positive	458.5	555.0	569.0	567.0	471.0

Appendix F: Senses of 25 Items

In the following table the different senses of 25 words in the four disciplines and in the same discipline are given.

Coxhead	Law	Math	Physics	Management
Analyze	Study closely Psych-Analyze	Break down into Parts Derivation Examine	Make an analysis Examine Study closely	Study closely

Approach	Plea Method	Move Towards Approximate Method	Technique Approximate Method	Method
Area	Discipline Region	Size Dimension	Size Dimensions	Region
Assess	Determine Value	Gauge Evaluate	Gauge Analyze	Cost Value
Assume	Accept Presume Appropriate	Suppose	Suppose	Surmise Suppose Conclude
Authority	Power Control Jurisdiction Evidence Testimony	Specialist	Specialist	License Expert
Available	Obtainable, Accessible	Obtainable Accessible	Obtainable Accessible	On Sale Obtainable Accessible
Benefit	Advantage Comfort Reward Merit	Advantage	Advantage	Advantage Comfort Reward
Concept	Theory Hypothesis Idea Conception	Theory Hypothesis Idea	Theory Hypothesis Idea	Idea Notion Conception
Consist	Composed Of Characterized by Inherent in	Be Composed Of	Be Composed Of	Be Composed Of Characterized by Inherent in
Factor	Feature Aspect Characteristic Consideration	Part Component Feature Aspect	Part, Element, Number which is multiplied with another to produce a given product	Cause Agent Broker Feature Aspect
Function	Purpose Task Social Event	A variable so related to another a rule of correspondence between two sets Purpose	A variable so related to another a rule of correspondence between two sets	Purpose Task

Issue	Affair Case Subject Offspring Heirs	Subject Emanate Emerge Exude Flow	Subject Emanate Discharge Flow	Supply Provide Subject Discharge Release
Principle	Proposition Concept Belief Standards Law	Code Rule Criterion	Code Rule Criterion	Standards Law
Conduct	Behavior Performance Act	Transmit Convey Transfer	Convey Transmit Disseminate Diffuse Radiate	Management Running Administer Organize
Volume	Book Publication Quantity Amount	Capacity Cubic Measure Size	Capacity Cubic Measure Size Amplification	Quantity Amount Quantity Amount
Code	Regulations Morality Convention	Cipher Key	Cipher Key	Regulation
Concentrate	Focus	Focus	Condense Boil down Focus	Focus
Series	Sequence, Succession	Sequence of numbers which are added together in succession	Sequence of numbers which are added together in succession	Sequence, Succession
Stress	Worry Anxiety Trouble	Pressure Tension Strain Anxiety	Pressure Tension Strain Anxiety	Worry Anxiety Trouble
Sum	Amount of Money price	Add calculation	Add calculation	Amount quantity fee cost

Capacity	Position	Volume	Volume	Size
	Post	Size	Size	Experience
	Size	Magnitude	Magnitude	skill
Draft	Order	Design	Current of air	Diagram
	Money order	Diagram	Design	Money order
	Bill of exchange	Current of air	Diagram	Bill of exchange
	Diagram			
Mode	Manner	Mean	Mean	Fashion
	Way	Function	Function	Manner
	Fashion		Style	
Panel	Group	Dashboard	Dashboard	Group
	Team	Instruments	Instruments	Team
	Body	Controls	Controls	Body
		Dials	Dials	
		Console	Console	

Appendix G: List of Journals

In the following table the list of journals and sites from which the articles were pooled are given.

Physics	**Law**	**Math**	**Management**
Journal of thin solid films	Law Review	Journal of mathematical analysis and applications	Journal of Business Research
Journal of crystal growth and research	International Review of Law and Economics	Journal of Functional Analysis	International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management,
Journal of high energy physics	Journal of Legal Studies	Journal of Mathematical Behavior	International Journal of Research in Marketing
Journal of optics and devices	Journal of Legal Theory	Journal of Algebra	Journal of Economic Behavior and Organization
Journal Physical review	Michigan Law Review	Math	Strategic Management

letters			Journal,
Journal Physical letters	BrighamYoungUniversity Law Review	Acta Mathematica Scientia	Journal of Management studies
Journal of computational Physics	Cambridge Law Journal	Applied Mathematics and Computation	Journal of the Market Research Society
Journal of Mathematical Analysis and Applications	International Journal of Law in Context	Discrete Mathematics	Qualitative Market Research Journal
Journal Theoretical and Mathematical Physics	Modern Law Review	Advances in Mathematics	International Marketing Review
Journal of Mathematical and physics sciences	Caribbean Journal of Criminology and Social Psychology	Linear Algebra and its Applications	Journal of the Market Research Society
www.sciencedirect.com	Contemporary Justice Review	Applied Mathematical Modeling	Qualitative Market Research Journal
	www.sciencedirect.com	www.sciencedirect.com	Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services
			The Journal of Product & Brand Management
			Journal of Advertising
			Www.emerald.com
			www.sciencedirect.com

Title

A Tireless Experimenter in Modern Drama

Author

Rajabali Askarzadeh Torghabeh (Ph.D.)
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran

Bio data

Dr. Rajabali Askarzadeh Torghabeh, assistant professor at Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran. He has presented and published numerous articles in national and international conferences, and has published a book for university students. He is senior associate editor of Iranian EFL journal, the sister of Asian EFL journal.

Abstract

Eugene O'Neill was more conscious of language. In his plays, characters make speeches rather than engage in dialogue, and language is layered, slabs of soliloquy are placed upon one another. He presents a critique of language, a profound suspicion of utterance. He offers not only a dramatization of the inadequacy of words to feelings but enacts evidence of the betrayal of truth by words. O'Neill's characters push language forward as though it could offer them some protection or amusement. In his early plays, we see that O'Neill was very much interested in sailors. This fascination was because of their inarticulateness in which he identified their "silence." O'Neill's characters mostly in his last plays are all self-conscious performers. They play roles, which will turn away the pain of the real life. It was O'Neill's style rather than the content of his plays that was of first importance. This article which is based on a research work is composed of three parts. The writer of this article has carefully studied the language and characters of Eugene O'Neill.

Keywords: Eugene O'Neill, Language, Character, Literature, Modern drama.

Introduction

Modern American drama as a serious form of art is a product of twentieth century. American dramatists of the twentieth century, particularly since the years of World War I, have been concerned with interpreting reality both freshly and imaginatively in terms of story, dialogue and character. They have had something topical to say comparable to what has been expressed in other literary forms. American dramatists of the twentieth century have been

more realistic than their predecessors, not merely in actual observation and report but in psychology and motivation.

A new conception of the importance of drama and a desire for self-expression led to the establishment of amateur groups interested in acting, direction, design, the organization of audience, financing, and building of theatres. This development of dramatic taste reflected a gradual aesthetic, social and economic change. In the first decade of the twentieth century, Chicago was a leader in this transition, with its Donald Robertson Players, Hull House Players, New Theatre, and the Drama League.

By 1915 knowledge of European productions by the Moscow Art Theatre, and by Max Reinhardt, and of the scene designs of Adolph Appia and Gordon Craig began to affect such American artistes as: Robert Edmond Jones, Sam Hume, Norman Bel Geddes and Lee Simon Son. Partly under their influence, partly stimulated by an extended literary appreciation, partly by a new artistic awakening and enthusiasm, and partly because it was fun, various new production groups were formed. Of these perhaps the most important for the American dramatists were the Provincetown Players and the Washington Square Players.

Provincetown Players were a group of young intellectual Bohemians, producing first at Provincetown and then in Greenwich Village. They worked for an institution called "The Little Theater Movement" that came into being in 1915. The Provincetown Players, for all their amateurism were interested in providing a break to the American writers who wished to test the potential of the stage, and who were thereby instrumental in causing the explosion of the experimental theatre.

Washington Square Players was a small theatre group, founded in 1915. Out of this group came Philip Moeller and Zoe Akins. This movement was a rapid success as it helped the establishment of more than fifty little theatres in America. The Washington Square Player was disbanded in 1918 because of World War I, but some of its members reassembled the next year to establish the Theater Guild, which later produced works by Elmer Rice, Sidney Howard, S.N. Behrman, and Maxwell Anderson as well as the later plays of Eugene O'Neill. The Provincetown group played a significant role in the establishment of Eugene O'Neill as the most experimental of American playwrights in the 1920s, and a pioneer of the new American drama. The importance of this movement from amateur to professional lay not in the establishment of influences of "schools" of playwriting but in the opportunity it gave to the American dramatists to develop their abilities and outlook.

The father of modern American drama

Eugene O'Neill is the father of modern American drama, one of the greatest dramatists of America, the creator of serious American drama, one to whom goes the credit of securing international honor and recognition for American drama. The bulk of his output is fairly large, sufficiently large to place him securely in the fore front of twentieth century American dramatists.

Eugene O'Neill has left behind him five unquestioned masterpieces; *Desire Under the Elms, Strange Interlude, Mourning Becomes Electra, The Iceman Cometh and Long Day's Journey into night.* Still, there are many more plays which would stand high in any long list of plays of our time: *Anna Christie, The Emperor Jones, Te Hairy Ape, All God's Chillun Got Wings* and *A Touch of the Poet.*

H. E. Woodbridge writes:

> (O'Neill's) plays have been popular and influential at home, both on the stage and in book form; they stand the test of reading, as good plays must. He is easily the foremost of American dramatists, and he is the first and still the only one of them to become widely known outside of America. His plays have been translated, acted and read in most European countries; some of them have been produced even in Japan (Maufort, 126).

In this connection, J.W. Krutch, another great critic says:

> Eugene O'Neill is acknowledged to be the most distinguished of the group of dramatists who created the serious American drama. He was one of the first to emerge, and the very bulk of his successful work would make him stand out, even if the best of that work was not the best of our contemporary dramatic literature. He is the first name to be mentioned in any discussion of American theater today, and he is the only one of our playwrights who has a wide international fame (Chenetier, 122).

Before 1930, Eugene O'Neill, the most eminent American playwright, was concerned with the nature of man and the forces that move him. Some of his early plays are; *Bound East for Cardiff* (1915), *Different* (1920), *Emperor Jones* (1920), *Anna Christie* (1921), *The Hairy Ape* (1922) and *Desire under the Elms* (1924). Eugene O'Neill and Maxwell Anderson, who turned from violently outspoken war play, *What Price Glory* (1924) to the domestic comedy of *Saturdays* (1927), are considered as the major exponents of modern American drama.

After 1930, the American drama did not have quite the same spontaneous freshness and vigour. O'Neill for example, after his masterpiece, *Mourning Becomes Electra* (1931), and

the nostalgic comedy, *Ah, Wilderness* (1933) had no successful play in New York until *The Iceman Cometh* (1946).

Transformation of American Drama

Sinclair Lewis is right when he says: "Eugene O'Neill has transformed American drama utterly in ten or twelve years from a false world of neat and competent trickery into a world of splendor and greatness" (Bock and Wertheim, 45). He had seen life as something not to be neatly arranged in a study, but as terrifying, magnificent and often quite horrible, a thing akin to a tornado, an earthquake or a devastating fire and has rendered that life is his plays. Commenting on this remark of Sinclair Lewis, George Jean Nathan has observed:

> for the truth of the matter is just what Sinclair Lewis announced it to the Swedes, that O'Neill alone and single-handed waded through the dismal swamplands of American drama, black squashy and oozing, sticky goo, and alone and single-handed bore out of them the water lily that no American had found there before him (Bock and Wertheim, 138).

1920s and early 1930s were the so-called glorious days for the American drama. During this period O'Neill reached for greatness with the Pulitzer Prize winning *Strange Interlude* (1928), a nine act play, explored through its leading female character the way in which hidden psychological processes affect outward actions; and *Mourning BecomesElectra* (1931), a trilogy, which was a powerful adaptation of three ancient Greek tragedies. All these helped him to become the first American playwright to win Nobel Prize for literature in 1936.

Discussion

The naturalism of O'Neill

O'Neill was a tireless experimenter who experimented with a variety of dramatic forms and modes. Even when he succeeded in one form or style, he would move on to another one, and this experimentation continued from the beginning of his career up to the very end. He started his career with writing plays in the natural language of everyday use. John Gassner writes:

> He did not abandon colloquial dialogue until in the nineteen-twenties and then only for good reasons and he returned to it in 1939 with the writing of the *Iceman Cometh*. He depicted environment scrupulously. And he was virtually the first serious American dramatist of any standing to bring characters from all walks of life on to the stage. Noting their origins of race, and backgroundwith sympathy and understanding. It would not be difficult to sustain the point that he

gave us social pictures and socially conditioned, if not altogether socially determined, actions with greater credibility and vitality than most social dramatists of the nineteen-thirties and since then. He is, indeed, historically important as the first American to make naturalist art prevail on our stage Mordden (qtd. in Mordden, 19).

Fusion of naturalism, symbolism and expressionism

In her *Theater in America*, Mary Henderson writes: "Nevertheless, (O'Neill) was not a 'naturalist,' and he struck out, in fact, against the belief that mere transcriptions of life were the province of art. He fused naturalistic detail with symbolist mood and suggestiveness" (109). And taking his cue from his admired Strindberg, he restored to the "expressionist" dramatic style of distortion of action, speech and scene, as in the weird cavalry of his *Emperor Jones* through the jungle and in *The Hairy Ape*. John Gassner writers:

> Tireless in his search for theatrical means of projecting the inner life and the metaphysical idea, he used interior monologue- speech on different level of consciousness- in *Strange Interlude* and he experimented with masks as a method of dramatization – with partial success in *The Great God Brown* and with virtually none in *Lazarus Laughed*. He even employed monologue in one highly effective scene of so realistic a comedy as *Ah, Wilderness*! And he split the protagonist of *Days Without End* into two characters who had to be played by two actors. This constant, if not indeed always satisfactory, experimentation, is actually another important feature of O'Neill work. It was his role to open out all the stops of theater-art in America and we have reasons to be grateful to him (qtd. in Mordden, 24).

The note of melodrama

Eugene O'Neill began his career by writing his materialistic plays mixed with symbolism and melodrama. Melodrama in his plays is of two kinds, one resulting from the improbability of character and situation, and the other resulting from some overpowering obsession which destroys surface reality as well as truth of character. Woodbridge writes:

> These early pieces show that O'Neill began as a writer of naturalistic melodrama, that he soon developed a talent for characterization and the evocation of atmosphere, and in two or three plays shook himself free of the shackles of melodrama; that in Ile, the most characteristic of his early plays, his fondness for obsession led him to a kind of symbolism, and coalesced with his love of striking stage-effects to create a new variety of melodrama. In his later work the element of naturalism tends to diminish, though it never quite disappears (except perhaps in *Lazarus Laughed*): the element of symbolism tends to increase, though very irregularly; and the element of melodrama remains approximately constant, though it appears in various forms. On the whole, though the symbolism greatly heathens the imaginative

appeal of some of the plays, it is more often a curse than blessing, and it is disastrous when it gets out of control. In most of the stronger and finer plays *The Emperor Jones, Anna Christie, Strange Interlude, Mourning Becomes Electra*- it is subordinate and used chiefly to create overtone; in some of the weakest or most questionable- *The Fountain, The Great God Brown, Dynamo, Lazarus Laughed*- it becomes dominant, and sometimes in alliance with melodrama, wrecks the play. It is powerfully used in The Hairy Ape through most of the piece; but when near the end it takes control, reality and emotional appeal fade away (Maufort, 129).

Language, characters and style

For nearly thirty years, O'Neill's plays created a powerful modern dramatic literature in America. O'Neill's characters are sailors, farmers, housewives, soldiers, actors and postmen. Lairs, deceivers and fantasisers all come alive in his plays. These are the characters that push language forward as though it could offer them some protection or amusement. He was always concerned to get behind language. In his early plays, we see that O'Neill was very much interested in sailors. This fascination was because of their inarticulateness in which he identified their "silence." His similar sense of sympathy for the people, who existed at the bottom of the social order, lay in the fact that their experiences were nonetheless sharp for all their failure to make their way fully into language.

No writer of American drama was more conscious of language than Eugene O'Neill. In his plays, characters make speeches rather than engage in dialogue, and language is layered, slabs of soliloquy are placed upon one another. He presents a critique of language, a profound suspicion of utterance. He offers not only a dramatization of the inadequacy of words to feelings but enacts evidence of the betrayal of truth by words.

In O'Neill's early naturalistic plays, such as *Bound East for Cardiff* (1915), which is poetic and romantic in tone, we can see the notion of character as an individual. In these early plays his characters are well defined and the feature of their faces and even the intonation of their expression can be heard and distinguished. But in his later plays mostly expressionistic plays it comes under a heavy assault and begins to disintegrate.

Eugene O'Neill's *The Hairy Ape* (1922) was one of the first plays to introduce expressionism in America. This movement, which was a reaction against realism, emphasizes subjective feelings and emotions, rather than a detailed or objective depiction of reality. In this way, *The Hairy Ape* depicts a character that is searching for the inner life and we are confronting a rejected character, who feels he belongs nowhere until he confronts an ape in the zoo. He sets the animal free only to be destroyed by it.

O'Neill's characters mostly in his last plays, such as *TheIceman Cometh* (1946) are all self-conscious performers. They play roles, which will turn away the pain of the real life. They seek oblivion through alcohol, through memory or through narrative, repeating the story of their lives as though thereby to create those lives. These characters hold the real at bay. O'Neill's last play, *Long Day's Journey into Night*(1956), which premiered after his death in 1953, is a painful autobiographical play. It chronicles a day in the life of the Tyrone family, during which family members inexorably confront one another's flaws and failures.

The great poetic dramatist

O'Neill's one ambition was that he should be considered as a poetic dramatist. This was an artistic necessity for him, if we take into consideration his matter as well as his pint of view. But so long as he wrote about common life -of sailors and farmers and social outcasts- he managed his language securely, often with strong effect, sometimes with poetic overtones appropriate to his subject. When he set out to be deliberately poetic, he failed, sometimes embarrassingly. When he turned to middle class or upper class society, he missed fire in those parts of his plays in which he tried to generalize a feeling or an idea. Yet it may be conceded that even then he could achieve a poetic effect of low degree, through the full rhythm of his sentences, if not through cadences and imagery. Poetry is sufficiently present, for example in *Ah, Wilderness*! And there is considerable measure of it in *Desire Under the Elms*, one of his best plays. He got his poetry as other modern playwrights have done, not from verbal beauty but from the breath and reach of his imagination, mood or feeling and especially from his theatrical sense. John Gassner writes:

> If he was felicitous in creating verbal poetry, he often created a poetry of the theater –this in effect of which a few examples are the tom-toms in *Emperor Jones*, the firemen forecastle and the Fifth Avenue nightmare of *The Hairy Ape*, the masks and transformation-effects of *The Great God Brown,* the evocation of the farmhouse and land in *Desire Under the Elms,* and the Greek colonnade, the chantey refrain, and Electra Lavinia's tragic closing of the doors upon herself in *Mourning Becomes Electra* (qtd. in Mordden, 26).

Sense of form and pattern

O'Neill displays a strong sense of form both in his realistic and non-realistic plays. His plays are strictly patterned. The structure of the play, the pattern of the action, even the shaping of the dialogue, always follow a strict design usually one devised for that particular play. Downer believes:

> The alternating setting of *Beyond the Horizon*, shifting from the open road to the farmhouse interior, parallel the choices which confront the two brothers in the action. The fixed non-realistic nature of the setting in *All God's Chillun Got Wings* creates a dramatic symbol of the forces opposed to the self-realization of the hero and the heroine in *Mourning Becomes Electra* the completely realistic setting is also completely symbolic (Chenetier, 47).

In characterization, too, O'Neill prefers to follow a pattern. His characters are not necessarily stereotypes, but he is at some pains from the very beginning of his career to make it apparent that each is but an instrument in the revelation of his theme. At first, he frequently describes the humor or manner of a character by the figurative situation of a mask: "Mrs. Mayo's face has … become a weak mask wearing a helpless, doubtful expression of being constantly on the verge of comfortable tears."

Later in the *Great God Brown*, each character is equipped with an actual mask which he dons or doffs to indicate his inner nature, his attitude and his emotion. Aware that this restoration of a classical stage property called attention to itself and away from the play as a whole, O'Neill made a further modification.

In *Mourning Becomes Electra* where the Greek myth suggested the employment of actual masks, the realism of the setting forced a compromise. The Mannons, in repose, all have mask-like faces, resembling the mask-like portraits on the walls of their library. Since the Mannons are seldom in repose, the effect is more potential than actual, but it underlies the action as a symbol of the chain of evil that binds them together. Downer writes:

> The use of the material of theater, setting and make up and action, on several levels, achieves an effect similar to the effect of poetic language in the older drama, and accounts for the impact of much of O'Neills work, in spite of the lack of poetic language in his dialogue" (Chenetier, 49).

A great tragic artist

O'Neill's vision of life was essentially tragic; the human predicament is the theme of his plays, which are all, with one exception, tragedies. He is a great tragic artist, but with a difference. He writes tragedies of modern life which do not follow the traditional, Aristotelian form. There are no tragic heroes, exceptional individuals with *hamartia*, in the Aristotelian sense.

His tragic protagonists are all drawn from the humblest ranks of society, such as are gathered in Harry Hopes's bar in *The Iceman Cometh*. Each of them has his own pipe-dream, his own romantic illusion which sends him to his doom. As Blumenthal believes; "(O'Neill's)

tragedies are studies in the destructive possibilities of romantic ideals" (16). They demonstrate that any kind of escape from the reality of life is self- destroying; they assert at every step, the beauty and joy of life which must be accepted with all its joys as well as with all its limitations. Tragedy results when in the pursuit of some cherished illusion man forgets the reality of life.

Human suffering: its causes- his themes

Basically and essentially, O'Neill's tragedies are the embodiments of a comic anguish. As he himself said: "(he) has studied man not in relation to man, but man in relation to God. Man has lost faith in the God of old relations and has yet found no new faith. Living in an impersonal, mechanical, urbanized and industrialized social environment, man is constantly on the track. He suffers from inner emptiness, isolation and a feeling of insecurity." (qtd.in Herman 79).

John Gassner rightly says: (O'Neill's major theme was man's disorientation, man's bedevilment from within and from without" (qtd. in Mordden, 27). O'Neill made himself the dramatist of ironic fate and of the psychological tensions Freud's interpreters and misinterpreters were then communicating to us in books and lectures. He then continues: "he took for his masters the Greek tragedians of fate, to whom he ultimately paid the tribute of imitation in *Mourning becomes Electra*, and Strindberg, the Scandinavian dramatists of man's division and search for reunification, to whom he has paid the tribute of imitation in *Welded* and *Strange Interlude*" (qtd. in Mordden, 27). This makes O'Neill a great tragic artist whose tragedies soothe, console and strengthen. They never depress and dishearten. They are as much apotheosis of the human spirit as, say, the tragedies of Shakespeare or of the ancient Greeks.

Conclusion

Some limitations and real greatness

In the end, some limitations of O'Neill as a dramatist may be noted:First, as Woodbridge rightly points out, "his most obvious limitation is the inadequacy and intermittent appearance of his sense of humor" (qtd. In Maufort,132). He has, indeed, a rather grim Irony: *Marco Millions* shows satiric power and *Ah Wilderness* a broad recognition of the value of humor. But a richer sense of humor would have preserved him from many melodramatic

extravagances and from such defects as the crude treatment in *Indifferent* of the rests of sex suppression; also from the intolerably mechanical laughter of *Lazarus Laughed*.

Secondly, his grasp on character is uncertain. How few people in his plays do we remember as individuals-Emperor Jones, Old Christe, Marco, perhaps Lavinia in *Electra,* Nat Miller in *Ah Wilderness*, not many more, Woodbridge writes "O'Neill portraits are none in wood block; not in fine lines, but striking masses of black and white" (Maufort, 133).

Thirdly, he lacks the power of happy memorable phrase; he seldom or never gives final form to an idea in words. There are few lines in his plays that are likely to become familiar quotations.

Fourthly, he lacks control, and does not distinguish between force and violence. He has the ex-invalid's love of strong words and violent deeds. Thus he often spoils his effect by laying on his colors too thick.

Fifthly, sometimes his symbolism gets out of control and is overdone as at the end of The Hairy Ape.

Sixthly, his control over emotion is also uncertain.

But despite such drawbacks, O'Neill remains a great dramatist, one of the greatest figures in the Twentieth Century Theater. His great and central merit is that he is a serious and generally sincere artist in drama. He has never compromised with box-office demands, but has won his success without tampering with his artistic conscience. O'Neill wrote in 1922, "I intend to use whatever I can make my own – and I shall never be influenced by any consideration but one: is it the truth as I know it, or better still, feel it? If so, shoot and let the splinters fly where they will. If not, not" (qtd. in Wilkinson, 85). Woodbridge writes:

> O'Neill has always, I think, been faithful to his vision, such as it is and this is the root of all good writing. In the second place, O'Neill has at its best a fine sense of dramatic values which fuses the discordant elements of which his work is composed and makes us forget all his defects. Finally he has always shown a splendid artistic courage. He has dared to try new things and to do old things in new ways. He has greatly widened the rang of our theater (qtd in. Maufort, 136).

No doubt that Eugene O'Neill has been one of the greatest playwrights of his age, and he is truly considered as the father of modern American drama.

References

Abrams, M.H. (1995). *A glossary of literary terms*. London: Rinehart Publishers.

Barranger, MS. (1994). *Understanding plays*. Massachusetts: Allyn and Bacon.

Bigsby, C.W.E. (1985). *A critical introduction to twentieth-century American drama*.Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Blumenthal, E. (1991). *Thevoyage back. American Theatre, 53,*12-17.

Bock, H,& Wertheim, A.(1981).*Essays on contemporary American drama*. Munich: Hueber.

Brooks, C. (1948). *Understanding drama.* New York: Holt Publications.

Callens, J. (1991). *American Literature and the Arts*. Brussels: VUB.

Chenetier, M.(1986). *Critical Angels: European views of contemporary American literature*. Carbonadale: Southern lllinois University Press.

Dawson, S.W.(1986). *Drama and the dramatic*. New York: Methuen and Co.

Durham, W. B.(1989). *American theatre companies: 1931-1986*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Gard, Robert E., Marston Balch, and Pauline B. Temkin. (1968). *Theatre in America*.

Madison,WI: Dembar Educational Research Services, Inc.

Gilbert, James. (1986). *Anotherchance: Postwar America, 1945-1985*. Chicago: Dorsey Press.

Gaskell, R. (1972). *Drama and reality: The European theatre since Ibsen*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Geis, D. (1993).*Monologue in contemporary American drama*. Ann Arbor: Michigan University Press.

Henderson, M. C. (1986). *Theater in America*. New York: Harry N. Abrams.

Herman, W. (1987).*Understanding contemporary American drama*. Columbia: University of South Carolina Press.

Hodgson, J. (1972). *The uses of drama*. London: Eyre Methuen Ltd.

King, B. (1991).*Contemporary American theatre*.New York: St. Martin's Press,

Kirkpatrik, D.L. (1988). *Contemporary Dramatists. 4th ed*. New York: St. Martin's Press.

Maufort, M.(1989).*O'Neill and the emergence of American drama*. Atlanta: Rodopi.

Mordden, E. (1981). *The American theatre*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Pickerins, K.(1988).*How to study modern drama*. Macmillan.

Robinson, M. (1994).*The other American drama*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Sangar, K. (2001). *The Language of Drama.* London: Routledge.

Taylor, J. C.(1978).*America as art*. New York: Harper and Row.

Walker, M.(1989).*Literature of the United States*. McMillan.

Wilkinson, R.(1988).*The pursuit of American character*. New York: Harper & Row.

Worthen, W.B.(1992). *Modern drama and the rhetoric of theatre*.Berkeley: University of California Press.

Title

The Acquisition of Preposition Pied Piping and Preposition Stranding by Iranian Learners of English

Author

Mohammad Salehi (Ph.D.)
Sharif University of Technology, Tehran, Iran

Bio data

Mohammad Salehi, a faculty member of the Languages & Linguistics center at Sharif University of Technology, Tehran, Iran. He holds a Ph.D. degree in TEFL from the University of Tehran. He has presented articles in international conferences. His research interests include language testing and second language acquisition research. He has also written books on language testing and vocabulary.

Abstract

The purpose of the current study was to look at markedness theory through the investigation of the acquisition of pied piping and preposition stranding by Iranian learners of English. Pied piping is considered to be unmarked whereas preposition stranding is deemed to be marked. Three groups of elementary, intermediate and advanced learners completed a task on constructions dealing with pied piping and preposition stranding in English. In this respect, a series of chi-square analyses were performed. A chi-square analysis showed that the use of PP was significant among level 1 learners. ($\chi2$= 15.88, p<.05 df= 2. A chi-square of 17.73 showed the greater frequency for intermediate learners was statistically significant at the .05 level. Advanced and intermediate learners did not differ much in their use of PS ($\chi2$=3.879, p≤.05, df=1). Intermediate and elementary learners were compared and seen to differ significantly from each other ($\chi2$=5.038, p<.05, df=1). The advanced learners made significantly more use of preposition pied piping. We know that Persian is a language which allows preposition pied piping rather than preposition stranding. One might say that the preference of the advanced learners to use more pied piping may be due to their L1. This runs counter to what we have in literature as it is expected that transfer happens more in elementary stages rather than advanced stages of learning.

Keywords: Preposition stranding, Pied piping, Unmarked, marked, Proficiency level

Introduction

Markedness theory has been employed as a research tool in second language research (Mazurkewich 1984, and Eckman, 1977). The idea behind the theory is that the marked structures are more difficult to be acquired than unmarked ones. The area that has largely been studied within the framework of markedness theory has been syntax. Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy (Keenan and Comrie, 1977), Markedness Differential Hypothesis (Eckman 1977), The Acquisition of Conditional Sentences (Berent 1985) are among studied directed at Markedness theory. The acquisition of Preposition standing (from now on PS) and preposition pied piping (from now on PPP) has also been investigated (Mazurkewich 1984, Bardovi- Harlig, 1978). It is commonly agreed that PS is marked as opposed to the PPP which is unmarked. An example of a PS is *Where did you get the book from?* whereas the PPP counterpart is *From where did you get the book?*. PS is said to be marked for two reasons: (1) typological, and (2) theoretical. Typologically, PS is rare. On theoretical grounds, PPs constitute islands and extraction out of them is not feasible. PPP is the unmarked counterpart of and is said to be acquired prior to PS which is marked. Harlig's study provides evidence to the contrary. Using WH-questions and relative clauses as the instruments of the study he finds that PPP is acquired later than PS which is not in line with the markedness theory. He considers a factor which he terms "salience" to interact with markedness for the apparent contradictory finding. Salience is defined as "the availability of data".

This study is an attempt to replicate Harlig's study with Persian learners of English.

The purpose of the study

The purpose of the current study is to look at markedness theory through the acquisition of pied piping and preposition stranding. It is aimed at seeing whether Persian learners of English would should any preference in terms of acquisition of PS and PPP. If it can be found out that Persian learners show preference in terms of earlier acquisition one of these structures, some implications for the teacher of the classroom are in order. The teacher could attempt to introduce the constructions as determined by the study.

The research question of the current study is as follows:

Is there a difference between PPP and PS in terms of order of acquisition by the participants?

The review of the related literature

Preliminaries

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) maintain that linguistic notions of markedness are usually defined in terms of "complexity, relative infrequency of use or departure from something that is more basic, typical or canonical in a language." (p. 101)

Eckamn (1977) maintains that "A phenomenon A in some language is more marked than B if the presence of A in a language implies the presence of B; but the presence of B does not imply the presence of A" (p. 320). His basic assumption is that areas of TL which differ from NL will be difficult if they are more marked than NL, but they will not be difficult if they are not marked.

Battistella (1996) asserts that the definition of markedness has been plagued by a chicken-and-egg problem: Does markedness explain other linguistic properties, or do other linguistic properties explain markedness?

Battistella (1996) in an effort to distinguish marked elements from the unmarked ones uses the names of the people. He begins with the name of one of American presidents. He stipulates that the unmarked form of a name in English is the first name plus the surname. He agrees that Gerald R. Ford differs from the unmarked Gerald Ford in being more specific-in distinguishing the referent from Gerald T. Ford, for example. He further goes on to discuss that the nickname Jerry Ford carries the mark of informality. Battistella uses Waugh's notion of marked versus unmarked elements saying "oppositions like male/female white/black, sighted/blind, hearing/deaf, fertility/ bareness, spoken/written can be analyzed as cultural oppositions between unmarked and marked categories.

Givon (1995) gives the following set of unmarked/marked categories for clause types:

unmarked	marked
main/conjoined	subordinate
declarative	manipulative
affirmative	negative
active	passive

Croft (1990) mentions absence or presence of a morpheme indicating category value. Thus he concludes that the category "plural" is marked because it is expressed by a nonzero morpheme/-s/ in English and the category "singular" is unmarked because it is characterized by the absence of a morpheme indicating number.

Markedness in different fields

Chomskyan Universal Grammar and Markedness

In the Chomskayan tradition the marked/unmarked opposition is closely related to the core/periphery distinction. More specifically the core rules which are in complete accord with the principles of UG are held to be unmarked and the idiosyncratic peripheral rules, marked. The markedness values of linguistic elements are held to be reflected in the L1 developmental path. It is argued that other things being equal, the unmarked L1 core rules are acquired easier and earlier than the unmarked peripheral rules. The unmarked to marked progression finds evidence in the child's setting of parameters as well. That is to say, unmarked settings of parameters may appear earlier in the child's language even if the language involved contains marked parametric value.

Typological markedness

The typological approach utilizes several criteria alongside the notion of frequency of occurrence to determine the markedness values of linguistic elements. Greenberg (1996)$$$ proposes several criteria: The first criterion is referred to as "par excellence". Put simply, of the two members of a grammatical category, the one that can refer to either the entire category or to a single member of the category is unmarked and the other one marked. To take Greenberg's example of gender, the word "man" which can either mean "human being" or "male human being" reflects the unmarked value of "masculine". The second criterion he uses is "zero expression". According to this criterion, the unmarked forms unlike their marked counterparts lack any overt affix. The third criterion is labeled "syncretization". According to this criterion, of the two or more members of a category, the one in which the marked/unmarked distinctions are "neutralized" is marked. The fourth criterion is "facultative expression" which in Greenberg's view is very close to the "par excellence" argument. The fifth criterion is "contextual neutralization". To borrow Greenberg's definition "in certain environments the opposition between two or more categories is suppressed and it is the unmarked member which appears." There are other criteria which he uses, but for reasons of space they are not elaborated on.

The degree of difficulty of L2 structures: Contrastive Analysis Revisited

Utilizing the notion of implicational universals, with "implied" terms being unmarked or less marked, one of the first and most interesting claims regarding transfer was Eckman's Markedness Differential Hypothesis (MDH) (Eckman 1977) which makes three predictions:

(a) Those areas of L2 which differ from the L1, and are more marked than the L1 will be difficult.

(b) The relative degree of difficulty of the areas of the L2, which are more marked than L1, will correspond to the relative degree of markedness.

(c) Those areas of L2 which are different from the L1, but are not more marked than the L1 will not be difficult.

To support prediction (b) Eckman (1997) showed that the degree of difficulty with English relative clauses experienced by each of four groups in Schachter's study reflected the relative distance of their L1 from English. Eckman noted that CAH could at most simply predict difficulty for all groups, given that each L1 forms relatives differently from English in English several ways, but could not take any principled prediction about relative degree of difficulty.

Turning to predictions (a) and (c), Eckman further illustrated the explanatory power of MDH using second language phonology data. Eckman had established that out of three possible positions in words in which a voiced/voiceless distinction can be made, initial position (*bit/pit*) is the least marked, followed by the medial position (*biding*/ *biting*), with final position being the most marked (*eyes/ice*). Languages like English, which have voiced contrasts in word final positions, will also have them in medial and initial positions. There are languages like German which have voice contrasts in medial and final positions, but not in final position.

With these facts in mind, the MDH predicts that German speakers have difficulty making the word final contrasts with obstruents in English, which involves them in adding a more marked distinction in the SL (MDH prediction (a)), whereas English speakers have no difficulty with dropping the (most marked) word final L1 distinction when learning German(prediction (c)). The original CAH again could not handle data like these, since an L1-L2 difference exits whether English or German is the SL, and should lead to difficulty in both cases, but does not.

Carlisle (1997) summarizes the predictions of MDH as follows: "If an implicational relationship obtains between two structures such that language A has the marked structure and language B has the unmarked structure then speakers of A should more quickly acquire the unmarked structure in B than speakers of B should acquire the marked structure in A (p. 328)."

Empirical studies

Mazurkewich (1984) studied the acquisition of English dative alternation by French and Eskimo ESL learners, seeking support for two theoretical standpoints: (1) the markedness theory as put forward by Chomsky and (2) the lexicalist approach to dative alternation. The basic assumption of the lexicalist approach is that a lexical rule responsible for the assignment of the two subcategorical features of (NP PP) and (NP NP) to alternating verbs and only the first one to no alternating verbs. The two criteria utilized for establishing the unmarked value of the (NP PP) pattern were its insensitivity to the semantic and morphological constraints applicable to the double NP complements and the greater productivity of the (NP PP) datives. A grammaticality judgment task comprising alternating and non-alternating *to* and *for* datives was administered to the three experimental groups representing low, intermediate and advanced proficiency levels and two control groups made up of native English speakers. The results of the study indicated that the unmarked prepositional phrases were acquired before the NP complements. Similarly *for*-datives were found to be acquired before *to*-datives. Finally the fact that only thirty percent of the alternating verbs with double NP complements were judged correctly was taken as lending support to the lexicalist approach to dative alternation. If a transformational rule was at work, Mazurkewich contended, one would have expected it to apply more frequently once the environment was favorable.

Eckman et al. $$ (1988) conducted an experiment to explore the implications of the markedness theory for two purposes: (1) to determine the order of difficulty of relative clause types, and (2) to detect the direction of generalization of relative clause instruction in ESL settings. Drawing upon Keenan and Comrie's (1977) Accessibility Hierarchy, the assumed order of markedness of relative clause types, from the least to the most marked, was: subject, direct object, indirect object, object of a preposition, and object of a comparative particle relative. To pursue their objectives, the researchers gave a pretest to 36 ESL learners tapping their knowledge of subject, direct object and object of a preposition relative. On the basis of the results 27 intermediate level subjects were proportionally assigned to three experimental and nine other to a control group. The experimental groups were given one hour instruction on relative clause formation the focus of which was subject relatives for the first group, direct object relative for the second, and object of a preposition relative for the third one. Two days after the instruction a post-test, similar to the pretest, was administered to the four groups. The results of the study were as follows: (1) though the object of a preposition relativizes the

most marked of the three relative clause types tested, proved to be the most difficult, no significant difference was detected between the subjects' performance on subject relatives and direct object relatives. (2) The third experimental group generalized learning to subject and direct object relatives while the other groups did not generalize their learning to object of a preposition relatives, (3) Overall, the direction of generalization of learning was from the most marked to the least marked.

Method

Participants

The subjects included thirty students of Non-English majors at the School of International Relations where the researcher taught a few hours a week. They were divided into three groups on the basis of their proficiency levels. These students were all MA students who studied English for 8 hours a week.

Instruments

Two instruments were used in the study. One was an Oxford Placement Test. It has 100 items related to grammar. Time considerations prevented the researcher from the administration of the full test. So the first section consisting of 50 items was administered to the participants. This instrument divided the students into three proficiency groups, beginners, intermediates, and advanced ones. The other instrument which was used in the study was a data elicitation task for PPP and PS. This 25- item completion test is randomly ordered. The subjects were instructed to complete a series of sentences using *who, whom,* or *which*, thus forming relative clauses, as in examples below:

The guard was watching the player………………………….. .

Peter throw the player the football

The person …………………………………………….was Louise.

Allen lent 100 dollars to the person

The subjects were instructed to use *who, whom,* or *which* ,to introduce the relative clauses because only relative clauses with overt WH- relativizers allow PPP as well as PS. Relative clauses with no overt WH-element, those introduced by *that*, or *Ø* are well-formed only if the preposition is stranded. The instrument can be found in the appendix. There are 25 items on this elicitation task. Ten items serve as distractors which are not related to the distinction between preposition stranding and preposition pied piping.

Data collection

The subjects were instructed to answer the Oxford Placement Test. Of course they are familiar with these types of proficiency tests. For the elicitation task dealing with relative clauses they needed to be fully briefed. They needed to be told that the slots are to be filled with appropriate relative pronouns if necessary. For half of the subjects the researcher was present. However for the other half, the researcher asked a friend to do the administration job.

Data analysis

The two variables in the study are proficiency with three levels beginning, intermediate, and advanced. The other variable was a particular linguistic rule with three levels, use of no prepositions, preposition standing and preposition pied piping. A Chi-square analysis was run to see if a meaningful relationship emerges between the level of proficiency and the use of rules. Particularly the researcher was interested in finding out which rule is used by beginning level subjects so that it could shed light on the prior acquisition of PPP or PS.

Results

Three rules were considered: the use of pied piping, preposition stranding, and the use of no preposition. The subjects were also divided into three levels. Taking into the account the number of each rule used by the three groups of learners , the following table was arrived at:

Table 1: Preposition stranding and pied piping across levels of proficiency

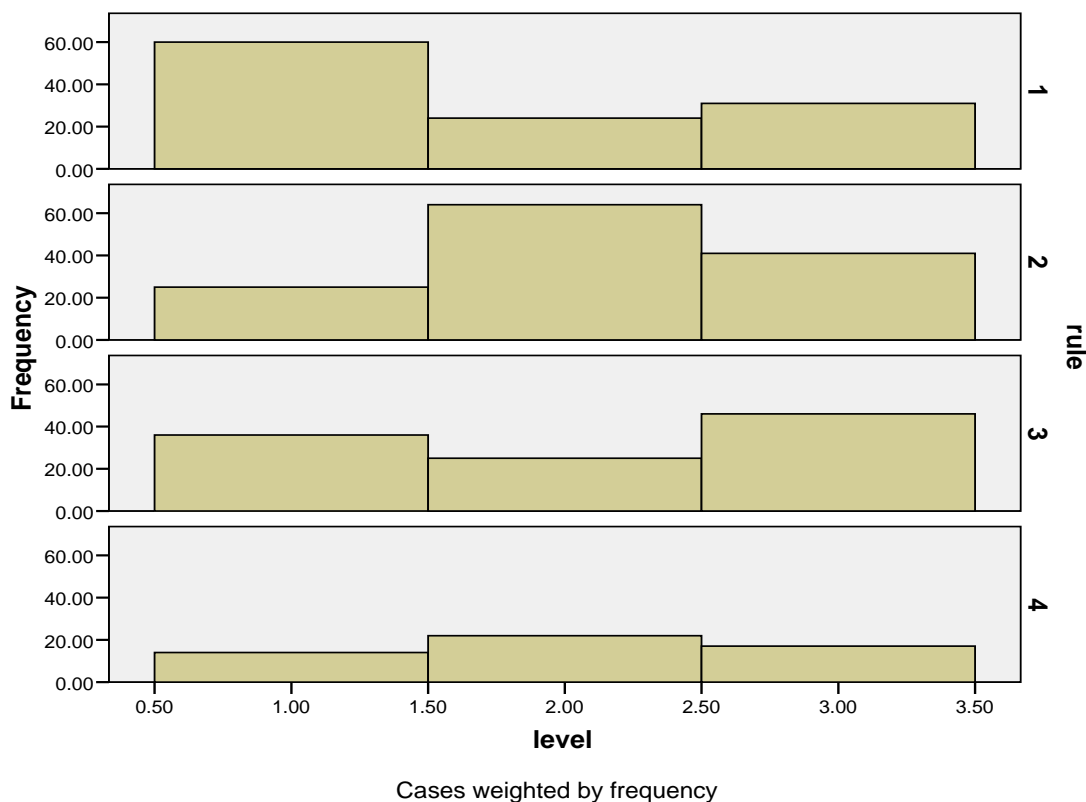| rule \ level	Preposition Pied Piping (PP)	Preposition Stranding (PS)	No preposition (NP)	No answer (NA)
1=High	60	25	36	14
2=Inter	24	64	25	22
3=Low	31	41	46	17

Figure 1: The uses of rules and the levels.

As it can be observed, in level one, students employed more piped piping constructions than level two and level three students. As far as rule 1 is concerned, level two or intermediate students employed the least number of pied piping constructions. As the figure elucidates, rule two has been used more by intermediate students than the other two groups. The same rule was the least employed by level one or advanced students. As for rule 3 or the use of no preposition, the greatest use has gone to level three or low level students.

Table 2: Chi-Square Statistics

	value	Dif	Asym.sig (two-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	44.473	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	44.136	6	.000
Linear-by- linear Association	7.385	1	.007
Number of valid cases	405		

There are two variables under study. One is the rule type and the other one is the levels of testees. A two-way chi-square analysis was performed to see if the relationship between the use prepositional types and levels is significant.

As it can be observed in table 2, the chi-square value is significant, meaning that there is a relationship between the levels of students and their uses of preposition stranding and pied piping. Also Table 3 shows the cross tabulation for rule and level.

Table 3: Rule-level Cross Tabulation

			Rule				total
			1	2	3	4	
level	1	count	60	25	36	14	135
		expected	38.3	43.3	35.7	17.7	135.0
	2	count	24	64	25	22	135
		expected	38.3	43.3	35.7	17.7	135.0
	3	count	31	41	46	17	135
		expected	38.3	43.3	35.7	17.7	135.0
total	count		115	130	107	53	405
	expected		115.0	130.0	107.0	53.0	405.0

A cursory look shows that among the level 1 students the use of PP has the highest frequency. To see whether this was statistically significant, a Chi-Square analysis. It turned out that the Chi- Square value was significant ($\chi2= 15.88$, $p<.05$ df= 2). Another chi-square analysis was one to see whether the use of PP and NP was significant. The result showed that it was ($\chi2= 6$, $p<.05$, df=1).

The same job was done for level 2 learners. A quick glimpse shows that PS has the highest frequency among second level students and the difference in frequency is significant ($\chi2= 27.62$, $p<.05$, df=2).

Level 3 students or the beginning level students leaned towards more use of NP. It turned out that this tendency was not statistically significant ($\chi2= 2.96$, $p>.05$, df=2).

Then, we compared the three rules in terms of levels. The first comparison was done for PP among the three levels which showed that the difference was significant ($\chi2= 19.09$, $p<.05$, df=2). The second comparison was between level 1 and level 2 students with the frequency of 60 and 24 respectively. The difference in frequency is significant ($\chi2= 15.42$, $p<.05$, df=1). Thirdly levels 1 and 3 were compared to see whether the difference in frequency was significant. It turned out that it was ($\chi2=9.24$, $p<.05$, df=1).The final comparison was the one between levels 2 and 3 with the frequencies of 24 and 31 respectively. The result of the analysis was a non-significant chi-square value ($\chi2=0891$, $p>.05$, df=1).

Then, we worked with PS. Level 2 learners had the highest frequency of se of preposition stranding. A chi-square analysis was done to see the greater frequency for intermediate learners was statistically significant at the .05 level. A chi-square of 17.73 showed that it was. Advanced and intermediate learners were compared to see whether intermediate learners' superiority over the advanced learners is not attributed to chance. It was revealed that the difference was significant ($\chi2=$ 17.09, p<.05, df=1). Advanced and intermediate learners did not differ much in their use of PS ($\chi2=3.879$, p≤.05, df=1). Intermediate and elementary learners were compared and seen to differ significantly from each other ($\chi2=5.038$, p<.05, df=1).

Finally, the three levels were compared in terms of use of NP. Elementary students used more structures with no preposition than the other two groups. To see whether this apparent different was statistically significant, a chi-square analysis was run. It was found out that the difference was almost significant ($\chi2=$ 6.187, p≤ .05, df=2). Comparison of levels 1 and 2 with the chi-squares of 1.98 and 1.22 did not lead us to significant differences.

Intermediate and elementary learners were also compared with each other. The chi-square value arrived at was 6.211 which was significant at the .05 level.

Discussion

The advanced learners made significantly more use of preposition pied piping. We know that Persian is a language which allows preposition pied piping rather than preposition stranding. One might say that the preference of the advanced learners to use more pied piping may be due to their L1. The advanced learners used 36 structures with NP which is surprising. Because these structures were the ones that required the use of prepositions but the learners failed to provide any prepositions. So in a way the advanced learners were not advanced enough. As a matter of fact the highest score out of a possible 50 in the placement test was 30. Apparently the use of no prepositions should negatively correlate with level of the learners, but this is not the case.

Intermediate level students used significantly more use of preposition stranding. And the preference of elementary learners is towards the use of no prepositions. The use of no prepositions is the easiest task. And the chi-square analysis revealed the elementary learners' use of no preposition was significant.

Can we conclude that preposition stranding is acquired before preposition pied piping? The answer is uncertain. The use of preposition pied piping and preposition stranding is not

significant for level 3 learners. Had it been otherwise, one would have concluded that preposition stranding is acquired before preposition pied piping. This would have provided evidence to the belief that unmarked structures are acquired before the marked ones. Elementary learners were the basis to conclude which structure is acquired first, preposition pied piping or preposition stranding. But these learners showed no preference in terms of significant use of the structures under question.

Almost every study is subject to some (de)limitations. This study is no exception.

1-First and foremost the data elicitation task used might a suspect. Other data elicitation tasks might have generated different results.

2-Genralizabiltiy is an issue in the current study. The participants belonged to a particular which is not representative of any university in Iran.

3-The proficiency test used to group the participants into three proficiency levels was an Oxford Placement Test. Considering the fact that the test only tapped grammatical ability as opposed to other (sub) skills, the groups may be not genuinely distinct in terms of proficiency levels.

References

Bardovi-Harlig, K.(1987). Markedness and salience in second language
        acquisition. *Language Learning*, 37, 385-407.

Battistella, E. (1996). *The logic of markedness*. Oxford: OxfordUniversity Press.

Berent, G. (1985). Markedness considerations in the acquisition of conditional
        sentences. *Language Learning*, 35(3), 337-372.

Carlisle, R. (1997). The modification of onsets in a markedness relationship:
        testing the interlanguage structural conformity hypothesis. *Language Learning,* 47,
        327-361.

Croft, W. (1990). *Typology and universals*. Cambridge: CambridgeUniversity
        Press.

Crystal, D. (1992). *An encyclopedia dictionary of language and languages*.
        Oxford: Blackwell.

Eckman, F.(1997). Markedness and the contrastive analysis hypothesis. *Language
        Learning,* 27, 315-330.

Eckman, F., Bell, L, and Nelson, D. (1988). On the generalization of relative clause

      instruction in the acquisition of English as second language. *Applied Linguistics*, 9(1),

      1-20.

Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding second language acquisition*. OxfordUniversity Press.

Givon, T. (1995). *Functionalism and grammar*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins

      Publishing Co.

Keenan, E. and Comrie, B. (1977). Noun phrase accessibility and universal grammar.

Linguistic inquiry, *8*, 63-99.

Larsen- Freeman, D. and Long, M. (1991). *An introduction to second language*

      *acquisition research.*New York: Longman.

Mazurkewich, I. (1984). Acquisition of dative alteration by second language learners and

linguistic theory. *Language Learning*, *34*, 91- 109.

Mokhtari, H. (1997). *Markedness and the production of English conditional sentences by*

*Iranian Learners***.** Unpublished MA Thesis. ShirazUniversity.

Rutherford, W. (1982). Markedness in second language acquisition. *Language Learning*, *32*,

85-108.

Taylor, I. (1976). *An introduction to psycholinguistics*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and

      Winston.

Zobl, H. (1983). Markedness and the projection problem. *Language Learning*, *33*, 293-313.

Appendix

Complete the following sentences using *who, whom,* or *which* wherever possible.

Example: Mary saw the man……**whohadstolen her purse**……...

                      The man had stolen her purse

1. The person…………………………..was Louise.

        Allen lent the person 100 dollars

2-Hotel del Coronado is a famous hotel………………………..

                The hotel hosts many conventions

3-The man……………………………was Kevin.

       Cathy gave the book to the man

4-Bill wrote down his information…………………………………….

           He had looked up the information

5-The desk……………………………………..belonged to y grandfather.

       We just cleaned out the desk

6-The student……………………………. went to the employment office.

The student wanted a job

7-The guard was watching the player…………………………………....

Philip threw the player the football

8-The children chased the leaves…………………………………….

The wind blew the leaves around.

9-The teacher helped the student………………………………………….

The lesson was difficult for the student

10-I paid 25 dollars for the same book…………………………………….

Marcy paid only 15 dollars for the book

11-The woman……………………………..was his aunt.

Bob sent a postcard to the woman

12-I went to the school ………………………………… .

The children had burned down the school

13-The manager hire the student…………………………………….

The teacher had recommended the student

14- The children …………………………….begged fro another one.

Miss Smith had read the children a story

15-The bicycle…………………………………was expensive.

Jack asked his parents for the bicycle

16-The policeman …………………………………………arrested him.

John reported the accident to the policeman

17-The man …………………………………………..was Kevin.

Cathy gave the man the book

18-The woman …………………………………………..was his aunt.

Bob sent the woman a postcard

19-The hungry people took the food……………………………………..

The restaurant had thrown away the food

20-The store……………………………………………………was not open.

We called up the store

21-The guard was watching the player ……………………………………

Philip threw the football to the player

22-The artist painted a picture………………………………………….

He sold the picture for 3000 dollars

23- The clerk………………………………………..was fired.

Jill had complained about the clerk

24-The person …………………………………………was Louise.

Allen lent 100 dollars to the person

25-The children…………………………………..begged for another one.

Miss Smith read a story to the children

Title

The Anxiety about L2 Reading Tasks

Author

Afsaneh Baharloo (M.A.)
Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran

Bio data

Afsaneh Baharloo is an English Language instructor. She holds her B.A. and M.A. degrees in English literature and ELT respectively from Shiraz University. She teaches general and specialized English courses at both private and state universities. Her areas of research interest include reading comprehension, language testing and contrastive analysis.

Abstract

The present study was an endeavor to investigate the effect of anxiety on EFL learners' reading comprehension and post reading tasks. To achieve this goal, 86 university students who were advanced EFL learners were studied. All participants were senior students majoring in English translation at Shiraz Azad University. In order to measure learners' anxiety, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Questionnaire (FLCA) was employed. Later, students' reading comprehension was assessed and they were asked to go through a writing task that followed their reading. The findings of the study revealed that foreign language reading is highly affected by anxiety; in addition, students feel more anxious about L2 reading itself than post L2 reading tasks; in other words, students are more anxious about the actual L2 reading process followed by the task of written recall then reading out laud and finally answering oral questions. Finally, it was revealed that there is a negative significant correlation between learners' anxiety level and their performance on the reading task.

Keywords: Anxiety, Reading comprehension, Reading task, EFL.

Introduction

Anxiety plays an important effective role in foreign language acquisition. In other words, foreign language anxiety seems to be the common experience among EFL learners. Many researchers have devoted much time to examine the role of anxiety in EFL learning in general and language skills in specific.

Before any specific research is introduced in the field, it is necessary to identify and define the term *anxiety* in foreign language study. Anxiety, as defined by the Oxford English On-line dictionary, is the quality or state of being anxious, feeling uneasy, or troubled about some event or concern. Anxiety can be distinguished and categorized into two major kinds: debilitative and facilitative; however, not all anxiety is harmful (Brown, 2000, p. 151). Some language researchers point out that anxiety is mainly positive and facilitative in foreign language learning, but others show a negative relationship between anxiety and performance (Bailey, 1997, p3). The negative kind of anxiety is sometimes called "debilitative anxiety", because it damages learners' performance in many ways. There is usually little cause for debilitating anxiety. Nevertheless, disappointment with one's performance can lead to a reduction of self-efficacy and motivation; it can also result in anxiety that gets in the way of learning (Ehrman, 1996). In the field of foreign language learning, debilitative anxiety has been seriously studied by many researchers since most studies have shown a negative correlation between anxiety and grades in language courses (Aida, 1994, p. 156). Learning with a little anxiety (just enough anxiety and not more than needed) is advantageous, because it keeps learners alert (Ehrman, 1996, p. 148). Even though some people dislike learning under tension, they still believe that tension can sometimes be good for learning, because they insist that if there is no pain there would be no gain (Spielmann, 2001, p. 73).

According to Chang (2004), "Anxiety could be described as feelings of uneasiness, frustration, nervousness, and worry and a learner's emotional feelings or attitudes might affect learning efficacy" (p. 1). Some researchers also indicate that anxiety has a negative influence on foreign language learning, since language anxiety appears to affect learners' performance (Gregersen, 2002, p. 562).

The relationship between anxiety and education has been well established throughout the research world for decades. However, the relationship between foreign language study and anxiety only started gaining attention twenty years ago, but has been acquiring more interest in recent years (Horswill, 2002). Reading is one of the four skills that form a learner's language proficiency. According to Brantmeier (2005), "Reading is traditionally a silent act done outside of class without the pressure of peers, and students can read at their own pace" (p. 73). Reading is a very important aspect of FL study, as the majority of FL courses incorporate a great deal of reading; however, very little research has been conducted with regard to reading anxiety. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate the relationship between reading and foreign language anxiety.

Gardner (1989) believes that even with disparities in research methodologies, there is a clear relationship between foreign language anxiety and foreign language proficiency in general. With regard to language anxiety, MacIntyre (1999) offers these assertions: "(1)Anxiety develops from negative experiences gained early in the language learning experience; (2) Language anxiety negatively correlates with L2 achievement and with self-perception of L2 proficiency; and finally, (3) anxious learners achieve lower grades, spend more time studying, and have greater difficulty processing new L2 input and output" (p. 41).

The framework behind this study is Branhardt (2000)'s interactive model of L2 reading which has been utilized in Brantmeier (2005)'s research as well. Branhardt's model is the first L2 reading model that directly aims at investigating state and transient variables in the L2 reading process.

Statement of the problem

Most modern methods of second and foreign language teaching employ a holistic view towards language teaching and learning; in other words, they take learners' cognitive as well as affective state into account, since they think the way learners feel can interact with their performance. Among many affective factors that intervene in the learning process, anxiety is considered as an important variable that can be facilitative or debilitative depending upon the learners' general personality, degree of anxiety, learning context and the learning task. Reading comprehension is one of the activities required while learning a foreign language. Since reading is considered to be a receptive skill, it is mainly associated and accompanied by some tasks which are mainly intended to reinforce or measure learners' comprehension of reading a text; therefore, anxiety as an affective factor can function as a filter which impedes learners' performance or as a means that help the learners do their best in achieving the learning goals.

The current research, hence, aims at studying the foreign language classroom anxiety that intervenes in FL reading tasks. In order to clarify different aspects of the points under investigation in the present study the following questions are posed:

1. Are learners at the advanced levels of language instruction more anxious about L2 reading than L2 speaking, listening and writing?

2. Do learners feel more anxious about the process of L2 reading or post-L2 reading tasks (e.g. written recall)?

3. Is there a significant relationship between anxiety and L2 reading comprehension?

Investigating previous studies, one obviously comes to know that in most available pieces of research the variables of which are similar to the ones of the study at hand, foreign language classroom anxiety has been studied mainly with regard to productive skills of speaking and writing and very few cases have considered anxiety in relation to foreign language reading or L2 reading tasks let alone both. Saito, et al. (1999, p. 203) claim that "although reading plays a substantial role in the second language curriculum, there has been relatively little discussion of anxiety and second language reading". In addition, one can hardly find any pieces of research that aim at determining the order and degree at which all four skills are affected by foreign language classroom anxiety as well as exploring the relationship between anxiety and L2 reading tasks in an Iranian foreign language context.

Furthermore, the researcher believes, since nearly all English classes in universities in Iran are based on reading, a better understanding of reading anxiety construct can help in alleviating students' problems and can be conductive to future studies concerning the role of affective aspects of human behavior in language learning; therefore, there seems to be a need that calls for some studies in this area to seek answers for several problems that any researcher in this field and context may encounter.

Review of literature

In recent years some researchers have worked on the relationship between anxiety and reading comprehension in EFL and ESL situations. Conducting a similar research in this field to find the relationship between foreign language learning and anxiety, Horswill (2002) claims that almost all of the studies reviewed in her research seem to be in agreement that there is a significant negative relationship between foreign language study and anxiety. However, no cause and effect relationship has been established, and only experiments can display such findings. According to Horswill's research, the amount of anxiety one experiences may directly affect comprehension in foreign language reading. In a similar piece of research carried out by Hayati and Ghassemi (2008) who studied sixty junior students, a significant negative correlation between reading comprehension and foreign language anxiety was observed. Furthermore, Song (2010), who aimed at exploring the effect of anxiety on reading comprehension, studied a group of forty-five Korean ESL learners at the University of Texas at Austin. The findings of Song's study revealed a significant negative correlation between anxiety and reading comprehension, so less anxious learners showed better reading

comprehension scores than their highly anxious peers. Ganschow and Sparks (1996) also went through a study that investigated the effects of anxiety on FL learning. They found that low anxiety students performed better than did moderate or high anxiety students.Another study by Sparks et al. (1997) shows that higher anxiety students may perform much lower on scores of reading, writing, listening and speaking measures in an EFL context.

Bailey, Onweugbuzie, and Daley (2000) set out to conduct more research on anxiety and FL reading. Support was demonstrated that older students may experience higher levels of anxiety than younger students. For instance, older non-traditional students who have not been exposed to the academic environment may experience more anxiety while doing a reading task than younger students who have not taken time off from their education. In addition, their research also found that college students with little or no previous FL study experienced higher levels of anxiety than did students who had previously taken FL classes.

Brantmeier (2005) has carried out a similar piece of research to investigate anxiety about L2 reading in a context of 92 university students in an advanced level of a Spanish grammar and composition course. The results of her study indicate that at the advanced level of language instruction learners generally do not feel anxious about reading in a second language. And learners were more anxious about post-L2 reading tasks (both oral and written) than the actual act of reading, but no positive or negative correlations were found among anxiety factors.

It has been experienced that different language skills may arouse different amount of anxiety. Cheng, Horwits, and Schallert (1999) conducted a piece of research in Taiwan where English was studied as a foreign language. Their study investigated the relationship between foreign language classroom anxiety in general and the anxiety associated with FL writing and speaking components in specific. They found a significant negative correlation between foreign language classroom anxiety and speaking and writing in English. They stated in their study that the magnitude of the correlations was found to be small, but still large enough to be significant. However, Mei-Lin Chen (2007) conducted a piece of research in Ming Chuan University of Taiwan to investigate the relationship between foreign Language anxiety and reading performance among 93 freshmen students. Chen came to know that there was a low correlation between anxiety and reading performance (r=0.28); in other words this relationship was insignificant and weak. Dixson (1991) who investigated the relationship between anxiety and receptive skills of reading and listening comprehension states, "The finding of the study showed that anxious students had difficulty grasping the content of a target language message" (p. 214). Besides, Cheng (2004) conducting a piece of research on

the effect of anxiety among EFL learners in Taiwan found that oral-oriented activities in class produce the most foreign language anxiety. Young (1991) also states, "Many students feel better when they did not speak a foreign language, otherwise, anxiety occurs when the student has to speak the foreign language in front of a group" (p. 429). Finally, most studies show that students feel more anxious when they have to produce the language rather than when they receive the language.

According to professor Ganschow (1994), there is likely to be a strong negative correlation between FL anxiety and reading comprehension. With regard to this point, highly anxious students would be more likely to achieve less than low-anxious students. Sanz (1999) has written a research paper on the relationship between anxiety and reading comprehension, her study was done on Spanish EFL learners. She believes that foreign language anxiety impedes students' comprehension when reading a text. Another piece of research done by Saito et al. (1999) in a setting where Hebrew was the first language and English the foreign language, revealed that language anxiety only increased students' problems with decoding of a text and the actual processing of meaning.

Dealing with phonetics and reading comprehension is a tough job for ESL learners. A study done on the phonological working memory and reading in test anxiety situation, demonstrated that anxious subjects showed poorer comprehension than non-anxious subjects (Calvo, 1996). The study done by Calvo indicates that there is an interaction between anxiety and interference in reading comprehension performance.

Saito, Horwits and Garza investigated the relationship between reading and foreign language anxiety in their 1999 study. They found that FL reading anxiety is separate from general FL anxiety. Their findings also show that those who perceive reading in the target language to be difficult experienced more anxiety than those who did not perceive the reading in the target language to be difficult. In addition, Sellars (2000) who worked with participants of a third semester found that reading anxiety is a separate variable in FL learning. He explored the relationship between language anxiety and reading comprehension in Spanish as a foreign language. Sellars found a negative relationship between reading anxiety and L2 reading comprehension when he asked the students to read a magazine article. The results of Sellars' study indicate that "more highly anxious students tend to recall less passage content than the students with lower anxiety"(2000, p. 512).Furthermore, some researchers believe that "anxiety is an important factor in foreign language reading difficulties" (Saito, 1999, p. 15).

In short, the studies reviewed above mainly focus onforeign language anxiety and L2 learning in general or performance with regard to certain skills or tasks in specific. The results support the claim that in most cases there is a negative relationship between anxiety and FL reading comprehension.

Method

Participants

A group of 86Iranian students who were advanced learners of English as a foreign language enrolled in the program. The participants were senior students whose major was English translation. They all were in the last semester of BA curriculum at ShirazAzadUniversity. The majority of them were in their twenties (young adult EFL learners), and have not studied academically in an English speaking country. And they all speak Persian as their native language.

Instruments

Anxiety test

In the present study the anxiety questionnaire which has been created and modified according to selected items related to language skills and most specifically reading comprehension from the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was utilized. The same anxiety questionnaire had been used in Brantmeier (2005)'s study taken from Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986). The original Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale deals with anxiety with regard to general language learning; therefore, by considering the Reading Anxiety Scale (RAS) as aguide to aid the process of re-writing FLCAS questions, some items from the FLCAS have been altered so that they would mainly focus on L2reading instead of general language learning. The entire survey was written in English. For questions specific to L2 reading, all questions fit into three categories representing different dimensions of L2 reading and anxiety: general L2 reading; L2 reading and oral tasks; as well as, L2 reading and written tasks. The anxiety test contains10 items, each of which is answered on a 5-point likert-scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree".

Background questionnaire

The background questionnaire is mainly intended to collect participants' background information which can affect their anxiety level as well as their performance on L2 reading tasks.It consists of questions about subjects' age, gender, academic major, whether or not they have studied in an English speaking country, language spoken at home, and years studying English (including high school).

Reading selection

In the current study a short story known as "the Death Car" which includes 795 words appropriate for an intermediate student to comprehend was selected for the reading part. The story is about a couple going to a party in a dark and rainy night while listening to terrible news about a murderer who had run away broadcasted from the radio. Suddenly there car breaks down, the husband asks his wife to stay in the car and not open the door until she hears three knocks at the door, after a while, she hears not three knocks but more, she was very much scared, doing nothing. But in the morning the police came to help her and she realized that it was her husband killed by the murderer and hung from the tree, so it was he who knocked at the car when shaken by the windblown.

Comprehension assessment tasks

After the participants in the current study completed the reading, they were asked to write down as many ideas and details about the passage without looking back at the reading. After completing the written recalls,the participants answered 10 multiple choice questions. The multiple-choice questions were created to meet the two criteria set by Wolf (1993): (a) all items are passage dependent, and (b) some of the items require the reader to make inferences. In addition,for each of the 10 multiple-choice questions four possible responses were created: one correct response and three distractors.

Both the written recall and the multiple choice questions were completed in English in order to take into account students ' FL anxiety with regard to reading comprehension.

Procedure

All the participants were asked to complete the anxiety and background questionnaire, after which they went through the reading section, then the written recall and finally the multiple choice questions. Students were assigned 50 minutes to complete the study.

Scoring and analysis

The written recall was scored holistically with regard to related ideas, the gist of the story and the massage behind it. The scores consistencies were confirmed through intrarater reliability. The percent of scoring agreement between the two sets of scores was 90%. Therefore, the average of the two scores given to the same writings in different occasions was considered as the final score for this task.

To answer the first two research questions, the data was analyzed by SPSS in order to come to the frequency and percentages of scores. Therefore, a repeated measure design was used because the comparison exists within one group and a matched t-test was used to illustrate this comparison. The third research question was investigated through correlational analysis. The alpha level was set at 0.5.

Results

Having analyzed and studied the obtained data, the researcher answers the research questions as it follows:

Research Question 1: Are learners at the advanced levels of language instruction more anxious about L2 reading than L2 speaking, listening and writing?

Figure 1 Mean Anxiety Scores for Reading, Speaking, Writing, and Listening
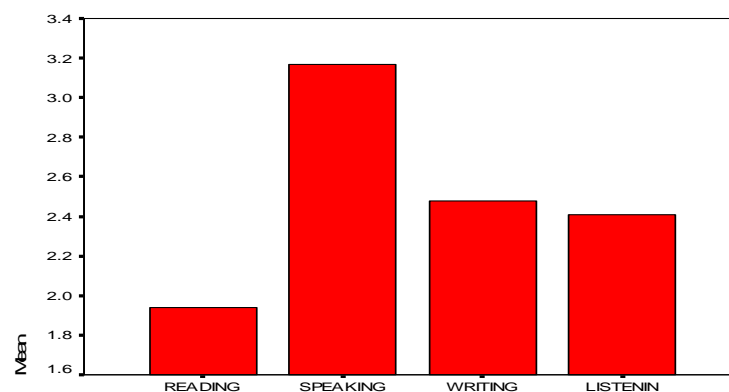
*The lower the mean score the higher the level of anxiety.

Table One lists the means and standard deviations for anxiety related questions. Table Two lists descriptive statistics for all questions and includes frequencies of each alternative selected by each individuals.

Table 1 Anxiety Items, Mean Scores and Standard Deviation

Items	Mean	SD
1. I become anxious when I have to read in English. outside of this course for homework.	1.94	0.86
2. I become anxious when I have to read English out loud in class.	2.75	1.19
3. Generally speaking, I become anxious when I have to speak English in class.	3.17	1.25
4. I become anxious when I have to answer questions orally in this class about what I have read in English.	3.10	1.17
5. I fear having *to read* lengthy texts in English as homework in future literature courses.	2.23	0.97
6. I fear *not understanding* the lengthy texts I will have to read in future literature courses.	2.78	1.20
7. I become anxious when I am asked to write in English.	2.48	1.12
8. I become anxious when I am asked to write compositions in English about what I have read in this class.	2.41	1.04
9. I become anxious when I have to answer the multiple choice questions about what I have read in English.	1.71	0.70
10. Generally speaking, I become anxious when I listen in class.	2.41	1.27

----

n = 86 participants

Table 2 Items with Percentages of Students Selecting Each Alternatives

Items	SA	A	U	D	SD
1. I become anxious when I have to read in English outside of the course for homework.	4	8	15	35	24
2. I become anxious when I have to read English out loud in class.	8	24	14	25	15
3. Generally speaking, I become anxious when I have to speak English in class.	15	25	10	27	9
4. I become anxious when I have to answer questions orally in the class about what I have read in English.	12	25	16	23	10
5. I fear having to read lengthy texts in English as homework in future literature courses.	6	14	18	31	17
6. I fear not understanding the lengthy texts I will have to read in future literature courses.	8	27	12	27	12
7. I become anxious when I am asked to write in English.	7	21	10	32	16
8. I become anxious when I am asked to write compositions in English about what I have read in the class.	7	14	19	30	16
9. I become anxious when I have to answer the multiple choice questions about what I have read in English.	10	17	10	28	21
10. Generally speaking, I become anxious when I listen in the class.	10	17	10	28	21

In the present study the results indicate that, the majority of learners disagree with being overly anxious about reading in English outside of the course for homework.

In this context students feel somehow anxious (midway on the 5-point anxiety scale) about not understanding the readings in the future literature courses.

Results of the current study manifest that among all skills (as depicted in figure one) reading is mostly affected by foreign language anxiety, then listening then writing and finally speaking. In this study students encountered a newly met short story with an unfamiliar plot which may have also led to their anxiety. In addition, students' high level of anxiety with regard to reading rather than other skills can be due to the fact that in an EFL context like Iran, students mainly work with the receptive skill of reading and when they think of English as a Foreign language, they may remember their English course books which mainly deal with reading. So they feel the most foreign language anxiety associated with reading rather than other language skills.

Some previous studies have also shown that high anxiety may negatively affect reading comprehension (Sellars,2000; Young, 2000), and that the higher language learning anxiety the lower the overall coursegrades (Saito, Horwitz, and Garza, 1999). However the findings of this study somehow contradicts with those of Brantmeier (2005)'s research. Results of her study show that of all three skills, speaking causes themost anxiety, followed by writing, then listening and reading.

Research Question 2: Do learners feel more anxious about the process of L2 reading or post-L2 reading tasks (oral and written)?

Mean scores and standard deviations for anxiety items are listed in Table One, and Figure Two offers a graphic depiction of mean anxiety scores for L2 reading and post L2 reading tasks. In the present study, students feel more anxious about L2 reading (M=1.94) itself than post L2 reading tasks, in other words students are more anxious about L2 reading process followed by written recall (M=2.41) then reading out laud (M=2.75) and finally answering oral questions (M=3.10);(meanwhile the participants in the present study feel very much anxious about multiple choice questions (M=1.71)). However, in her study, Brantmeier (2005) came to know that students are more anxious about both reading out loud and answering oralquestions about what they have read then they are about the actual act of reading itself, in other words in the context of her study, students appeared to be more anxious about post L2 reading tasks than L2 reading process.

Figure 2 Mean Anxiety Scores for L2 Reading and Post-L2 reading
Oral and Written Tasks

Mean

3.5

3.0

2.5

2.0

1.5

L2RDING   ROUTLOUD   RORALQS   RDWRITE   RDMC
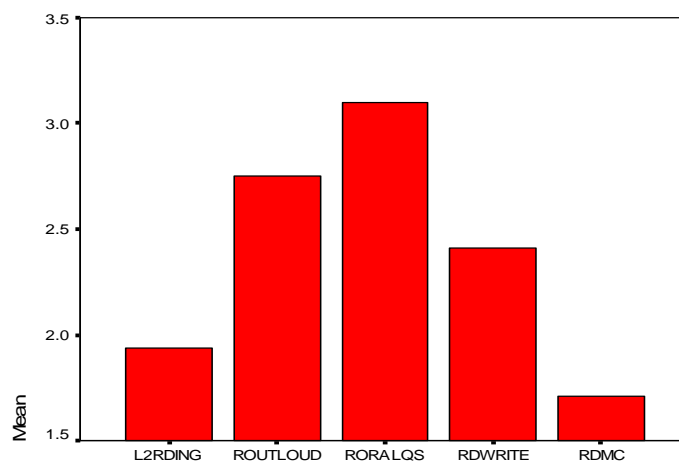
*The higher the mean anxiety score the lower the anxiety for the task.

Research Question 3: Does anxiety about L2 reading affect comprehension?

In the present study the matched t-test reported in table three shows a significant negative relationship between reading scores and the anxiety level (p<.05; sig=.004; r= -.38); however the results show a negative relationship between writing task (the written recall) and the anxiety level, this difference is not significant (p>.05; sig=.058; r= -.25). Therefore there is a stronger correlation between reading and anxiety level than reading and writing which hinders comprehension. The significant correlation between reading comprehension and anxiety may also have been partially due to the fact that the passage was a new story about which the students did not know anything beforehand which itself must have increased their anxiety even before reading the story; therefore this unfamiliarity of the text impedes students' comprehension during the reading process. This result echoes what Song (2010), who aimed at studying the effect of anxiety on reading comprehension, observed. Song found that more anxious students showed less reading comprehension scores. In addition, the findings of this study are in line with what Hayati and Ghassemi (2008) concluded about the existence of a significant negative correlation between reading comprehension and foreign language anxiety. A similar result was also observed by Horswill (2002) who also found that there is a significant negative relationship between foreign language study and anxiety which could directly affect foreign language reading comprehension. However, Mei-Lin Chen (2007) observed an insignificant relationship between anxiety and FL reading comprehension. Brantmeier (2005) also found no significant correlation between anxiety and L2 reading comprehension. The different results observed in disparate studies are due to studying

different groups of subjects who may have different personality traits and abilities in mastering another language, as well as different contexts of the studies.

Table 3 Matched T-test

Paired Samples Statistics

Std. Error Mean	Std. Deviation	N	Mean	
.74600	5.53246	85	24.9455	ANXIETY Pair 1
.40626	3.01288	85	16.8182	WRITING

Paired Samples Correlations

Sig.	Correlation	N	
.058	-.257	85	ANXIETY & Pair 1 WRITING

Paired Samples Statistics

Std. Error Mean	Std. Deviation	N	Mean	
.74600	5.53246	85	24.9455	ANXIETY Pair 1 READING
.15931	1.18151	85	7.5818	

Paired Samples Correlations

Sig.	Correlation	N	
.004	-.386	85	ANXIETY & Pair 1 READING

Conclusion

Language anxiety is a complex and multidimensional phenomenon. It manifests itself in students quite differently depending on ethnic background, prior language experience, learner personality, and classroom circumstances. As a result, its impact on the learning experience is not easily assessed. Horwitz (2010) also believes that The concept of anxiety is itself multi-faceted, and psychologists have differentiated a number of types of anxiety including trait anxiety, state anxiety, and facilitative-debilitative anxiety; therefore, with such a wide variety

of anxiety-types, it is not surprising that various studies on the relationship between anxiety and different aspects of foreign language learning have provided mixed and confusing results. This study was carried out to investigate the relationship between L2 reading and anxiety dealing with advanced EFL learners. The results indicate that there is a negative relationship between anxiety and reading comprehension measured through related L2 reading tasks such as multiple choice questions and written recall. It seems obvious that L2 learning is usually accompanied by anxiety, but different language skills and assessment tasks whether oral or written reveal different degrees of anxiety.

Pedagogical Implications drawn from the findings of this study are that it would seem very important to create an anxiety free learning environment in foreign language classrooms. As proponents of the holistic approach believe, students' emotional state can interact with the act of L2 learning as well as accomplishing foreign language tasks. Finally, further investigations can be carried out in this field considering the effect of secondary factors such as "age" to find out if age plays any specific role in the relationship between foreign language reading and anxiety.

References

Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Herwitz, Herwitz, and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students of Japanese. *The Modern Language Journal, 78(2)*, (155-168).

Bailey, P., Onwuegbuzie, A.J. & Daley, C.E. (2000). Study habits and anxiety about learning foreign languages. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 90*(3), (115-133).

Bernhardt, E. B. (1991). *Reading development in a second language*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Brantmeier,C. (2005).Anxiety about L2 reading or L2 reading tasks? A study with advanced language learners. *The Reading Matrix,* 5(2), (67-84).

Brown, H.D. (2000). Personality Factors. *In the Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*.White Plains, NY: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.

Calvo, M. G. & Eysenck, M. W. (1996). Phonological working memory and reading in test anxiety. *Memory, 4*(3), (289-307).

Chang, Y.L. (2004). The effect of anxiety among EFL learners in Taiwan. *EFL 501 Language Learning and Acquisition, 43*(1), 215-227.

Chen, M.L. (2007). *Test anxiety, reading anxiety and reading performance among university students as second language learners*. Ming Chuan university press.

Cheng, Y., Horwitz, E.K.& Schallert, D.L. (1999). Language anxiety: Differentiating writing and speaking components. *Language Learning, 49(3)*, (417-447).

Dixson, R. (1991). Listening comprehension: Textual,contextual, cognitive, and affective considerations. *Annual Central States Conference on Language Teaching* (214-224). Indianapolis.

Ehrman, M.E. (1996).Understanding Second Language Learning Difficulties, *Thousand Oaks,*California: SAGE Publications Inc.

Ganschow, L., Sparks R. L., Anderson R., Javorshy J., Skinner S., & Patton J. (1994). Differences in language performances among high-, average-, and low-anxious college foreign language learners. *The Modern Language Journal, 78(1)*, (41-48).

Ganschow, L., &Sparks, R.L. (1996). Anxiety about foreign language learning among high school women. *The Modern Language Journal, 80*, 199-212.

Gardner, R. C., (1989). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.

Gregersen, T., Horwitz E.K.(2002).Language learning and perfectionism: anxious and non-anxious language learners' reactions to their own oral performance. *The Modern Language Journal, 86(4),*(562-570).

Hayati,A. M., Ghassemi, E. (2008). The effect of anxiety on reading comprehension across genders:A case of Iranian EFL learners. *The Iranian EFL Journal, 2*, 101-123.

Horswill, E. L. (2002). *Foreign language and anxiety*. WesternIllinoisUniversity.

Horwitz, E. K. (2010). Foreign and second language anxiety. *Language Teaching, 43*(2), 154-167.

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal, 70*(2), (125-132).

MacIntyre, P. D. (1999). Language anxiety: A review of the research for language teachers. In Young, D. J. (Ed.), *Affect in foreign language and second language learning: A practical guide to creating a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere* .New York: McGraw Hill.

Saito, Y., Horwitz, E., & Garza, J. (1999) Foreign Language Reading Anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal, 83*, 202-218.

Saito, Y., Thomas, G. J., & Horwitz, E. K. (1999). Foreign Language Reading Anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal, 83*(2), 202-218.

Sanz, C., (1999). The relationship between reading, anxiety, and reading comprehension. *Conference on L1 & L2 Acquisition of Spanish and Portuguese & Third Hispanic Linguistics Symposium.* Abstract retrieved January 17, 2004, from http://data.georgetown.edu/departments/spanport/conferences/abstract.cfm?ID=15

Sellars, V. (2000) Anxiety and reading comprehension in Spanish as a foreign language. *Foreign Language Annals, 33*(5), (512-521).

Song, J. (2010). *The effects of anxiety on Korean ESL learners' reading strategy use and reading comprehension*. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Texas, Austin, United States.

Sparks, R.L., Ganschow, L., Aritzer, M., Siebenhar, D., Plageman, M. (1997). Language anxiety and proficiency in a foreign language. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 85*, (325-342).

Spielmann, G.& Radnofsky M.L. (2001). Learning language under tension: new directions from a qualitative study. *The Modern Language Journal, 85*(2),(259-278).

Young, D. J. (1991). Creating a low-anxiety classroom environment: what does language anxiety research suggest? *The Modern Language Journal, 75*(4), (426-439).

Title

The Effect of Explicit Training of Metacognitive Vocabulary Learning Strategies on Recall and Retention of Idioms by Advanced EFL Students

Authors

Mehdi Mardani (Ph.D. candidate)
University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran

Ahmad Moinzadeh (Ph.D.)
University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran

Bio data

Mehdi Mardani, Ph.D. candidate of TEFL at Isfahan University, Isfahan, Iran. His main research interests are: reading comprehension, vocabulary acquisition, and testing. He has published in some international journals including *Journal of Language, Society, and Culture, Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Iranian EFL Journal,* and *Reading in a Foreign Language.*

Ahmad Moinzadeh, associate professor at University of Isfahan, Iran from 1995 to 2011. At present, he runs Linguistics, Applied Linguistics, Second Language Acquisition, and First Language Acquisition courses. He has published several articles in the field of TEFL and has supervised many dissertations and theses in this field.

Abstract

This study is an attempt to measure the extent to which retention and recall of idioms are affected by explicit metacognitive vocabulary learning strategy training. Based on their score on the TOEFL proficiency test, 50 advanced female students were selected and assigned to control and experimental groups. First, it was tried to measure short term recall of idioms. For this purpose, some part of the class during two succeeding sessions was allocated to teaching idioms, and the third session, the idioms that were taught during the previous sessions were tested through a (short-term test) to measure their short term recall. A t-test was run to compare the short term recall of the two

groups. Three weeks after the treatment, a post-test was administered to show the difference between the gained mean score of the pre- and post-tests on long term retention test. A t-test was run to compare the two groups in terms of their long term retention. The results indicated that treatment was effective for both short term and long term recall of idioms.

Keywords: *Metacognitive vocabulary learning strategies, Explicit strategy instruction, Idioms, Short term recall, Long term retention, EFL students.*

Introduction

Two common themes in foreign language learning are language learning strategies and vocabulary learning, and they have taken up too much room in SLA research. Vocabulary, according to Zimmerman (as cited in Coady and Huckin, 1997), is central to language and language learning. As a subcategory of vocabulary, idioms are believed to be the stumbling block for foreign and second language learning. Strategies, however, are believed to be facilitator of learning, storage and recall of information. There is now convincing evidence that people who use these strategies are more successful than the ones who do not use them or in a lower rate (Oxford, 1990). This means that appropriate and tactful use of language learning strategies helps learners overcome most of their learning problems.

But, a problem that challenges most EFL/ESL students (and sometimes teachers) is that some of the words they learn or memorize will soon be forgotten or hard to retrieve in real context of use. This problem raises the question of "why students cannot remember the meaning of words after the first encounter". Hulstijn (1997) provides the most likely answer to this question by asserting that students do enough for the immediate comprehension but not enough for the retention over time. Retention over time requires learners to make effort to link the words with their meanings. As far as the definitions of recall and retention are concerned it should be pointed out that to date there is no unanimous definition on the time interval between the first exposure and the second encounter. In other words, there is no certain amount of time that can be considered as short term recall or long term retention. In this study recall and retention have been operationally defined in the following ways. What is meant by *immediate recall* is the ability of learners to remember the material immediately at the end of treatment in each session. This is based on the Laufer's (2007) definition for short-term recall: it is usually measured immediately after performing the task that is supposed to lead to retaining some information, in our case- vocabulary, or after a short intervention. You can test

the retention of these words immediately, or make the learners do another task for 10-20 minutes and then test the target vocabulary. For long term retention some people administer a test a month or even 3 months; some people repeat measurement several times to check how much learners retain at different points of time. But there are practical problems with testing vocabulary long after initial exposure. So, long-term retention, in short, is operationally defined as testing students three weeks after instruction (B. Laufer, personal communication, October 29, 2007).

Language Learning Strategies

Instruction of language learning strategies, especially vocabulary learning strategies, will provide learners with a kind of autonomy. As a result, autonomous learners become more highly motivated. This means that motivated students are more likely to seek out opportunities to use the target language and make maximum use of them. As Wenden (1991) reminds us, there is a proverb that says: Give a man a fish and he eats for a day but teach him how to fish and he eats for a lifetime. Applying this proverb to language teaching we can conclude that if students are provided with strategies to work with they will reach a level of autonomy at which they will be able to work out the answer to their problems. According to Knowles (1997), one of the main aims of education, in general, and language teaching, in particular is to help students to develop a sense or attitude that learning is a lifetime process and requires skills of self-directedness; one who is equipped with such appropriate skills and strategies to learn a language in a self-directed way is an autonomous learner.

Research in Language Learning Strategy and vocabulary learning

Oxford (1990) asserts that "learning strategies are steps taken by students to enhance their own learning" (p. 1).It is important to point out that there are tens of different language learning strategies. They are covered under different names, classification systems for learning strategies or taxonomies by different researchers (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1992; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; and Oxford, 1990).The most famous models for the teaching of language learning strategies favor either a direct teaching model, or an indirect model. Generally, in direct or explicit training, learner's attention is directed towards the strategy being taught. According to William and Burden (1997), "this model is preferred to indirect teaching where learners are not told the purpose of the tasks (p.162)". Accordingly, in the present study language learning strategies are presented directly.

A number of qualitative studies in the field of lexical acquisition have explored the strategies that successful L2 learners employ in acquisition of words. Most have used quantitative research and tried to find patterns. Pioneering work in this area was undertaken by Ahmad (1989, as cited in Riazi, Sadeghi and zare, 2005). Other works in this area are (Carter, R., & M. McCarthy, 1988; Gu & Johnson, 1996; Eslami Rasekh and ranjbari, 2003; Gu, 2003; Marefat and Shirazi, 2003), to mention a few. The area of vocabulary language learning strategies has been investigated (ex. Flevel, J., 1976; Oxford, R.,1990; O'Malley, J. M. & A. U. Chamot.,1995; Williams, M. & Burden, R., 1997;Ellis, R. 1999; Oxford, R., 2003;); but, as it was pointed out earlier, most research has examined the effectiveness of one or two strategies and few have adopted a holistic approach. Royer (1973) found that rote repetition is less effective than structured review; Baxter (1980) argued that dependence on bilingual dictionaries.

What oxford (1990) strongly believe in is that indirect strategy training reinforce the direct ones. The result is that learners using vocabulary learning strategies will recall information netter than those who do not use. The reason of this, as Hall (2004) indicates, is that the learners make use of his knowledge of his memory system. Following this line of research Marefat and Shirazi (2003) investigated the impact of teaching direct learning strategies on the retention of vocabulary by Iranian EFL learners. The results of their study showed that learners' use of strategy in short-term retention outweighs that in long term retention. Eslami Rasekh and Ranjbary (2003) also have investigated the effect of metacognitive learning strategy training through the use of explicit strategy instruction on the development of lexical knowledge of EFL students. The result of their study showed that explicit strategy training has a significant positive effect on the vocabulary learning of EFL students. What is easily felt is the fact that there is a common sense between expert in either fields of strategy training and lexical approach that strategy training will have a positive effect on learning, retention and recall of idioms.

Purpose of the study

This study is an attempt to make a compromise between proponents of the view of language as rule-based and those of memory-based view. Applying this dichotomy to the present study, we see that there have been controversies among theorists. On the one hand, Chomsky, as the main supporter of rule-based system, emphasizes the capacity of human beings to create and interpret an infinite number of sentences that are unique and have never been heard or produced before, and on the other hand, people like Wilkins, Lewis, and Skehan as supporters

of the memory-based view argue that without grammar very little can be conveyed, but without word nothing can be conveyed (Thornbury, 2002). In fact, the latter group believes that although a rule-based view is much more generative, in real use it is the lexical items that are stored in the memory which are active. In other words, most of the things we say are repetitive. In fact, we are not to downgrade the potentials of a rule-based system, but what we want to say in this study is that most of the language, especially spoken language comprises prefabricated expressions.

Lexical competence or vocabulary knowledge is supposed to be the building block of any language. Helping students to increase their repertoires in prefabricated chunks is one solution to the issue of fluency, a feature of language that even some advanced learners cannot master. One way to achieve this is through integrating direct instruction of vocabulary learning strategies. Thus, if the results of this study demonstrate a significant effect on retention of lexical phrases, especially idioms, it can be suggested to language teachers to adopt a strategic approach to arouse students' awareness of the role of vocabulary language learning strategies. The approach which has vocabulary as its central point is known as lexical approach. This approach, according to Richards and Rodgers (1986), is derived from the belief that the building blocks of language learning and language teaching are not grammar, functions, notions, or other units, but lexis. In fact, Lewis (1993) proposed an approach to language teaching which moved vocabulary to the forefront of ELT. Basedupon the afore-mentioned discussions, the following research hypotheses stand out:

H 1. Direct teaching of vocabulary learning strategies has no significant effect on long retention of idioms by Iranian EFL students.

H 2. Direct teaching of vocabulary learning strategies has no significant effect on short-term recall of idioms by Iranian EFL students.

Method

Participants

50 female students whose age ranged from 16 to 24 participated in this study. According to the placement test of the institution, the subjects enjoyed the same proficiency level. In fact, they had passed several terms of EFL instruction and at the time of the study they were at the advanced level. This signifies that they have been able to obtain the acceptable scores to fulfill the requirement of the institute.However, in order to double-check the homogeneity of the two groups in terms of proficiency the TOEFL test was administered. The result of the t-test also indicated that they enjoyed the same level of proficiency before the treatment phase.

The mean score of the two groups was M= 64.55. One group consisting of 25 subjects was randomly assigned to the control group and the other to the experimental group. More specifically, the subjects who had already been divided into two groups by the institute were assigned to the control and experimental groups, based on their scores on TOEFL.

Instrumentation

Four instruments were used in this study, as follows:

- the TOEFL test,

- vocabulary learning strategies questionnaire (VLS Version 3, by Gu and Johnson, 1997),

- four teacher-made immediate recall tests of idioms, and

- a long term recalltest of idiom.

The TOEFL language proficiency test

The TOEFL proficiency test was used to ensure the homogeneity of the subjects in terms of their language proficiency. Another important reason why the TOEFL was administered was that it was used as a criterion for estimating the reliability and validity of the teacher-made tests for measuring short term and long term retention. The TOEFL was piloted with a group of 20 students similar to the subjects of the main study. It consisted of three parts and all parts were in the form of Multiple-choice questions. TOEFL enjoyed a high reliability: R= .83.

Vocabulary learning strategies questionnaire

In this study we adopted the questionnaire of vocabulary learning strategies (VLQ, Version 3, see Appendix 4) devised by Gu and Johnson (1996). The questionnaire consists of 91 items. Serving as a consciousness-raising activity, the questionnaire also provided a general assessment of the types of strategies that learners were familiar with; it also elicited students' beliefs about vocabulary strategies and their self-reported vocabulary learning strategies. The first part of this questionnaire includes beliefs about vocabulary learning strategies. The second part includes types of vocabulary learning strategies, which are classified into eight headings, each with its respective subheadings. Namely, *"beliefs about vocabulary learning","metacognitive regulation", "guessing strategies", "note-taking strategies", "dictionary use strategies", "memory strategies: rehearsal, "memory strategies: encoding", and "activation strategies".*

Idiom long-term recall test

In order to tap the recall ability of the subjects a 40-item multiple-choice idiom pre/post test which was developed and standardized by the researcher, was used. These items had passed through different filters before being included in the final version of the test. It should be noted that the same test was used as posttest for measuring long term recall of idioms three weeks after the program to measure long-term retention of idioms. Though the same test was used for pre and post test, in order to minimize the effect of test familiarity, the same items were rearranged in two different ways, so that the two tests would not look very much alike. Furthermore, the students were not told that the same test would be used for pre and post test. Though at first it may seem to violate the issue of ethics and human consent, but there was no other choice. Moreover, the interval between the two administrations was long enough to minimize this test effect. Using KR-21, which is a conservative estimate of reliability, reliability index of the test was calculated which was R= 0.70. Because it is an underestimate of the true reliability we can safely interpret it as a significant index. In other word, this formula never overestimates the true reliability. Also the criterion-related validity index of the test was calculated to be V= 0.75. This index is satisfactory.

Idiom short-term recall tests (quiz)

In order to measure the short-term recall of idioms four short-term-recall tests or quizzes of idioms, each comprising of ten items,were developed by the researcher. In fact, each test measured the recall of the ten idioms which were taught during the previous two sessions in the same week. These tests were immediately administered at the end of each week after the materials of the previous sessions were rehearsed (Appendix 4). The reliability indices of the four tests were: R1= 0.53, R2= 0. 51, R3= 0.45, and R4= 0.47, respectively. Again, as in the case of long-term test, the reliabilities of these tests were underestimated because of the use of KR-21 formula which is a conservative one. The criterion-related validity indices of these quizzes were: V1= 0.60, V2= 0.42, V3= 0.60, and V4= 0.29, respectively.

Procedure

During the pilot study the idiom tests were constructed and piloted, and during the main phase of the study these tools were applied to measure the effect of the independent variable on dependent variable. In the pilot study a list of idioms including 50 items were selected based on the following criteria:
- selection of the most frequently heard or seen idioms
- consulting some experienced colleagues

- lack of a word-for-word equivalent in participants' L1
- Teachability

During the main phase of the study both the experimental and control groups used New Interchange as the main book of the course; however, part of the class time was allocated to teaching idioms as a supplementary material to the two groups. The only difference was that the experimental group received language learning strategy instruction as treatment and the control group received a placebo treatment. The students in the experimental group were given an introductory lesson about language learning strategies. Then strategies were incorporated into the teaching material, based on the CALLA model of O'Malley and Chamot (1990) which includes five stages:

- preparation,
- presentation,
- practice,
- evaluation,
- and expansion.

Each session five idioms were taught (three sessions a week) and in the last session of the same week we had a full rehearsal of the idioms. Immediately a quiz or test for measuring short-term recall was administered. This procedure was followed for four weeks, and two weeks after the instruction the long-term retention test was administered to measure retention. The results and findings are presented below.

Results

In order to probe the first null hypothesis which states that direct teaching of vocabulary learning strategies has no significant effect on long term retention of idioms, the two groups participated in the long-term retention test.The same test was used as the pretest and posttest.In order to compare the mean scores of the control and experimental groups gained mean score for each group was computed by subtracting the posttest mean score from the pretest mean score. The descriptive statistics for the two groups are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics (gained score)

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Gained score	Experimental	25	5.8000	4.38748	.87750
	Control	25	1.0000	1.89297	.37859

Next, an independent t-test was run to compare the gained mean scores of the two groups, the results of which indicate that there is a significant difference between the scores of the two groups on the retention test. As can be observed in Table 2, the amount of t-observed value at 48 degree of freedom is greater than the critical t-value which is 2.70 (i.e. *t= 5.02, df=48, p< .05).*Thus, the first null hypothesis stating that *"direct teaching of vocabulary learning strategies has no effect on long-term retention of idioms of Iranian advanced EFL learners"* is rejected and it can be concluded that direct strategy instruction does have a significant effect on long term retention of idioms

Table 2. Independent t-test (long-term tests gained score)

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. 2(tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal Variance assumed	30.172	.00	5.023	48	.000	4.800	.9557	2.878	6.722
variance not assumed			5.023	32.636	.000	4.800	.9557	2.855	6.745

To probe the second null hypothesis stating that direct teaching of vocabulary learning strategies has no significant effect on short-term recall of idioms by advanced Iranian EFL students, four quizzes measuring short-term retention of idioms were given to the subjects. In order to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the four tests an independent t-test was run, as displayed in Table 3

Table 3. Independent t-test (mean score of the four tests)

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
					Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df				Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	3.763	.058	9.011	48	.000	2.17000	.24081	1.6858	2.65419
variance not assumed			9.011	43.217	.000	2.17000	.24081	1.6844	2.65558

As can be seen, the t-observed value is 9.01. This amount of t-value at 48 degree of freedom is greater than the critical t-value, i.e. 2.70; in statistical terms: *t= 5.02, df= 48, p< .05.* Thus, the second null hypothesis stating that *"direct teaching of vocabulary learning strategies has no effect on short-term recall of idioms of advanced Iranian EFL learners"* is rejected and it can be concluded that direct strategy instruction has a significant effect on short-term recall of idioms by the students. Concerning the second research question, in order to test the gradual increase or decrease of the means of the two groups from Test 1 to Test 4a repeated measure ANOVA was run, the results of which are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Repeated ANOVA

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Overall mean	238.555	7	34.079	34.023	.000
Intercept	8646.125	1	8646.125	8631.739	.000
GROUP	235.445	1	235.445	235.053	.000
WEEK	.495	3	.165	.165	.920
GROUP * WEEK	2.615	3	.872	.870	.458
Error	192.320	192	1.002		
Total	9077.000	200			
Corrected Total	430.875	199			

.

As can be observed, the F-value of 235.05 has a p-value of .000 which indicates that the difference between the overall mean scores of the two groups is significant. The results are displayed in Graph 1 below. As Graph 1 illustrates, it can be concluded that the experimental

group (the upper line) has outperformed the control group on the four short term tests. The general pattern of movement of the two groups indicates that only the experimental group has a gradual movement from test 1 to test 2, no increase from test 2 to test 3, and a sharp increase from test 3 to 4. In other words, although there are differences in the performance of our experimental group from week to week, overall this group outperformed the control group.

Graph 1. Performance of experimental and control groups on tests from week 1 to 4.
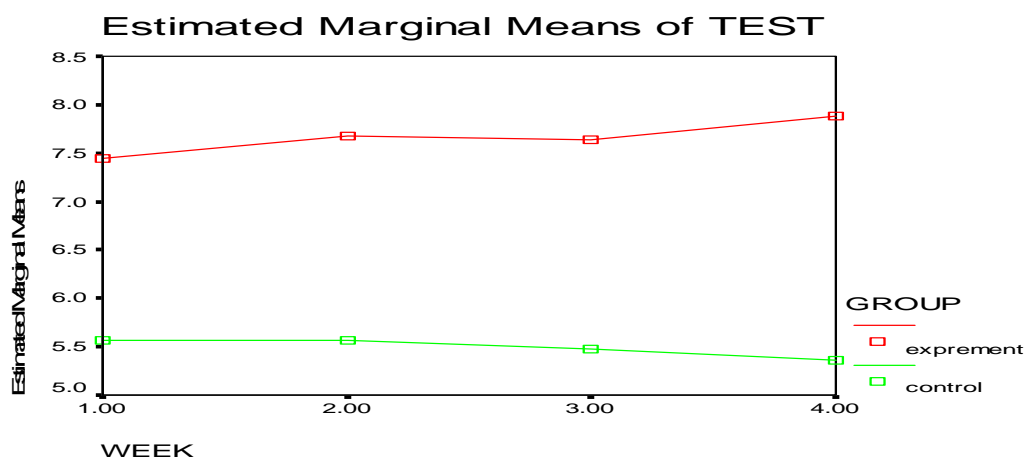
The findings of the present study indicate that direct instruction of strategies has a significant effect on the recall and retention of idioms. The t-values of 5.02, and 9.01 obtained for the retention and recall, respectively, and the F-value of 235.05 all were higher than their related critical values.

Discussion

These findings also provide further confirmation for the results of the previous studies which conclude that language learning strategies, in general, and vocabulary learning strategies, in particular, have significant effects on retention and recall of words and idioms (Cohen & Aphek, 1980; Laufer & Shmueli, 1997; Marefat & Shirazi, 2003; Atai, Akbari, & Afzali Shahri, 2004). The findings of the study conducted by Atai, et al. (2004), for instance, showed that sentence writing, as a word-focus vocabulary learning strategy had a significant effect on both immediate recall of the idioms and their delayed recall. Marefat and Shirazi (2003) also examined the effect of teaching direct learning strategies (memory, cognitive, and compensation) and their subcategories on vocabulary retention—short term and long term—of EFL learners. Their result showed that strategy instruction in short term retention far outweighs than in long term retention.

Related to studies done in this field of study, Laufer and Shmueli (1997) also conducted a research. They examined the relationship between different teaching techniques and memorization of new words in terms of both short-term and long-term. In the same line of research, findings of the present study also investigated the effect of two types of metacognitive vocabulary learning strategy, namely selective attention and self-initiation, on the recall and retention of idioms. The results showed that metacognitive strategy instruction had significant effect on both types of remembering (recall, and retention). Strategy instruction not only had significant effect on recall and retention, but also as the instruction proceeded, the effect became more and more significant. This latter effect was shown by the result of the ANOVA procedure. This means that strategy instruction is a business that requires long term investment from all participants including teachers, students, course designer, and so forth.

Based on the findings of previous studies and considering the fact that research which has directly addressed the issue of prefabricated chunks or formulaic expressions in terms of recall or retention, it can be claimed that this study is a new version of research done in relation to language learning strategies. It is new because rather than engaging itself with providing evidences regarding the effectiveness of strategies, it takes the effectiveness of strategy instruction for granted, and instead wanted to show the depth of that effectiveness on retention (that is, short-term, or long-term) of idioms.

Conclusion

The general conclusion that can be drawn from the results of the present study is that tasks and activities that encourage learners to reflect on their own learning should be incorporated into instructional materials, as these help learners become more strategic and independent learners. Returning to the same distinction between the role of memory-based and a lexical-based function of language, and interpreting it in terms of theoretical implications, we see that what we have been trying to say in this study is that much of the things we say or produce are likely to have been produced before. In pedagogical terms, we are emphasizing a reorientation to the teaching of vocabulary (as an umbrella term), and its subcomponents such as idioms, collocations, phrasal verbs, and so forth. Based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that if regular instruction of vocabulary learning strategies is provided, and if learners are consciously aware of their own learning, learning will be dramatically enhanced. In this way, teachers can have a stronger effect on the learning process. But it should be kept

in mind that sheer presentation of these strategies is not enough. What is needed, in addition to instruction, is that teachers should routinely conduct research in their own classroom to better understand the nature of these learning strategies. Related to the findings of this study, the following implications are presented:

- Closely related to the first implication is the fact that learners need to be provided with tasks to help them organize their mental lexicon.

- Learners need to be provided with opportunities to be actively involved in the learning of words.

- Learners have to be encouraged to take the responsibility for vocabulary expansion

- Teachers should raise students' consciousness of the importance of these strategies by explaining the nature and significance of learning strategies to their students.

- EFL teachers should try to discourage application of non-communicative learning strategies such as translation, rote memorization, and repetition, and instead try to raise students' awareness of topics such as metacognitive (thinking about thinking) strategies, which are profitable means for overcoming the difficulties, dilemmas, embarrassments, and potholes facing EFL students.

Suggestions for Further Research

The following research avenues, which are related to the issue investigated in the present study, are recommended for further research:

1. Vocabulary learning strategies are so varied that including all of them in this study was next to impossible. Other studies can be conducted to find other vocabulary learning strategies and measure their effect on EFL learners

2. The subjects of this study were all female advanced students. Similar studies can be conducted with different levels of language proficiency, gender, age, and social classes.

3. The variables under investigation were vocabulary learning strategies and recall of idioms. Other studies can be conducted to consider the effect of metacognitive strategy training on other types of multi-word utterances such as collocation, phrasal verbs, and the like.

4.

References

Atai, M. R., Akbari, I. &Afzali Shahri, M. (2004). The Effect of sentence writing versus multiple exposures in different contexts on EFL learners' acquisition of idioms. *IJAL, 7, (1).* 46-47.

Brown, D. (2000). *Principle of language teaching and learning.* (Fourth Edition). White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.

Carter, R., & McCarthy, M. (Eds.). (1988). *Vocabulary and language teaching.* London: Longman.

Chamot, A. U. & O'Malley, J. M. (1994). Language learner and learning strategies. In N. C. Ellis (Ed.), *Implicit and explicit learning of languages* (pp. 371-392). London: Academic Press.

Coady, J. & T. Huckin(Eds). (1997).*Second language vocabulary acquisition.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cohen A. D.,& Aphek, E. (1980). Retention of second language vocabulary over time: Investigating the role of mnemonic association. *System, 8 (2),* 221-35.

Ellis, R. (1999). *Understanding second language acquisition.*Oxford: OxfordUniversity Press.

Eslami Rasekh, Z.,& Ranjbary, R. (2003).Vocabulary learning strategy training for vocabulary learning. *TESL-EJ, 7, (2) p, 23-38.*

Flevel, J. (1976). Vocabulary learning aspects of problem solving. In Resnick, L. (Ed). *The nature of intelligence.* Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Association.

Gu, P. Y. (2003). Vocabulary learning in a second language: Person, task, context and strategies. *TESOL, (7), 2-*23

Gu, Y., & Johnson, R. K. (1997). Vocabulary learning strategies and language learning outcomes*. Language Learning, (46),* 643-679.

Hall, H. (2004). *Metacognition.*Unpublished Ph. D Thesis. University of Missouri.

Hulstijn, H. (1997). Mnemonic Method in Foreign Language Vocabulary Teaching. In Coady, J. & Huckin, T. (1997). *Second vocabulary acquisition; a rationale for pedagogy (pp. 166-184).* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Knowles, M. (1997). *The Modern Practice of Adult Education.* New York: Association Press.

Laufer, B. & Shmueli, K. (1997). Memorizing new words: Does teaching have anything to do with it. *RELC JOURNAL Vol (28). No.1.* 89-108.

Lewis, M. (1993). *The lexical approach: The state of ELT and a way forward*. Hove: Language Teaching Publications.

Marefat, H.,& Shirazi, M. A. (2003). The Impact of teaching direct learning strategies in the retention of vocabulary by EFL Learners. *The Reading Matrix,* 3, 2.

O'Malley, J. M. & A. U. Chamot. (1990).*Learning strategies in second language acquisition.*Cambridge: CambridgeUniversity Press.

O'Malley, J. M. & A. U. Chamot. (1995).*Learning strategies in second language acquisition.*UK: Cambridge University Press.

Oxford, R. (1990). *Language learning strategies*: What every teacher should know. New York: Newbury House.

Oxford, R. (2003). Language learning strategies: Concepts and relationship*, IRAL, 41, PP.* 271-278.

Riazi, Sadeghi. & Zare. (2005). The effect of EFL student's proficiency and age, their overall pattern of vocabulary strategy. *IJAL, 6, (2),* 87-106.

Richards, J. C., & T. S. Rodgers. (1986). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*: A description and analysis. New York: CambridgeUniversity Press.

Royer, J. M. (1973). Memory effects for test-like events during acquisition of foreign language vocabulary. *Psychological Reports, 32 (2),* 195-8.

Rubin, J. (1975). What the "good language learner" can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly* 9 (1): 41-51.

Skehan, P. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford: OxfordUniversity Press.

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

Thornbury, S. (2002). *How to teach vocabulary*. Malaysia: Longman.

Wenden, A. (1991). Learning strategies for learner autonomy: Planning and implementing learner training for language learners. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Williams, M. & Burden, R. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers*: A social constructivist approach.Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Zimmerman, C. B. (1997). Historical trends in second language vocabulary instruction. In J. Coady & T. Huckin (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition*: *A rationale for pedagogy* (pp. 5-19). Cambridge: CambridgeUniversity Press.

Title

A Semantic Analysis of Interchangeability and Synonymy of the Discourse Markers *But and However*

Author

Hassan Fartousi (Ph.D. candidate)
International Islamic University Malaysia

Bio data

Hassan Fartousia Ph.D.candidate in TESL in IIUM in Malaysia. He has 15 years of experience in teaching English and served Iranian public high schools for 8 years, taught in American universities, colleges, and international schools in the UAE, and offered his teaching services to IIUM lower education in Malaysia for 2 years.

Abstract

The paper tries to offer real life responses to the research questions. In doing so, the primary methodological rationale for this research is to exemplify and advocate the use of real ' performance' data called from a large corpus of written language representing actual native use English language. This research deals with the delicate category of synonymy and interchangeability of selected troublesome discourse markers from the point of view of the concepts of 'invariant meaning' and 'markedness theory'. The theoretical and methodological foundations underlying this investigation are invariant meaning, markedness and distinctive feature theory, survey, and discourse analysis. Two reliable dictionaries, American Heritage Dictionary and Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English have been used in this research. In addition, a survey questionnaire was designed and administered to grade 10 students of the International Islamic School Malaysia. The results of this unobtrusive study shows that *but* and *however* are neither synonyms nor interchangeable with regards to markedness theory, TIME magazine corpus, and survey analysis. They can replace each other in rare cases when the markedness feature of 'semantic negativity' is either neutral or peripheral though.

Keywords: Discourse markers or connectives, Synonymy, Interchangeability, Invariant meaning, Specificity.

Introduction

Discourse cohesion refers to the linguistic links between sentences. Such links demonstrate the relationship between the ideas contained in these sentences. It can be noted that cohesion not only assures the written text flows smoothly, but boosts clarity so that the reader is able to follow the development of ideas in a text more easily without going astray. In everyday life, it is typical to see many non-native English speakers easily interchange some minimal cohesive pairs. The purpose of this study is to test whether this kind of interchangeability between the set under question is plausible.

The commonsense notion that words have synonyms or may be used synonymously is the most difficult to substantiate objectively, so much so that many philosophers have despaired of the task and declared synonymy an impossibility except in the most highly formalized languages where a rigorous definition of the notion of identity could be given. The problem is that when we write $x = y$ in formalized systems then x and y may be substituted for one another in every context in which they occur, without altering that context. In ordinary discourse there is always a change in context when we substitute synonyms, for the introduced synonym creates a new environment and an objective change in meaning. The general notion of synonym, that two words may be interchanged in a sentence without changing the meaning of the sentence, is clear, but can always be made to fail in some critical sense. (Tyler, 2003, the said and the unsaid, p.339)

Purpose of the study

The English language has almost dominated the world. It has become the language of the globe. Observing every day conversations in general and Malaysian school students in particular has prompted the researcher to embark on a study with the intention of contributing to language improvement. Thus the main objective of this analytical investigation lies in providing rational, acceptable responses to the research questions and to see whether these answers could yield useful benefits to ESL learners in general and Malaysian students in particular. This investigation also tends to shed light on the fields of Semantic and Semiotics where not a great deal of studies have been recently carried out. This exploration holds a particular perspective. It attempts to attend to Malaysian school students' challenges in distinguishing between the members of troublesome discourse connectives such as those under investigation in this research.

It is almost six decades since research and practice in English Language Teaching have started to introduce the four interrelated threads of the English tapestry as listening, speaking, reading and writing (Brown, 2001). In addition to the above threads, ESL learners needto include at least two more equally essential strands namely *accuracy* and *fluency* to the proponents. This study, accordingly, seeks to empower the ESL learners' accuracy to some extent. In case this investigation succeeds, it is hoped that ESL learners will benefit from the findings of this study by gaining some knowledge regarding the interchangeability and synonymy that may or may not exist between the two sets of selected discourse markers. ESL learners will hopefully get to know where, when and how to employ each of these chosen markers judiciously.

The findings of this research exploration might be modulated. The modules could be in form of on-line or hardcopy. It is hoped that (Malaysian) ESL learners would find access to the module and make use of it.

This Semantic and Semiotic exploratory research might serve as a drive. Other researchers may dig more in-depth in these less excavated fields and gain better or different findings.

Based on the nature of the study, and since the selected set of cohesive and discourse markers – i.e. *however* vs. *but* has some features in common, the research revolves around answering the two questions below. The nature of both questions for the selected set centres on the semiotic, semantic, lexical and syntactical differences as well as similarities between the foresaid pair.

(1) Are however and *but* synonyms?

(2) Are *however* and *but* interchangeable?

An attempt has been made to offer a broader and clearer response to each research question based on the findings of the methodological instruments used in this research.

Method

Recent decades of social science research have tended to focus on the quantitative data analysis techniques. This focus, however, sometimes conceals another approach to making sense of social observations: *Qualitative analysis* – methods for examining social research

data without converting them to a numerical format. This approach predates quantitative analysis. It remains a useful approach to data analysis and is enjoying a resurgence of interest among social scientists. (Babbie, 2010)

Discourse analyses are very much acquainted with the qualitative research methodology rather than the quantitative one. Thus this research study seeks to eliminate the well-known dichotomy between these supplementary methodologies by hiring both. It is, to high extent, hoped that the new methodological duo could spice off the current analytical work with authenticity, validity, and reliability.

Design

Due to the instinct of the study, and also to combine the quantitative and qualitative approaches, survey as well as discourse analysis have been chosen to be the research methodologies. The survey will be in the form of a questionnaire distributed to school students. As for the corpus analysis, many example statements used in the TIME magazine have been chosen. A number of extracts would be analyzed and tabulated within the investigation to reinforce the results of this study. The Time magazine corpus extracts have been chosen based on convenience sampling. Of all authentic corpus extracts, some example statements are analyzed for each of the two discourse connectives in question which are *however* and *but*. The selected Time magazine extracts are used within the study to substantiate the synonymy or non-synonymy that might exist between the pair i.e. *but* and *however*. An inventory of all the extracts is listed in Appendix 2 at the end of the study. In addition, a questionnaire, based on the research questions, was designed and distributed to all grade 10 students studying at a school namely the International Islamic School Malaysia. The school is situated in Jalan Gombak, Selangor, Malaysia.

Data collection

Earl Babbie (2010) believes that surveys are a very old research technique. Today survey research, however, is a frequently used mode of observation in the social sciences. Survey research is probably the best method available to the social researcher who is interested in collecting original data for describing population too large to observe directly.

Survey has been selected to serve this investigation as an active instrument. The survey in the form of a questionnaire was designed and administered to two classes of grade 10 students studying in the International Islamic School in Malaysia. The survey questionnaire was first pretested to a few teachers of the same school for improvement and correction

purposes. The ESL teachers were asked to take part in and respond to the survey without telling them of the researcher's intention. After the self-administration of the survey questionnaire was over, the questionnaire was returned with delay. Amendments were made on the questionnaires and distributed to the students in two separate sessions. The group administration of survey was done to each class preceded by clear instructions of the objectives and intentions of the research as well as definitions of the two key words which exist in the questionnaire that is*synonym* and *interchangeable.* The researcher stayed in the same venue until all students filled in their responses and returned the questionnaires. The responses to the questionnaire were analyzed and turned into table1 and figure 1. Later in this paper, there exists a full description of the findings of the student survey.

Based on the nature of this linguistic analytical study and in order to employ real life language utterances, the researcher decided to make use of Time magazine corpus too. Besides the mentioned corpus, American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language (4th ed.), and Cambridge Learner's Dictionary (3rd ed.) are used to supply clear-cut definitions of the set as well as shed light on distinctions, shared shade(s) of semantic meaning(s), and syntactic structures of the relational pair i.e. *but* and *however.* To avoid any orientation, two dictionaries, one American and the other British, have been selected to obtain genuine denotative English definitions, usage notes, examples, idioms, and shade of meaning for each connective under investigation from both American and British territories where English is used as a first language. The core purpose of dictionary selection and employment is to supplement the other research instruments used in this study such as questionnaire and discourse analysis. A few of the dictionaries' light-shedding definitions and examples are used within the study. The researcher has gained a rather broad insight after going through both dictionaries. The insightful inference from the dictionaries has contributed, to some degree, to the authenticity and findings of the study.

Forty-seven 10th graders in two classes of 10 G (with twenty-three students) and 10 F (with twenty-four students) took part in and responded to the however vs. *but* questionnaire. Of the all 47 students, in two classes of 10 G and 10 F, (K and F stand for Ghazali and Farabi class sections) only three students are native English speakers while the rest are non native ones from Malaysia, Iran, Indonesia, Bangladesh, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, Jordan, Korea, etc. These students study in a school called the International Islamic School in Malaysia. The International Islamic School has an enrolment of 750 students. The targeted participants range between 16 to 19 years of age. The English language is the only medium of communication and instruction in the International Islamic School i.e. all subjects are taught using the English

Language and all teachers and administrative staff are bound to use English in conversing amongst themselves, students and parents as well. The curriculum this private school (International Islamic school) uses is the British National Curriculum.

In addition to the survey data collected from the students' responses to the questionnaire, and the data drawn from the dictionaries employed in this investigation, this paper has also relied on a corpus of literary and non-literary texts. The corpus is composed of mostly American and British political, sociological, educational, and linguistic communications. It also contains literary and non-literary works by native speakers of British, Canadian, American, and Australian English. It represents contemporary communications covering the last 5 years. It is assumed that working with real data in the form of written texts (which reflects speakers' intuitions rather than contrived or made-up examples) provides a wide and exhaustive range of data. Indeed, just as real life is more interesting than fiction; experience has shown that real language data is far more creative and challenging than merely making up one's own examples to support one's own analysis. (Tobin, 1993)

Literature review

Discourse connectives

Connectives are words or short phrases that conjoin clauses or simple sentences. The most important function of the connectives is that they explicitly specify a conceptual relationship between clauses and sentences (Halliday and Hasan, 2002).

Parrot (2002:302) gives a clear definition and states some of the different functions and uses of discourse markers as: i) to 'signpost' logical relationships and sequences. ii) to point out how bits of what we say and write relate to each other. iii) to 'manage' conversations - to negotiate who speaks and when, to monitor and express involvement in the topic. iv) to influence how the listeners or readers react. v) to express our attitude to what we say and write.

Parrot (2002:305) also states that 'There is no universally agreed way of classifying discourse markers; nor is there an exhaustive inventory of them. There are several different classifications for the meaning and functions of discourse markers, though the most often referred to are: adversative, additive, temporal, and causal.'

Having said this, Halliday (2001) believes that these categories are insufficient to clearly describe the form and function of each conjunction; he puts forward a few more categories as extension, elaboration, and enhancement, each with two sub-types: opposition and clarification, addition and variation, spatio-temporal and causal conditional, respectively.

Cohesion and coherence

Discourse cohesion analysis has gained much attention in several branches of linguistics. Most descriptive studies (Halliday & Hasan 2002, Hasan, 2003, Halliday 2001, Hoey, 2003, Martin, 1992, Halliday & Matthiessen 2004, Tanskanen, 2006) aim to develop an appropriate taxonomy for the analysis of all kinds of texts. In order to find a suitable categorization and to generalize the results, a large amount of data is necessary. This has led to the increased use of computerized text corpora in linguistic research since the late 1980s (Conrad, 2002).

Hasan (2003) argues that the overall cohesive structure of a text is captured best when looking at the so-called *cohesive chains* and their interaction through the text. With introducing the idea of the cohesive chainshe proposes a distinction between two types of chains: identity chain based on co-referentiality and similarity chain built upon non-text bound semantic relations.

The concept of *genre* refers to the pragmatic knowledge shared by the members of a discourse community about a more or less conventionalized class of communicative events with common communicative purposes (Swales, 1999). This shared knowledge concerns not only standard default elements in texts of a particular genre, but also expectations about subject matter and stylistic choices. With respect to discourse organization, we focus only on the former. It has been emphasized since the early cohesion studies (Halliday & Hasan 2002) that cohesion is sensitive to the varieties of discourse. Contrastive studies have shown that cohesion varies with the modality of discourse (in spoken and written discourse) (Tanskanen, 2006), with registers (Graesser 2004), and with spoken and written genres (Taboada, 2004). Although lexical cohesion is present in the cohesion structure of all these forms of discourse, the distribution of the cohesive types strongly differs for genres. First of all, certain cohesive links occur more typically in certain varieties of discourse than others: referential cohesion is a characteristic type of narrative discourse when investigating participant chains (Fox, 1997); ellipsis is typical of dialogical texts (Buitkiené, 2005); conjunction is a favored cohesive link in the genres of academic discourse (Verikait, 2005); finally, lexical cohesion is extremely dominant, for example, in the genres of legal discourse (Yankova, 2006). The widely investigated genres in descriptive studies are narratives, which are a rich source for the analysis of participant chains, temporal and spatial progression. Most computational linguistic studies analyze news documents for its free accessibility and for users' demand for tools to manage the constantly growing data of news (Stokes, 2004).

Dictionary definition

Two reliable dictionaries were selected to shed light on the two discourse markers under discussion that is *however* and *but*. First, the American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, 4th edition, throws light on *however*as follows:

however

      (1) In whatever manner or way:

            However he did it, it was very clever.

      (2) To whatever degree or extent:

            They have begun, *however* reluctantly, to acknowledge the legitimacy

of some of the concern.

      (3) Nonetheless; Nevertheless;

The same dictionary i.e. the American Heritage Dictionary points out to the following definitions and usage notes for *but:*

but

      (1) On the contrary:

          The plan caused not prosperity *but* ruin.

          Plausible *but* fallacious argumentation.

      (2) Contrary to expectation; yet:

          She organized her work *but* accomplished very little. He is tired *but*

happy.

      (3) Except

          Containing a group of four carbon atoms: *but* yl.

The Cambridge Dictionary of Contemporary English (third edition) offers the details below for *however:*

however (adverb)

      (1) used when you are adding a fact or piece of information that seems

surprising, or seems very different from what you have just said

[= nevertheless]:

This is a cheap and simple process. *However* there are dangers.

An extremely unpleasant disease which is, *however*, easy to treat.

(2) used to say that it does not matter how big, good, serious etc something is because it will not change a situation in any way [= no matter how]:

You should report any incident, *however* minor it is.

We have to finish, *however* long it takes.

(3) however much/many

I really want the car, *however* much it costs.

(4) especially British English used to show surprise when you ask how somethinghappens or how someone does something:

However did he get that job?

However (Conjunction)

in whatever way:

You can do it *however* you like.

However you look at it, it was a wicked thing to do.

The Cambridge Dictionary of contemporary English explains *but* as follows:

But (Adverb)

only:

This is *but* one example of what can happen when things go badly wrong.

It's going to be difficult. Anyway, we can *but* try.

but (conjunction)

(1) used to connect two statements or phrases when the second one adds something different or seems surprising after the first one:

It's an old car, *but* it's very reliable.

They rushed to the hospital, *but* they were too late.

(2) used to introduce a statement that explains why the thing you have mentioned did nothappen or is not possible:

I'd like to go *but* I'm too busy.

They would have married sooner, *but* they had to wait for her divorce.

(3) used after a negative to emphasize that it is the second part of the sentence thatis true:

He lied to the court not just once, *but* on several occasions.

Results

In the set *however* vs. *but*, it is obvious that they as English adverbs are thought to be synonymous. There are huge quantities of people who employ the above discourse markers interchangeably and do believe that they both bear the same (shade) of meaning and function whereas some academicians contend that the two so-called synonymous forms *however* and *but* are different in word order, semantic domains, etc.

It is possible to say that when *however* and *but* function as connectives or conjunctive words, they are seldom synonymous and therefore sparingly interchangeable. It should be noted that there exists a condition under which substitution could be valid, i.e. in case there is no emphasis of 'semantic negativity'. In other words, both connectives in question, could rarely replace each other however their messages, to some extent, might change.

Findings through time magazine corpus

It is worth looking at the first example in order to postulate the synonymy that might exists between the relational pair i.e. *however* and *but*.

1) John tried kind of hard, *but* lost the competition. (TIME magazine

corpus 2005)

The above sentence might mean 'John tried kind of hard. He failed to win the competition'. The above example is also a great case of interchangeability. It seems that substitutionability is possible. Therefore, the new sentence might emerge in the next example below:

*2)*He*wever* John tried kind of hard, he lost the competition. (TIME

magazinecorpus 2005)

The above sentence helps us understand that the two deeds, i.e.' trying' and 'failing to win', are in one sense semantically opposite. To put it simply, one can say the second clause in each of

the examples above, provides a surprise in a sense that its listeners collect their wits to pay attention to what is said after each of the connectives. However, the aim of this part is to introduce and focus on interchangeability and synonymy. The following examples along with their explanations would definitely distinguish the discrepancies between the two members of the set and teach us how to be picky at them.

3) I am sorry you suffer so badly from panic attacks, *but* you could keep them under control with EFT treatment. (TIME magazine corpus 2005)

4) I am sorry you suffer so badly from panic attacks, *however* you could Keep them under control with EFT treatment. (TIME magazine corpus 2005)

To elaborate on the above two extracts, it should be pointed out that in extract 3, you are disagreeing with them and you are showing them you don't really feel sorry about their panic attacks. You aren't sympathetic to them. You don't understand them. You alienate them. Thus the rest of the message will get lost because the listeners or readers automatically raise their defense. Conversely, when the word *however* is used, listeners or readers do not treat in the same way at all. The speaker or writer is adding something to it rather than negating what s(he) just said. The result is that the interlocutor will listen much more to what (he) will say next.

Attending to the following extracts from the TIME linguistic corpus may illuminate in a way that the distinction between the members of the pair would emerge outstandingly.

5) Smoking is legal, *but* it's really damaging to your health. (TIME magazine corpus 2005)

The above corpus extract has two clauses. The first clause states 'the legality of smoking' while the second one speaks of 'damaging'. 'Damaging' is in sharp disagreement and contrast with 'legality of smoking'. The second clause is used to disagree with and negate the notion presented in the first clause (legality of smoking). So *however* which is well-known and marked for 'addition' is unable to replace *but* in the above example. The same rule and explanation can be used to prove the non-interchangeability and non-synonymy of *but* and *however* for the extracts 6 through 9.

6)"Not this *but* that" shouted my dad. (TIME magazine corpus 2005)

7) The mayor proposed a new regulatory ordinance, *but* the city council did not approve the measure. (TIME magazine corpus 2005)

8) The Elian Gonzalez saga is a one-of-a-kind international showdown, *but* it's also part of a rising American debate over parents' rights. (TIME magazine corpus 2005)

9)*But* will it last? # Last week actor Michael Douglas, 55, got engaged. (TIME magazine corpus 2005)

Now it is almost vivid that the discourse linker *however* is exclusively employed to refer to remembrance and addition of points. Hence the following examples illustrate the accurate use of *however* which is no way replaceable by *but*.

10)You're doing great; *however* you could improve your handwriting a bit. (TIME magazine corpus 2005)

In the above extract, two actions exist. One is 'doing great' and the other 'improving handwriting'. The second action ' improving' is an additional quality for the first action i.e. 'doing great'. No contrast or semantic negativity is found in the second clause. The second clause, instead, serves as a gentle remembrance to the subject of the first clause i.e. 'you'. Therefore, using *but* to replace *however* in the above extract definitely distorts the meaning of the sentence and is absolutely not advisable. The same reasoning can be used for the extracts 11 to 14.

11) Your grades are good; *however* I'd like to see your maths score improve. (TIME magazine corpus 2005)

12) It's a tricky balancing act, *however.* African-American parents want to prepare their kids but don't want them growing up. (TIME magazine corpus 2005)

13) In ecstasy and whatever else they can get their hands on. There are,

however, those of us who still go to clubs and parties in order to enjoy.

(TIME magazine corpus 2005)

14**)** The new gun cannot fire even if a round is left in the chamber. *However*,

Perry found that if slight pressure is put on the trigger during removal.

(TIME magazine corpus 2005)

With regards to the marked-unmarked relationship, this part tries to put forward a sign-oriented analysis which might be able to highlight the semantic distinction between *but* and *however* in discourse and communicative functions. Unlike many traditional notions or analyses, it is apparent that the two forms have two different invariant meanings which enable the English speakers to make a clear-cut distinction between them. These invariant meanings are deeply associated with the marked-unmarked relationship. This relationship orbits around the feature of 'semantic negativity'. Accordingly, *but* makes a strong claim for 'semantic negativity' and therefore is definitely a marked member of the pair. On the other hand, *however* remains an unmarked member of the duo and as a result, makes no or a very small claim regarding 'semantic negativity'.

The best matching examples that can prove as well as describe the markedness-unmarkedness relationship have been adopted from the Time magazine corpus. Some of them are presented below.

15) Cat population is fewer than 50 - It is known only on the island of

Hainan, *but* there is hope that other populations will be found on the

mainland. (TIME magazine corpus 2005)

16) Castro stoked Cubans' anger over Elian for domestic benefit and

diplomatic leverage, *but* he was quietly acting more neighborly. (TIME

magazine corpus 2005)

In the extract 15, the connective marker *but* could hardly be replaced by the conjunction *however*. So the scheme of '[x, but(-1/x)]' seems postulated enough. The extract 16 uses the form *but* to link two statements and it is better to say, the two opposing states of 'acting

angrily' and 'neighborly'. The clauses before and after *but*, are sharply negative and positive. So that is why the marked 'but' is prioritized over the ummarked *however*. Accordingly, replacing *but* by *however* in the above examples is out impossible.

A couple of examples are cited below to indicate the exclusiveness of the adversative connective, *however*:

17)The process is reduced from six weeks to four weeks. Just because you can do something, *however*, doesn't mean you should. Donating a kidney means undergoing an operation. (TIME magazine corpus 2005)

18)The ratio is 2 to 1, but this is another open primary. Unlike in Michigan, *however*, McCain may lose a few indies in Bill Bradley's childhood state. (TIME magazine corpus 2005)

Using *however* rather than *but* in the extract 17 and 18, spices up the event and its participants with a breath of gentle remembrance and a slight variation of to-be-discussed points. Therefore, the use of *however* is highly advised in such sentences as the two above.

With reference to the non-synonymy hypotheses, and to provide a convincing answer to the thesis question which is: 'Are *however* and *but* synonyms and interchangeable?' one might say the response is viewed more negative than positive. Both adversative markers *however* and *but* no doubt share a semantic feature which is 'contrariness' or 'shift'. Both forms are used in the English language as to make a variation especially when they are used as connectives. This rough notion is also advocated by both dictionaries in use in this study. Both references clearly state that in only one sense, *however* means *but* and vice versa.

Unlike the synonymy aspect discussed before, the non-synonymy perspective is manifold. An attempt has been made to evaluate this hypothesis by discussing its principled points.

In dictionaries such as those that are employed in this analytical study, it is not too hard to find the form *however* as an equivalent for the form *but* and vice versa. They, however, don't look like typically the same in relational meaning. The TIME magazine corpus extracts that are very much abundant might illuminate the dark avenue to some extent.

Based on the thrust of the definitions and examples presented by both the American Heritage Dictionary and Cambridge Dictionary of Contemporary English, both forms in question are rarely synonymous although they both refer to the semantic domain of

'contrariness'. Thus in rare cases, they could be regarded synonyms provided that the feature 'semantic negativity' is neutral or trivialized. Both cohesive linkers i.e. *but* and *however* have in common a structural feature i.e. both are used as conjunctions to join two opposing statements together. It is maintained that each member of the pair owns a single invariant meaning which distinguishes it from the other. *But*, in its connective functionality, is marked for 'semantic negativity' to present itself as a messenger of disappointing variation to its listeners or readers. So, it is widely perceived that there is a movement from positivity to negativity or vice versa. The following formula might be accurate about *but* in which 'x' may represent a phrase, clause or sentence:

$$[x, but (-1/x)].$$

With reference to the Markedness theory detailed in the literature review, *however* on the contrary, fails to commit to the feature of 'semantic negativity'. *However* is unmarked for such a semantic characteristic. The form *however*, compared to its counterpart, is gentler, more peaceful, and less debating. It almost always refers to a gentle remembrance of or a slight variation to a point rather than option exclusion. Hence, the best scheme to describe such contrariness in which 'x' refers to a phrase, clause or sentence, can be as follows:

$$[x, however (1/x)]$$

An English language user most likely selects one form rather than the other based on the fittability of the chosen form with the marked or unmarked invariant meaning in relation to the message the same person as a speaker or writer is trying to get across. Thus such a careful choice might not be arbitrary.

But is deemed less formal than *however* and inclined to convey a harsh message of disappointment and disagreement.

After looking into the TIME magazine corpus extracts which are in use in this discourse scrutiny, it is clear that *but* in most cases takes a middle position. It is plausible to see it seated at the initial position as well. Yet it never sits at the end of a sentence. *However* also has a tendency to place itself in the middle of two statements in order to conjoin them together. It might happen to see *however* appear in the initial position. Yet it is rare to find it at the end of a sentence.

Findings through survey analysis

To solidify the other measuring methods such as the markedness theory, a questionnaire (Appendix 1) was designed, distributed to, and collected from the grade 10 participants who study in the International Islamic School, Malaysia. The two sections of 10th graders with a

total population of 47 students were considered the target participants. The survey data analysis has shown that out of 47 participants, 10 voted for the similarity whereas the other 37 participants polled for dissimilarity between the pair in question i.e. *however* and *but*. Thus the rounded ratio between similarity and dissimilarity is 21% to 79%.

When it comes to interchangeability, only 6 participants believed that both members of the pair (*however* and *but*) are interchangeable while the rest 40 students considered them not interchangeable. Therefore, the rounded ratio of 13% to 87% has popped up. The following table illustrates the above findings more vividly. The table below, is a demonstration of participants knowledge about the pair in this study i.e. *however* and *but*.

Table 1

Distribution of *however* and *but* (Survey Analysis)

Synonymy and interchangeability of *however* and *but*	Synonymy		Interchangeability	
	plausible	Not-plausible	Plausible	Not-plausible
No. of respondents	10	37	6	40
Percentage of the respondents	21%	79%	13%	87%

The above table indicates to the fact that approximately 21% of the participants who are the grade 10 students of the International Islamic School, did not have the knowledge of distinguishing between the two discourse markers i.e. *however* and *but*. It could be guessed that the same number of the participants (21%) who have studied English as a second

language during 10 academic years, confuse the members of the set in their everyday communication. It is not surprising to say that this study has shed light on the fact that other difficult relational pairs might be confusing to ESL learners too. Students may need to know which member of a lexical pair as opposed to the other, to choose in order to maintain communication and shun misinterpretation. As mentioned earlier in this research, it does matter what members of the troublesome pair to pick. Haphazard or careless selection of a member of duo could result in an awkward communication.

Back to the students' survey, the following bar graph demonstrates the perception of two sections of 10th graders about the under-discussion set.
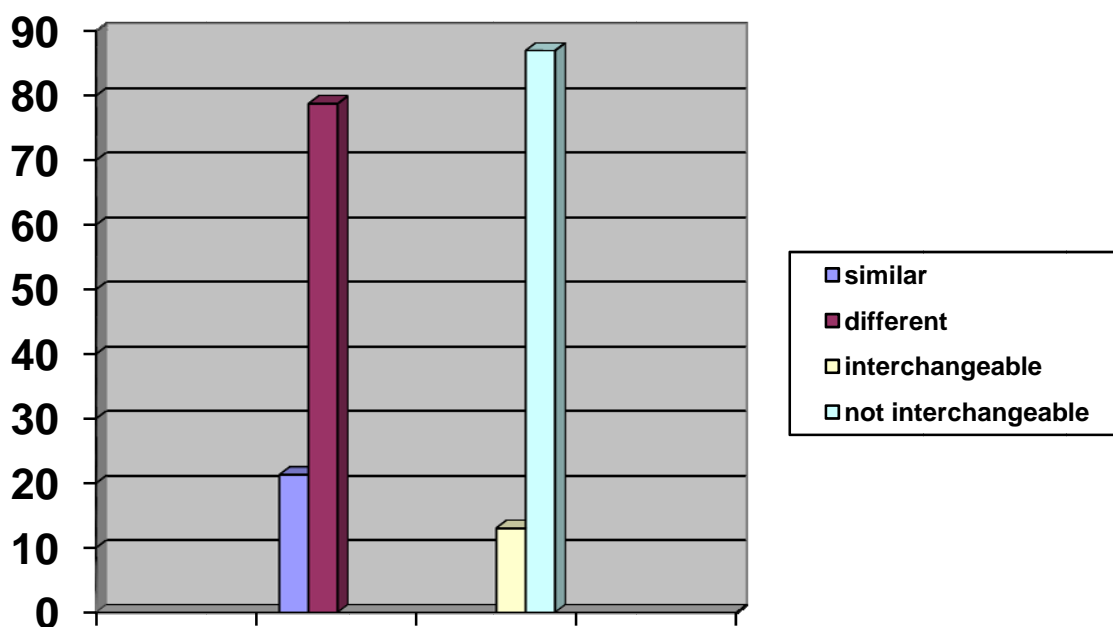
Figure 1.Similarity and interchangeability of *however* and *but* (Survey Analysis)

The bar graph above, demonstrates that 79% of the participants believed that *but* and *however* are not synonyms. 87% of the participants voted for the non-interchangeability between *but* and *however* through the survey. Maybe the research methodology used for this study and the markedness theory which assisted this research to yield the outcome could be adopted for the future semantic or semiotic investigations. Based on the review of the literature of the current investigation, finding many recent semiotic or sign-based analyses is difficult. Only handful investigations have been done in the last ten years in the field of semantics. It also seems that most of the studies would target the adult learners rather than lower-grade students.

Only 13% of the 10th graders of the International Islamic school Malaysia did not know that *but* and *however* are not synonyms. This is a fine indication that most of the participants are able to differentiate between *but* and *however*. It should be noted that replacing one member with the other causes a break down in the message a speaker would like to get across and that is why such studies could be helpful.

Findings through markedness-unmarkedness relationship

As it has been stressed during the *however vs. but* study, 'semantic negativity' has been proved to be the most outstanding distinctive feature between the two discourse markers i.e. *but* and *however*. *But* is marked for the above feature whereas *however* is not. So when, where, and under what circumstances to use each of the members is essential.

Unlike many traditional notions or analyses, it is more likely deemed that the two forms i.e. *but* and *however* share the same semantic substance but differ in terms of invariant meaning. (Tobin, 1990) These invariant meanings are deeply associated with the marked-unmarked relationship. This relationship orbits around the feature of 'semantic negativity'. Accordingly, *but* makes a strong claim for 'semantic negativity and therefore is definitely a marked member of the pair. On the other hand, *however* remains an unmarked member of the duo and as a result, makes no or a very small claim regarding 'semantic negativity'. Figure 2 illustrates this difference.

Semantic Substance	Form	Markedness-unmarkedness Relationship
Negativity	*But*	Marked for semantic negativity
	However	Unmarked for semantic negativity

Figure 2. Markedness-unmarkedness relationship

Summary of the findings

To provide a convincing answer to the thesis question, which is: 'Are *however* and *but* synonyms and interchangeable?' it should be said that the response is far more negative-oriented. Both discourse markers *however* and *but* no doubt share a common semantic feature which is 'contrariness', or 'shift'. Both adversative forms are used in the English language as to make a variation especially when they are used as connectives. This rough notion is also advocated by both dictionaries in use in this study. Both references clearly state that in only one sense, *however* means *but* and vice versa.

Based on this study, both forms share the same semantic substance and therefore appear to be synonyms. They both refer to the semantic domain of 'contrariness'. Thus they are synonymous, provided that the feature 'semantic negativity' is neutral or trivialized. Both cohesive linkers have in common a structural feature, that is, both are used as conjunctions to join two opposing statements together. Thus, it can be concluded that when *however* and *but* function as connectives or conjunctive words, they are seldom synonymous and therefore sparingly interchangeable. It should be noted that there exists a condition under which substitution could be valid, i.e. in case there is no emphasis of semantic negativity. In other words, both adversatives in question, could rarely replace each other, however their messages to some flexible extent, might change. In dictionaries such as those that are employed in this analytical study, it is not too hard to find the form *however* as an equivalent for the form *but* and vice versa.

On the other hand, It is maintained that each member of the pair owns a single invariant meaning which certainly distinguishes it from the other. *But*, in its connective functionality, is marked for 'semantic negativity' to present itself as a messenger of disappointing variation to its listeners or readers. So, it is perceived that there is a movement from positivity to negativity or vice versa. The following formula might be accurate about *but* in which 'x' might represent a phrase, clause, or sentence:

$$[x, but (-1/x)]$$

With reference to the Markedness theory detailed in chapter 2, *however* on the contrary, fails to commit to the feature of 'semantic negativity'. i.e. *however* is unmarked for such a semantic characteristic. The form *however*, compared to its counterpart, is gentler, more peaceful, and less debating. It almost always refers to a gentle remembrance of or a slight variation to a point rather than option exclusion. Hence, the best scheme to describe such contrariness in which 'x' may represent a phrase, clause, or sentence, might be:

$$[x, however (1/x)]$$

But is deemed less formal than *however* and inclined to convey a harsh message of disappointment and disagreement.

Conclusion

This study used two reliable dictionaries. Dictionaries are a very useful tool for English learners. However this study showed that reliance on dictionaries alone is insufficient. Dictionaries are strong information references. They are sometimes an improper instrument for research when used alone. When it comes to distinguishing between relational pairs, dictionaries just offer separable shades of meaning(s) for each member and not the relational meaning(s). Dictionaries offer the meanings of the words in isolation without considering both members of relational pair together. That is why it is advisable to employ them along with some other research instrument(s).

Several trustworthy dictionaries such as the American Heritage Dictionary, the Longman Contemporary Dictionary, to mention only a few, still advocate the antithesis of these two investigations' findings. Therefore, ESL learners are recommended to pay enough attention when it comes to distinguishing between a relational pair. It is now evident that referring to dictionaries as sources of language does not suffice. ESL learners should seek professional consultations, visit the English language corpuses, check and go through the respective studies done before. Substituting members of troublesome relational pairs such as *for example* and *for instance, but* and *however*, and so forth should be dealt with care for these replacements might alter the context, environment, or the sentence meaning. The result of such haphazard interchangeability could astray readers and listeners. Therefore, communication which is the primary goal of each and every language would suffer.

References

Babbie, E. (2010). *The practice of social research*. Wadswoth: Cengage Learning.

Barzilay, R. & Elhadad, M. (1999). Using lexical chains for text summarization. In I. Mani & M. T. Maybury (Eds.), *Advances in automatic text summarization*. (pp. 111-121). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Battistella, E.L. (1996). *The logic of markednes*. Oxford University Press.

Berzlánovich, I., Egg, M. & Redeker, G. (2008). Coherence structure and lexical cohesion in expository and persuasive texts. In A. Benz, P. Kühnlein & M. Stede (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Workshop Constraints in Discourse III* (pp.

19-26).Potsdam, Germany, July 30 – August 1, 2008.

Brown, G.,& Yule, G. (2001).*Discourse Analysis*, Cambridge: Cambridge University
Press.

Buitkiené, J. (2005). Variablity of cohesive devices across registers. *Studies About
Languages* (*Kalb_ Studijos*) *7*, 17-20.

Conrad, S. (2002). Corpus linguistic approaches for discourse analysis. *AnnualReview of
Applied Linguistics 22*, 75-95.

Dafna, B. A. (2005). *The Role of connectives in text comprehension,* Teachers
College, Columbia University.

Enkvist, N. E. (2003). Seven problems in the study of coherence and   interpretability. In U.
Connor & A. M. Johns (Eds.), Coherence in writing*: Research and pedagogical
perspectives* (pp. 9-28). Washington, DC:TESOL.

Fox, B.A. (1997). *Discourse structure and anaphora.* Written and conversational   English*.*
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Goutsos, D. (1997*). Modelling discourse topic:* sequential relations and strategies in
expository text*.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Graesser, A.C. (1981). *Prose comprehension beyond the word*. New York: Springer-
Vertag.

Habel (Eds.).(2003). Focus in coherence in discourse processing(pp. 190-202). Berlin:
Gruyter.

Halliday, M. A. K. & Hasan, R. (1999). *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.

Halliday, M. A. K. (2001). *An introduction to functional grammar*. London: Arnold.

Halliday, M. A. K. & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2004). *An introduction to   functional
grammar* (3rd ed.). London: Arnold.

Hasan, R. (2003). Coherence and cohesive harmony. In J. Flood (Ed.),Understanding reading
comprehension: Cognition, language and thestructure of prose(pp. 181-219)*.* Newark,
DE: *International Reading Association.*

Hellman, C. (1998). The notion of coherence in discourse. In G. Rickheit & C.Helman.

Hoey, M. (1999). *Patterns of lexis in text.* Oxford: Oxford University Press

Marmaridou, Sophia A.S. (2001). *What's So Proper about Names?* A study in categorization
and cognitive semantics. Athens: Waden.

Reid. J. (2002). *Signal, Meaning, and Message*. Amesterdam: John Benjamins.

Sanders, T. J. M. & Noordman, L. G. M. (2000). The role of coherence relations and their
linguistic markers in text processing. *Discourse Processes 29*(1),37-60.

Stern, N. (2001). *The* meaning and use of English –self. City university of Newyork, Ph.D. Dissertation.

Stokes, N. (2004). Applications of lexical cohesion analysis in the topic detection and tracking domain.Ph.D. dissertation, Department of ComputerScience, University College Dublin, Dublin.

Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis.* English in academic and research settings. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Taboada, M. T. (2004). *Building coherence and cohesion*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Taboada, M. & Mann, W. C. (2006). Rhetorical structure theory: looking back and moving ahead. *Discourse Studies 8*(3), 423-459.

Tanskanen, S.K. (2006). *Collaborating towards discourse:* lexical cohesion in English discourse. Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Tobin, Y.(1990). *Semiotics and Linguistics*. London: Longman.

Tobin, Y. (1993). *Aspect in the English Verb*. New York: Longman.

Tyler, S.A. (2003). *The said and the unsaid*. Academic Press: New York.

Verikait, D. (2005). Variation of conjunctive discourse markers across differentgenres.*Man and the Word* (*Žmogus ir žodis*) *3*(7), 68-75.

W. C. & Thompson, S. A. (1988). Rhetorical structure theory: toward afunctional theory of text organization. *Text 8*(3), 243-281.

Yankova, D. (2006). Semantic relations in statutory texts: A study of English and Bulgarian. *SKY Journal of Linguistics 19*, 189-222.

APPENDIX I

This research questionnaire helps contribute a little bit to second language learning. Thus, please answer as accurately as you may.

Topic: *however* **vs.** *but*

Name: Grade:

1. How different or similar do you believe the above terms are? Please exemplify.

_____
_____
_____
_____

2. Is it possible to interchange them?

Prepared by Hassan Fartousi   (You may use the back of the paper too)

APPENDIX II – Distribution tables of the analysis (TIME magazine corpus)

No	Instances of *however* and *but*	Semantic negativity			Interchangeability		Connective function	
		Marked	Unmarked	Neutral	Plausible	Not-plausible	[x, but(-1/x)]	[x, however(1/x)]
1.	John tried kind of hard, ***but*** lost the competition.			*	*		*	
2.	***However*** John tried kind of hard, he lost the competition.			*	*			*
3.	"I am sorry you suffer so badly from panic attacks,***but***you could keep them under control with EFT treatment"	*				*	*	
4.	"I am sorry you suffer so badly from panic attacks, ***however*** you could keep them under control with EFT treatment."		*			*		*
5	Smoking is legal, ***but*** it's really damaging to your health."	*				*	*	
6.	"Not this, ***but*** that" shouted my dad.	*				*	*	
7.	The mayor proposed a new regulatory ordinance, ***but*** the city council did not approve the measure.	*				*	*	
8.	The Elian Gonzalez saga is a one-of-a-kind international showdown, ***but*** it's also part of a rising American debate over parents' rights.	*				*	*	
9.	***BUT*** WILL IT LAST? # Last week actor Michael Douglas, 55, got engaged.	*				*	*	

APPENDIX II – Distribution tables of the analysis (TIME magazine corpus)

No	Instances of *however* and *but*	Semantic negativity			Interchange ability		Connective function	
		Marked	Unmarked	Neutral	Plausible	Not-plausible	[x, but(-1/x)]	[x, however(1/x)]
10.	You're doing great; ***however***you could improve your handwriting a bit."		*			*		*
11.	Your grades are good; ***however***I'd like to see your maths score improve."		*			*		*
12.	It's a tricky balancing act, ***however***. African-American parents want to prepare their kids but don't want them growing up.		*			*		*
13.	In ecstasy and whatever else they can get their hands on. There are, ***however***, those of us who still go to clubs and parties in order to enjoy.		*			*		*
14.	The new gun can not fire even if a round is left in the chamber. ***However***, Perry found that if slight pressure is put on the trigger during removal.		*			*		*

APPENDIX III – Distribution tables of the analysis (TIME magazine corpus)

No	Instances of *however and but*	Semantic negativity			Interchange ability		Connective function	
		Marked	Unmarked	Neutral	Plausible	Not-plausible	[x, but(-1/x)]	[x, however(1/x)]
15.	Cat POPULATION is fewer than 50 -- It is known only on the island of Hainan, *but*there is hope that other populations will be found on the mainland # 10 CAT.	*				*	*	
16.	Castro stoked Cubans' anger over Elian for domestic benefit and diplomatic leverage, *but* he was quietly acting more neighborly.	*				*	*	
17.	The process is reduced from six weeks to four weeks. # Just because you can do something, *however*, doesn't mean you should. Donating a kidney means undergoing an operation.		*			*		*
18.	The ratio is 2 to 1, but this is another open primary. Unlike in Michigan, *however*, McCain may lose a few indies in Bill Bradley's childhood state.		*			*		*

Title

The Impact of Authentic Listening Materials on IranianEFL Learners' English Listening Comprehension

Authors

Abbas Pourhosein Gilakjani (Ph.D. candidate)
Islamic Azad University, Lahijan Branch, Lahijan, Iran

Seyedeh Masoumeh Ahmadi (B.A.)
Islamic Azad University, Lahijan Branch, Lahijan, Iran

Bio data

Abbas Pourhosein Gilakjani, Ph.D. candidate of TEFL at the Universiti Sains Malaysia, School of Educational Studies, Pinang, Malaysia.. He is the faculty member of the Islamic Azad University, Lahijan Branch,Lahijan, Iran from 1999 to 2010. His main research interests are pronunciation listening comprehension, motivation. He has published five articles in international journals and presented five papers in international conferences.

Seyedeh Masoumeh Ahmadi, B.A. graduate of Computer Engineering from the Islamic Azad University, LahijanBranch, Iran.She will start her education in M.A. in Computer Engineering at the Universiti Sains Malaysia in September 2010.Her main research interests are multimedia, listening comprehension, motivation. She has published five articles in international journals and presented five papers in international conferences.

Abstract

Expressing your thoughts, feelings and opinions clearly and effectively is only half of the communication process. The other half is listening and understanding what others are trying to convey to you. Indeed, good communication and understanding are made possible by listening. Listening comprehension means the process of understanding speech in a second or foreign language. It was the perception of information and stimuli received through the ears. Iranian EFL learners have serious problems in English listening comprehension due to the fact that Iranian universities pay more attention to grammar and reading. Listening and speaking skills are not important parts of many course books or curricula and teachers do not seem to pay attention to these skills while designing their lessons. The researchers tried using a series of authentic listening materials to enhance Iranian EFL learners'

English listening comprehension. The researchers want to investigate the impact of using authentic listening materials on Iranian EFL learners' English listening comprehension, the listening difficulties they encountered, and listening strategies they used. The subjects of the study were students majoring in English Translation. Data were collected from survey. These materials helped students enhance their English listening comprehension, particularly English listening strategies, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

Keywords: Listening comprehension, Authentic materials, Comprehensible input, Listening strategy, Listening difficulty.

Introduction

Humans acquire language in only one way—by understanding messages or by receiving 'comprehensible input'. If the learners hear meaningful speech and try to understand it, acquisition will occur. Language acquisition occurs through understanding messages, that is to say, through comprehensible input. The comprehensible input can lead to better understanding. Listening plays the crucial role in the learning process; the development of speaking skills or the knowledge of grammar rules will follow automatically as long as a sufficient amount and type of input is provided; we should place great emphasis on listening rather than speaking as the main priority in the early stages of language learning. Krashen says that the most important element in language learning is meaningful input—listening to language that carries an actual message to the learners; "all other factors thought to encourage or cause second language acquisition only work when they provide comprehensible input"(Krashen, 1985, cited in Cook, 2000, p. 51).

Iranian students are very skilled at English grammar and reading instead of English listening and speaking. Iranian students live in an EFL environment, where they don't need to communicate with each other in daily life. Therefore, they lack the opportunities to acquire English language input. Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension is not very good due to the lack of enough attention to it. Therefore, the researchers tried using a series of authentic listening materials to enhance students' English listening comprehension. The purpose of this article is to investigate the impact of using authentic listening materials on Iranian EFL learners' English listening comprehension, the listening difficulties they encountered, and listening strategies they used.

Literature review

Listening is arguably the most important skill required for obtaining comprehensible input in one's first and any subsequent languages. Listening, then, is a complex, active processes of interpretation in which listeners match what they hear with what they already know. It is a pervasive communicative event: we listen considerably more than we read, write, or speak (Decker, 2004). Many works performed by researchers suggest that language can be acquired through exposure to authentic input, which can mostly be achieved through listening (Carter & Nunan, 2001, p. 8). The use of video and film, radio broadcasts, and television programs will involve students in activities that present real life listening contexts (Herron & Seay, 1991). Different aural texts such as songs, news, and weather reports may also be used as authentic listening materials in the ESL classroom. If students are to use the language to communicate effectively in the real world, Rogers and Medley (1988) propose that students have to experience the language as it is used for real communication among native speakers. This can be done through the use of aural authentic materials in the language classroom. Gilman and Moody (1984) recommend that the teacher should use authentic materials in implementing listening comprehension training at advanced level and with students at the beginning and intermediate levels.

Listening strategies can help students improve English listening comprehension. A few researchers have attempted to investigate the relationship between listening strategy use and listening ability in L2, such as Vandergrift (2003), and Goh (2002). Those studies primarily focus on the mental processes of listeners during the three distinctive processing stages (perception, parsing and utilisation). An effective listener is able to concentrate on what is being heard, to plan what to listen for, and to interact with both textual cues (bottom-up) and personal prior experience (top-down); whereas an ineffective listener employs predominately bottom-up processing, listening for single words, and using strategies at random.

Goh and Yusnita (2006) draw attention to the specific context of L2 listening and claim that strategies have a direct and positive influence on listening performance. Yang (2009) indicates that one of the distinctive features differentiating successful listeners from unsuccessful ones is their use of meta-cognitive strategies and he states that the role of meta-cognition in L2 listening helps listeners to approach the listening task more effectively. Carrier (2003) believed that as learner's awareness of using strategies grows, they develop more confidence to encounter situations they need to comprehend a listening task in real life. Research on listening strategy use and learning styles demonstrates a strong belief that the techniques a learner consciously employs to tackle an aural task are intricately related to the

learner's characteristics. As Macaro *et al.*, (2007) states, learners have visual and auditory preferences that might influence their listening strategy use.

Methodology

Subjects

The participants of the study were 50 students majoring in English Translation at Lahijan University, Iran. They were 35 female and 15 male students between 20 and 24 years of age. They had passed 16 English listening and speaking credits for six semesters. All subjects had been studying English for at least 7 years before entering university.

Materials and procedure

The researchers required participants to do a weekly English listening assignment to enhance their listening comprehension. They taught students some listening strategies while doing their English listening assignment. Some of the listening strategies were as follows: repeating listening, guessing the meaning of new words from context, listening to keywords, listening to main ideas, and listening to details. They could choose their favourable teachingmaterials for their assignment. Different kinds of English teaching magazines with CDs, radio news, films, TV plays, announcements, everyday conversations, interviews were suggested to them. In order to help students understand their current English proficiency level, the researchers required students to do intermediate and advance listening comprehension tests of General English Proficiency Test in the second class of the sixth term. They were required to listen to one authentic material at least once a week for two terms and then write an English listening journal about it. The journal included what they had learned from the materials and their reflections. Students gave their journals to the researchers each week. The journals were graded according to the contents instead of accuracy. The listening journals reveal students' gradual progress in English listening comprehension. At the end of the academic year, the subjects did intermediate and advance listening comprehension tests of General English Proficiency Test to see if they made any progress.

Instruments

The researchers conducted a survey of 50 Iranian EFL students majoring in English Translation at Lahijan University, Iran. The survey put emphasis on three subjects: (1) listening problems, (2) listening strategies, (3) improvements in listening. The researchers

asked students to write the best answers. The survey was translated in Persian language so that every student could understand the questions.

Findings

The quantitative analyses were calculated and put into percentages to show the results. The results from the survey are presented in the tables 1-6 in appendix.

Table 1 Question 1: Which of the following are difficult for you while listening to English materials?

	Number	Percentage
a. Idioms	4	8
b. Stress and intonation	3	6
c. Pronunciation	6	12
d. Unfamiliar accent	7	14
e. Lack of listening strategies	8	16
f. New vocabulary and phrases	9	18
g. Lack of background knowledge	2	4
h. Speech rate	11	22

Analysis 1

Students had great difficulties in h) speech rate (22%), f) new vocabulary and phrases (18%), e) lack of listening strategies (16%), d) unfamiliar accent (14%). We see that "speech rate", "vocabulary" and "lack of strategies" are more difficult for students. So teachers can helpstudents expand their vocabulary and listening strategies. They can encourage students to listen to the same materials frequently in order to get used to the speech rate.

Table 2 Question 2: What are your listening strategies while listening to English materials?

	Number	Percentage
a. Listen to keywords	12	24
b. Use background knowledge	4	8
c. Repeat listening	6	12
d. Concentrate on listening	5	10
e. Listen to details	2	4
f. Guess the meaning of new words from context	7	14
g. Listen to main ideas	11	22
h. Try to keep up with the speech rate	3	6

Analysis 2

Many students stated that listen to key words (24%), listen to main ideas (22%) and guess the meaning of new words from context (14%) were their main strategies while listening to authentic materials.

Table 3 Question 3: How is your listening comprehension ability after two terms?

	Number	Percentage
Very good	37	74
Good	10	20
Not good	3	6

Analysis 3

A large number of students said "very good." Twenty percent of students stated "good" and only three percent of them expressed "not good."As the researchers mentioned earlier, the subjects did intermediate and advance listening comprehension tests of General English Proficiency Test at the beginning and the end of the academic year, so the subjects could

compare the scores they got from the first and second tests to see how much progress they had made.

Table 4 Question 4: In what aspects have you improved on English after two terms?

	Number	Percentage
a. Listening strategies	10	20
b. Intonation	3	6
c. Keep up with speech rate	5	10
d. Vocabulary	11	22
e. Familiarity with different accent	5	10
f. Pronunciation	9	18
g. Idiom	2	4
h. Background knowledge	2	4
j. Concentration	3	6

Analysis 4

There have been significant improvements in the following aspects: d) vocabulary (22%), a) listening strategies (20%) and f) pronunciation (18%). According to the results, most subjects practiced using vocabulary taught in class while listening to authentic materials, so their vocabulary knowledge had been improved.

Table 5 Question 5: Do you think that free choice of listening materials will have a positive effect on your listening comprehension ability?

	Number	Percentage
a. Yes	44	88
b. No	6	12

Analysis 5

Free choice of English materials had a positive effect on their listening comprehension. Just twelve percent of students denied the important role of free authentic materials on listening. So teachers should allow students to choose free materials to enhance their listening comprehension.

Table 6 Question 6. Will these listening materials help you form the habit of listening to English regularly?

	Number	Percentage
a. Yes	40	80
b. No	10	20

Analysis 6

Most of the students said that authentic listening materials can help them form the habit of listening to English. Twenty percent of students didn't believe in doing these listening materials. Results show that overwhelming majority of students accepted the usefulness of listening materials in forming the habit of listening to English. The rest of students didn't probably have time to listen to English materials.

Conclusion

The majority of students confirmed that the authentic listening materials have significant impact on their English listening comprehension and they can form a good habit of listening to English regularly. They also said that choosing English materials of their interest would definitely enhance their listening comprehension and motivation. Students encountered difficulties in the areas of "speech rate", "vocabulary" and "listening strategies." In addition, the dominant strategies students used are "listen to key words", "listen to main ideas" and "guess the meaning of new words from context." Furthermore, most students had substantial improvement in the areas of "vocabulary", "listening strategies" and "pronunciation." So teachers should urge students to listen to authentic materials of their interest regularly and instruct them important listening strategies which will make listening comprehension easier for them. In conclusion, the results of the study approved that authentic listening materials generally had a profound effect on Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension skill.

References

Carrier, K, A. (2003). Improving high school English language learners' second language listeningthrough strategy instruction. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 27 (3), 383-408.

Carter, R., & Nunan, D. (2001). *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cook, V. (2000a). *Second language learning and language teaching.* Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

Decker, M.A. (2004). Incorporating guided self-study listening into the language curriculum. *The Language Teacher, 28*(6), 5-9.

Gilman, R. A., & Moody, L. M. (1984). What practitioners say about listening: Researchimplications for the classroom. *Foreign Language Annals, 17*, 331-334.

Goh, C. C. M. (2002). Exploring listening comprehension tactics and their interactionpatterns. *System*, 30 (2), 185-206.

Goh, C., &Yusnita, T. (2006). Metacognitive instruction in listening for young learners. *ELT Journal* 60(3), 222–232.

Herron, C. A., & Seay, I. (1991). The effect of authentic oral texts on student listeningcomprehension in the foreign language classroom. *Foreign Language Annals, 24*, 487-495.

Krashen, S. D. (1985). The Input Hypothesis. London:Longman.

Macaro, E., Graham, S. & Vanderplank, R.(2007). A review of listening strategies:Focus on sources of knowledge and on success.

Rogers, C. V., & Medley, F. W., Jr. (1988). Language with a purpose: Using authenticmaterials in the foreign language classroom. *Foreign Language Annals, 21*, 467-478.

Yang, C. (2009). *A* study of metacognitive strategies employed by English listeners.*International Educational Studies,2*(4), 134-139.

Title

Form and Content in the Argumentative Writing of Extroverted and Introverted Iranian EFL Learners

Author

Fateme Layeghi (M.A.)

University of Tehran, Language College, Tehran, Iran

Bio data

Fateme Layeghi, M.A. in TEFL from University of Tehran. Her primary research interests concern EFL writing and language teaching. She is currently teaching in the institute of University of Tehran and has ten years of teaching experience in various institutes.

Abstract

With regard to the highlighted importance of learning writing skill in English classes and potential factors such as learners` personality type and modes of writing that may affect this complex process, this study investigated the relationship between Iranian high-intermediate EFL learners` extroversion/introversion personality types and their performance in the argumentative writing with regard to the content and form to spot the exact differences. For the purpose of this research, 120 writing samples, elicited from 120 extroverted and introverted high-intermediate language learners, were collected and rated by two raters using Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfiel, and Hughey's (1981) analytic scoring scale. Three one sample independent t-tests were carried out to compare the groups' mean scores in three sections of content, form, and total performances. Analysis of the results revealed that introverted writers significantly outperformed extroverts in all three sections. The findings of this study may have some implications for writing teachers, learners, and syllabus designers. That is,they may help teachers to gain insights into the contexts in which students are at ease or learn to write. Besides, language learners may apply personality knowledge to improve their motivation and enhance their performance in writing. Moreover, results may help the realm of syllabus design to select writing activities that meet the needs of learners with different personality characteristics.

Introduction

 In past years of language instruction all learners with different characteristics were treated the same. By passing the time, researchers attempted to investigate the reasons for the same approach, instruction, and conditions, but different performances in language learning tasks and dissimilar academic achievements. Researchers such as Brown (1973), Chastain (1975), and Shapiro and Alexander (1969) started to explore the possible reasons of variation in learners' personality. In this regard, researchers found out that personality traits cause differences in what and how people learn (Mc Caulley & Natter, 1980). Similarly, Ackerman and Heggestad (1997) propose that personality dispositions are among the predictors of success in a particular task; they are also among the most quested factors in relation to language learning (e.g., Farsides & Woodfield, 2003; Heaven, Mark, Barry, & Ciarrochi, 2002; Paunonen & Ashton, 2001; Roberts, 2002) because knowledge of personality types enables researchers to predict the way people behave in different situations (Brunas-Wagstaff, 1998). In concentrating on various personality traits, the concepts of extroversion and introversion are perhaps the most popular ones (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996) both in theory and research.

Besides, within the communicative framework of language teaching, writing skill enjoys special status. Cumming (2006) delineates this skill in a way that highlights the significance of the role personality plays in it. He calls this skill as a "uniquely personal form of individual expression" (p. 473). On the other hand, according to Richards and Renandya (2002) "there is no doubt that writing is the most difficult skill for second language learners to master" (p.303). What add to this difficulty are the modes of discourse in writing, namely narration, exposition, description, and argument. The findings of a study conducted by Nemati (2003) have revealed that argumentative writing is the most demanding mode of writing for Iranian ESL learners. Though challenging in nature, argumentative writing holds a favorable position in educational and job related tasks (e.g., Chandrasagaran, 2008; Park and Stapleton, 2003).
With regard to exploring the relationship between extroversion and introversion and writing skill, some studies have been undertaken (e.g., Callahan, 2000; Carrell, 1995; Carrell et al., 1996;Jahanbazi, 2007; Marefat, 2006; Zaghi, 2008). Some of the studies exploring this relationship have pointed to introverts' superiority over extroverts (e.g., Callahan, 2000;

Carrell, 1995; Jahanbazi, 2007), while others did not reveal any significant relationship between these personality traits and writing. It seems that the results are, to some extent, confusing.

Considering content and form of writing, researchers have proposed that introverts' meticulousness (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1985), more attentional selectivity and less attentional capability (Eysenck, 1979), and fear of punishment will cause them to be concerned with spelling and writing mechanics rather than overall organization of text. In contrast, extroverts' resistance to stress and time pressure (Dewaele and Furnham, 1999; Rose, 1984; O'Shea, 1987) can help them to express themselves easily in writing task that in turn will have positive consequences on the content of composition tasks. That is, they primarily concentrate on conveyance of ideational propositions.

Besides, considering the facts that personality traits are culture bound (Brown, 1987; Eysenck and Eysenck, 1985), writing practices are rooted in culture (Clark and Ivanc, 1997), and no study alike was carried out in Iran, such a study can not only clarify the role of extroversion/introversion in argumentative writing but also can offer potential advantage to both teachers and learners in portraying a more comprehensive and vivid picture of individual differences both in theory and in practice.

In this study, attempts have been made to explore which group of writers, i.e. extroverts or introverts, outperforms the other in overall writing performance in argumentative mode. Besides, their performance in form and content of this mode of writing has also been under scrutiny.

Due to the aforementioned discussion, this study is an attempt to answer the following questions:

1. Are there any significant differences between extroverted and introverted Iranian high-intermediate EFL learners with regard to the form of their writing in argumentative mode?

2. Are there any significant differences between extroverted and introverted Iranian high-intermediate EFL learners with regard to the content of their writing inargumentative mode?

3. Are there any significant differences between extroverted and introverted Iranian high-intermediate EFL learners with regard to their overall performance in argumentative mode?

Answers to the above questions may help us to gain a more in-depth insight of theextroverts'and introverts' performance in argumentative writing mode.

Review of literature

Extroversion/Introversion and writing

A number of researchers have investigated the relation between extroversion/introversion personality type and writing (e.g., Carrell, Prince, and Astika, 1996; Callahan, 2000; Ely, 1986; Jahanbazi; 2007; Marefat, 2006; Zaghi, 2008). A brief overview of these studies is presented below.

Carrell et al. (1996) looked at the correlation of EFL students' personality types with their writing ability, as part of their research. Learners' writing proficiency was measured through monthly tests of writing in a semester-long course. The research showed a very weak negative relationship between extroversion and the composite course scores. Moreover, Callahan (2000), in a qualitative research, studied writing samples produced by English majorsto find out their preference in personality, according to the description of personality types in Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. Having analyzed students' writing assignments, Callahan concluded with some extroverted and introverted learners' preferences in writing. She described extroverts as students who have positive attitudes toward assignments requiring reflection on the external world. Extroverts have problem in setting their own standards and expect their teachers to provide guidelines for performance and for evaluation. On the contrary, introverted learners tend to reflect on their assignments because reflection is quite natural for them. They keep journals of their own because they are at ease with setting standards for writing tasks and try to develop their response to a task until they feel satisfied. In another study, Marefat (2006) as part of her research tried to explore Iranian learners' personality types and their writing ability. She chose Eighty-six male and female Iranian graduate and undergraduate ESL students. Two in-class writings as well as midterm and final term exam were regarded as indices of writing ability. Data analysis revealed that extroversion did not have a bearing on writing ability. In a similar attempt to the present research, Jahanbazi (2007) aimed to clarify the difference between extroverted and introverted Iranian EFL students writing ability by finding out which group would outperform the other on a general writing ability test. Seventy eight participants were required to fill a Persian form of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire and write a composition with an argumentative prompt, which were holistically evaluated. Analysis of the data indicated an

introversion advantage over extroversion.

Extroversion/Introversion and content and form of writing

According to Eysenck and Eysenck's (1985) study, extroverts act more quickly but less precisely in compound cognitive tasks, while introverts are slower but more exact. They explain the situation with proposing that probably the introverts' considerable apprehension of punishment causes them to perform more carefully. That is, introverts' more cautiousness and greater fear of punishment make them to be more careful about the linguistic correctness of what they are going to mention. Furthermore, in gathering writing samples during class or examination time, a writing teacher should consider the stress factor as it affects both groups' behavior differently. Regarding this, Shapiro and Alexander (1969) have found out that extroverts resist stress more than their introverted counterparts. That is, introverts are easily stressed out that result in their more attentional selectivity and less attentional capability (Eysenck, 1979). Their attentional selectivity aids them in focusing on the linguistic featuresof their writing. Rose (1984) have found out that those who are more influenced by writing stress have also negative evaluation of their compositions and most of their evaluations are concerned with sentence-level and surface structures. These further illustrate that extroverts' better resistance to stress, as pointed out by Shapiro and Alexander (1969) and Dewaele and Furnham (1999), aid them in expressing themselves, through the content, easily. On the contrary, introverts' cautiousness and meticulousness, as stated by Eysenck and Eysenck's (1985), cause them to be more at ease with paying attention to linguistic forms of composition rather than the content of it.

Method

Participants

The participants of the present study were 120 male and female Iranian high-intermediate learners of English, aged 20 to 25, studying as seniors or juniors of English literature or translation in university. The initial participants were 210 students who were divided into two groups of introverts and extroverts after taking the EPQ test (112 and 98 students, respectively). To check the homogeneity of the participants, the researcher administered a standard version of TOEFL test. Elementary learners were excluded because they were not apt for argumentation; also, advanced learners were omitted due to paucity of and inaccessibility to them in university context. Participants whose scores were one standard deviation above the mean score in each group of extroverts and introverts were selected as the

participants to take part in writing test. Thus, 63 students were selected as extroverts and 64 students as introverts.

Instrumentation

The following instruments were used in this study: the Persian version of Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire (EPQ), a TOEFL test, and a writing test.

Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ)

The Persian restandardized form of the adult Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975) was used to measure the degree of the personality trait of extroversion. It included 38 questions for measuring the personality trait of extroversion. Seventeen questions measure the personality trait of extroversion, while the rest are used as lie fillers to identify the discrepancies in answers. The EPQ was restandardized in Iran by Nikjoo (1982) and has been shown to be both reliable and valid in its different administrations with Iranian participants. For the sake of this research, the reliability of this test was estimated at .73.

Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL)

In this study a standard version of paper and pencil format, taken from taken from TOEFL preparation kit (2003) collection was administered to the students. It consisted of 90 questions; the structure and written expression part had 40 questions and reading comprehension section carried 50 questions. In order to secure reliability of the answers, the researcher excluded listening section of TOEFL test due to some limitations. Participants were asked to answer 90 questions in a previously distributed answer sheet within a time limit of 80 minutes. In order to measure the reliability of the administered TOEFL test, KR-21 formula was employed. The reliability of the total test was high and estimated at .85.

Writing test

An argumentative prompt was provided for participants to write about. Examinees were required to take up a stance on the given prompt and generate, organize, and support their ideas with examples or evidence.A time limit of 30 minutes was given to participants. Further more, they were required to write within the content limit of 250-300 words. The chosen topic was: do you agree or disagree with the statement that says grades encourage students to learn?

Writing topics

Writing prompts were selected from a range of Test of Written English (TWE) choices provided in TOEFL Essay book as Lee, Breland, and Muraki (2004) and Breland, Lee, Najarian, and Muraki (2004) found evidence that overall TWE topics have an acceptable level of comparability.

Scoring scale

As the purpose of this study is to investigate content and form of writing in argumentative essay, an analytic scale was needed in scoring writing samples; a scale that provides raters with details in each component of writing. Of analytic scales, Jacobs, Zinkgrat, Wormuth, Hartfiel, and Hughey's (1981) analytic scale was chosen for this study as Weigle (2002) claims that, among different rating scales, ESL Composition Profile provided by Jacobs et al. (1981) is "one of the best known and widely used analytic scale in ESL"(p.115). In this regard, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) call this scale as "well supported by content and construct validity"(p.409).

Procedure

First,theEPQ test was administered to 210 participants. The participants who scored more than eleven were considered as extroverts. Next, after a break of 30 minutes to ensure that participants are not bored, a TOEFL test was administered to the participants. Having rated the personality test answer sheets, the researcher divided 210 participants into two groups of extroverts and introverts, 98 and 112 students in each, respectively. Having rated the TOEFL test answer sheets, the researcher computed the mean score and standard deviation of each group of extroverts and introverts and selected those students who scored within the range of mean to one standard deviation above as high-intermediates, real participants. In extroversion group 63 students were of high-intermediate proficiency level and 64 introverted students were at high-intermediate level.

Fourteen days later, an argumentative topic was given to the participants, 7 of whom were absent, to write a composition.Two raters with no vested interest in the results independently assigned scores to compositions on the basis of Jacobs et al.'s (1981) composition profile.In order to prevent any raters' bias, writers' names were eliminated. Organization and content were considered in scoring the content of writing. On the other hand, language use, vocabulary, and mechanics were referred to in scoring the form of writing assignments. The raters assigned scores on the form, content, and total quality of compositions separately and

their averages for each of these three parts were the participants' score on that part.In order to ascertain the reliability of composition scores, inter-rater correlation (Pearson correlation coefficients)of scores were computed for each section. Correlation of content scores was .84, form scores .86, and total scores .91. According to Jacob et al. (1981), "…A reader reliability of .80 is probably adequate".

Data analysis

Having collected the necessary data from the three sets of tests namely, the TOEFL structure and reading comprehension, EPQ, and witting test, the researcher analyzed the data. In order to verify the hypotheses, the means of two raters' scores assigned to each participant was computed and compared for total scores and its two subsets, i.e. content and form,for each participant. Then, threeone sample independent t-tests were applied, one comparing the extroverted and introverted writers' form scores, onecomparing the extroverted and introverted writers' content scores, and the last for comparing the extroverted and introverted writers' total scores.

Results

Investigation of hypothesis 1

To answer the first research question "Is there any significant difference between extroverted and introverted Iranian high-intermediate EFL learners' performance in the form of their argumentative writing?", the researcher compared both groups' mean scores in form section. Table 5. 1 reports the descriptive statistics of both groups' performances in the form of argumentative writing.

Table 5. 1

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Extroverts and Introverts' Scores in Formof the Argumentative Writing

	Type	Number	Mean	Standard deviation	Std. error mean
Form	Introversion	60	41.07	5.258	.6789
	Extroversion	60	32.80	4.825	.6229

As shown, the form performance of the introverted writers with a mean score of 41.07is better than the extroverted writers' group with the mean score of 32.80. To identify whether this difference is significant, the researcher applied an independent sample t-test to compare the scores of both groups, the results of which are presented in Table 5.2:

Table 5.2

Independent Samples Test of Extroverts and Introverts' Form Scores

| Form		Levine's test for equality of variances		T-test for equality of means		
	Equal variances assumed	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		.035	.851	8.97	118	.000

With regard to F= .035 and significance level of .851 and comparison of the significance level with α = .05, it is concluded that data is homogeneous. Therefore, Equal variances are assumed.

The t-statistic of this test shown to be 8.97, degree of freedom was 118, and significance level was .000. Comparison of significance level with α = .05 discloses that .000<.05. Therefore, the first null hypothesis of this research, suggesting there is not any significant difference between extroverted and introverted Iranian high-intermediate EFL learners' performance in the form of the argumentative writing, is rejected.

The results of the independent sample test proved that this difference is significant. That is, introverts outperformed their extroverted counterparts in the form of argumentative writing. These results are in line with Eysenck and Eysenck's (1985) study which highlighted introverts' precision and proved that introverts were more careful about the linguistic correctness of what they were going to write. These results also confirm Eysenck's (1979) idea about introverts' more attentional selectivity that aids them in focusing on the linguistic features, form, of their writing. Besides, they are, to some extent, in line with O'Shea's (1987) idea about introverts' attention to spelling and writing mechanics.

To vividly portray the introverts' better performance over introverts in the form section of writing, the following diagram is presented.

Figure 5. 1. Introverted and extroverted writers' mean scores of form
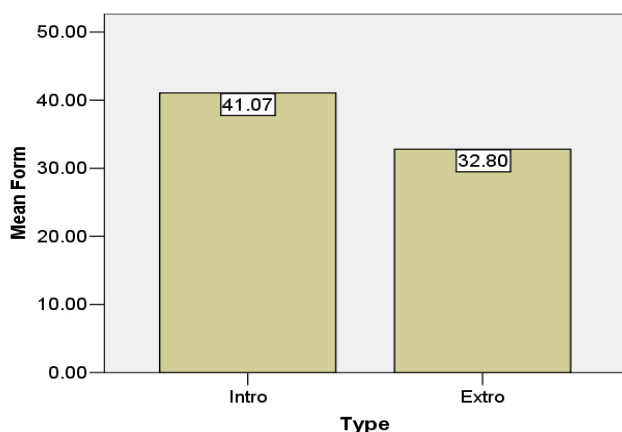
Investigation of hypothesis 2

To investigate the second research hypothesis, "There is not any significant difference between extroverted and introverted Iranian high-intermediate EFL learners' performance in the content of the argumentative writing", the descriptive statistics (mean scores and standard deviations) of both groups' performances in the content of argumentative writingwere compared.

Table 5. 3

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Extroverts and Introverts' Scores in Contentof the Argumentative Writing

	Type	Number	Mean	Standard deviation	Std. error mean
Content	Introvert	60	42.07	3.861	.4985
	Extrovert	60	39.10	4.201	.5423

As shown, the content performance of the introverted writers with a mean score of 42.07is better than the extroverted group's performance with the mean score of 39.10. To recognize

whether this difference between the two groups' content scores is significant, the researcher applied an independent sample t-test, the results of which are presented in Table 5.4:

Table 5.4

Independent Samples Test of Extroverts and Introverts' Content Scores

		Levine's test for equality of variances		T-test for equality of means		
Content	Equal variances assumed	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		.005	.942	4.027	118	.000

With regard to F= .005 and significance level of .942 and comparison of the significance level with α = .05, .942>.05, it is concluded that data is homogeneous. Therefore, Equal variances are assumed.

The t-statistic of this test showed to be 4.027, degree of freedom was 118, and significance level was .000. Comparison of significance level with α = .05 discloses that .000<.05. Therefore, the second null hypothesis of this research, suggesting there is not any significant difference between extroverted and introverted Iranian high-intermediate EFL learners' performance in the content of the argumentative writing, is rejected. The results of the independent sample t-test proved that this difference is significant. That is, introverts outperformed their extroverted counterparts in the content of argumentative writing.

To vividly portray the introverts' better performance over introverts in the content section of writing, the following diagram is presented.

Figure 5. 2. Introverted and extroverted writers' meanscores of content
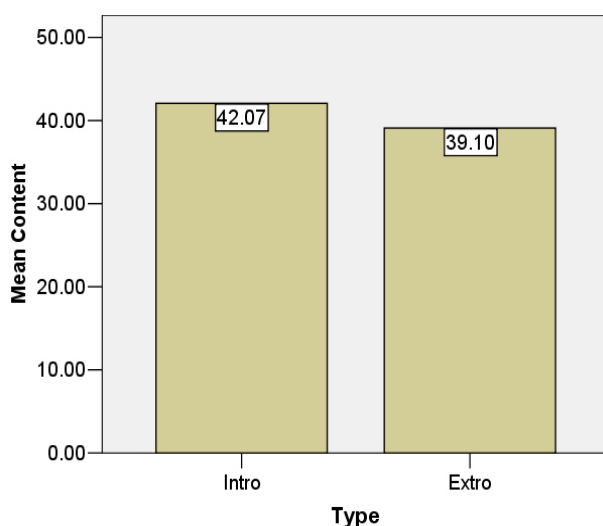
Investigation of hypothesis 3

The same procedure was undertaken to compare extroverts and introverts' overall performance in argumentative writing.Table 5. 5 reports the descriptive statistics (mean scores and standard deviations) of both groups' overall performances the argumentative writing.

Table 5.5

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Extroverts and Introverts' Overall Scores in the Argumentative Writing

	Type	Number	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error mean
Total	1 Introversion	60	83.07	7.995	1.0322
	2 Extroversion	60	71.87	8.104	1.0462

As shown, the overall performance of the introverted writers with a mean score of 83.07is better than the extroverted writers' performance with the mean score of 71.87. An independent sample t-test was carried out to compare two groups' total scores, the results of which are presented in Table 5.6:

Table 5. 6

Independent Samples Test of Extroverts and Introverts' total Scores

		Levine's test for equality of variances		T-test for equality of means		
	Equal variances assumed	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Total		.388	.534	7.621	118	.000

With regard to F= .388 and significance level of .534 and comparison of the significance level with α = .05, .534>.05, it is concluded that data is homogeneous. Therefore, Equal variances are assumed.

The t-statistic of this test proved to be 7.621, degree of freedom was 118, and significance level was .000. Comparison of significance level with α = .05 discloses that .000<.05. Therefore, there is a significant difference between extroverted and introverted Iranian high-intermediate EFL learners' overall performance in the argumentative writing.

The results of the independent sample t-test proved that this difference is significant. That is, introverts outperformed their extroverted counterparts in the overall quality of the argumentative writing. These results are in line with the results of a study conducted by Carrell et al. (1996) in which they concluded that introverts gained better scores than extroverts in writing course during both the first and second semesters. Likewise, these results confirm Jahanbazi's (2007) investigation in Iran in which he found out that introverts were more successful than their extroverted counterparts in the overall writing quality. In a similar vein, these results support Callahan's (2000) idea that for extroverted learners, as most people suppose, writing seems to lag behind speaking. On the contrary,introverts enjoy focusing on goals and have ample amount of writings as they are better at expressing themselves through writing rather than speaking. Furthermore, the results lend support to Carrell's (1995) conclusion, in which Carrell realized that introverted writers tended to score higher in argumentative writing than extroverts.To vividly portray the introverts' better performance over introverts in overall quality,the following diagram is presented.

Figure 5. 3. Introverted and extroverted writers' overall performance *mean* scores
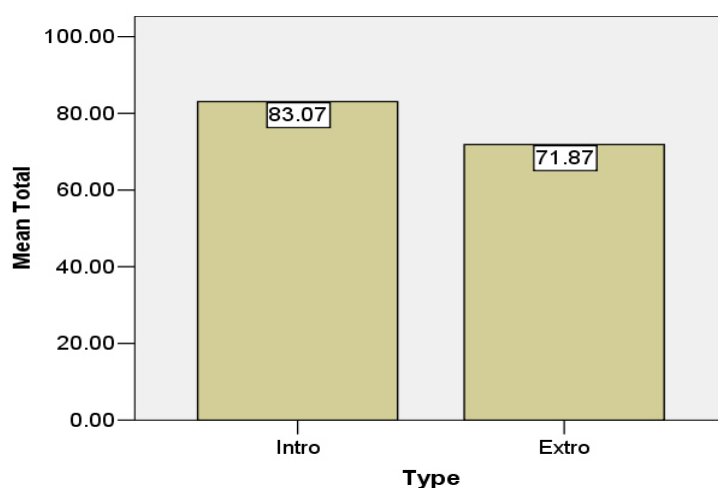
Conclusion

The findings result in tentative conclusions about three research questions posed at the beginning of the study, and have implications for language teachers, language learners and syllabus designers. Results indicated that although extroverts are good at expressing themselves through speaking, they are not as successful as introverts in writing. This finding is in line with Dewaele's (2007) conclusion that extraversion has no effect on written L2 production, but it is positively linked to oral L2 production in stressful situations. Results also revealed that extroverts' difficulty in writing is not restricted to one of writing subsets, but to both form and content that affects their overall writing quality.

In spite of researchers' emphasis on introverts' attention to grammatical and mechanical aspects of writing (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1985) due to their attentional selectivity (Eysenck, 1979), it was shown that introverts also pay attention to content of writing. That is, their performances in content and overall writing quality are better than extroverts', who were deemed to easily express their thoughts in writing.Results also support Carrell's (1995) conclusion about extroverts and introverts' performance in argumentative writing. That is, introverts perform successfully in comparison with extroverts in argumentative writing mode. They also lend support to Callahan's (2000) idea about these groups that asserts introverts are better writers than extroverts. Also, results indicated that extroverted writers need teachers' guidance on performance and settingstandards.

These results build awareness of certain general realities that hold for most extroverted and introverted writersand by which teachers can more directly address students' needs. For example, writing teachers canapply this knowledge to motivate extroverts to keep personal journals or diaries in order to improve their writing.

As extroverted writers are in a pressing need of recognizing sentence-level and higher-level components of writing and the way to link these to produce a well-organized, coherent text,writing teachers should direct learners' attention to these features by providing them with both form-wise and content-wise feedback.

Having knowledge of learners' personality types may help writing teachers to match their expectations with writers' abilities. For instance, realizing that extroverts are not apt for writing causes teachers to reduce their expectations, which affects the scores they assign to students.

The more writing teachers know about writers' personality traits, the better they will diagnose their writing problems. Personality traits knowledge helps teachers to gain insights

into the contexts in which students are at ease or learn to write. Teachers can not ignore learners' personality types and individual differences unless they "assume that teaching can proceed just as well in the absence of any knowledge about the learning process, or individual differences relation to it…" (Eysenck, 1979, p. 169)

Writing teachers should consider learners' personality types in choosing writing prompts. As Callahan (2000) has pointed out, extroverted writers are interested in thinking about the external world and their experiences, while introverts prefer to reflect on their inner side. The same conclusions have been reached by Carrell (1995). Therefore, teachers can suggest choices of prompt to writers in which each group of writers choose a topic that suits them most.

Extroverted learners, having realized their personality trait and their difficulty in both form and content of writing, may attempt to improve their motivation and enhance their performance in writing. Having realized their problems in both form and content of writing, extroverted writers may recognize that sentence-level concerns (language use, vocabulary, and mechanics) should be linked to higher-level composing decisions through attention to both.

Having recognized their personality types and preferences, language learners allow the development of natural strengths,find areas for growth, make the most of their potential, find it easier to change their preferences, and try other personality types' inclination in writing. For example, extroverted writers, having realized their personality trait, can make the most of their potential for discussions before writing or recognize writing as an area for more growth. Considering learners' individual differences may help the realm of syllabus design to select writing activities that meet the needs of learners with different personality characteristics and from which learners of dissimilar personality types can benefit. For instance, writing prompts that make learners to reflect on outer world rather than their inner side may be appropriate for extroverted writers, while topics requiring writers to focus on their internal feelings may match introverts. Offering "a variety of carefully constructed writing prompts", (Callahan, 2000, p. 74), can provide learners with an opportunity to write on the prompts with which they are at ease and in which they can demonstrate their best performance. Ehrman, Leaver, and Oxford (2003, p.324) believe, "In order to enable the most learners possible to learn as much as they can, we need to give them every advantage", including appropriate writing prompts that enable them to write on the topics that accord with their preferences.

Besides, writing activities should be selected on the basis of focus on form and content. That is, neglecting one at the expense of the other will be counterproductive. Therefore,

syllabus designers are well advised to strike a balance between form and content of writing tasks when they select and grade a writing course syllabus.

This study should be replicated with more participants for confirming these results. Besides, replications are also required with participants being chosen from outside of university context and perhaps from among institute language learners or school students. Other researchers may wish to replicate this study with looking at more details. That is, exploring extroverted and introverted writers' performance in each five subsets of analytic scale (content, organization, grammar, vocabulary use, and mechanics) and comparing them can be a potential study subject

References

Ackerman, P.L.,& Heggestad, E.D. (1997). Intelligence, personality, and interests: Evidence for overlapping traits. *Psychological Bulletin,121*, pp. 219–245.

Beland, H., Lee, Y., Najarian, M., & Muraki, E. (2004). An analysis of TOEFL CBT writing prompt difficulty and comparability for different gender groups. Report No. RR-04-05, Report 76. TOEFL Research Reports (ERIC Documentation Reproduction Service No. ED492919). Princeton, NJ.

Brown, D. H. (1973). Affective variables in second language acquisition. *Language Learning, 23* (2), 231-244.

Brown, H. D. (1987). *Principles of language learning and language teaching,* Englewood Cliffs, NJ:Princeton Hall.

Brunas-Wagstaff, J. (1998). *Personality: A cognitive approach.* London: Routledge.

Callahan, S. (2000). Responding to the invisible student. *Assessing Writing, 7* (1), 57-77.

Carrell, P. (1995). The effect of writers' personalities and raters' personalities on the holistic evaluation of writing. *Assessing Writing, 2* (2), 153-190.

Carrell, P., Prince, M. S., &Astika, G. (1996). Personality types and language learning in an EF'L context. *Language Learning, 46*(1), 75-99.

Chandrasegaran, A. (2008). NNS students' arguments in English: Observations in formal and informal contexts. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 17(4),* 237-254.

Chastain, K. (1975). Affective and ability factors in second language acquisition. *Language Learning, 25* (1), 153-161.

Clark, R., Ivanic, R. (1997). *The politics of writing.* London: Routledge.

Cumming, A. (2006). Teaching writing: orienting activities to students' goals. InE. Uso-Juan & A. Martinez-Flor (Eds.), Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills (p. 383-a00). Berlin: Mounton De Gruyter.

Dewaele, J. M., & Furnham, A. (1999). Extraversion: The unloved variable in applied linguistic research. *Language Learning, 49* (3), 509-544.

Ehrman, M. E.,Leaver, B. L., &Oxford, R. L. (2003). Abrief overview of individual differences in second language learning. *System, 31*, 313- 330.

Ely, C. M. (1986). An analysis of discomfort, risk taking, sociability and motivation in the L2 classroom. *Language Learning, 36* (1), 1-25.

Eysenck, H. J. (1979). Anxiety, learning, and memory: A reconceptualisation. *Journal of Research in Personality, 13*, 363-385.

Eysenck, H.J., & Eysenck, M.W. (1985) Personality and individual differences: a natural science approach. London: Plenum Press.

Farsides, T.,& Woodfield, R. (2003). Individual differences and undergraduate academic success: The roles of personality, intelligence, and application. *Personality and Individual Differences, 34*, 1225–1243.

Grabe, W., & Kaplan, R. B. (1996). *Theory and practice of writing: An applied linguistic perspective*. London: Longman.

Heaven, P.C.L., Mak, A., Barry, J. and Ciarrochi, J.(2002). Personality and family influences on adolescent attitudes to school and self-rated academic performance. *Personality and Individual Differences,32*, pp. 453–462.

Jacobs, H. L., Zinkgraf, S. A., Wormuth, D. R., Hartfiel, V. F., & Hughey, J. B. (1981). *Testing ESL composition: A practical approach*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Jahanbazi, M. (2007). The relationship between extroversion/introversion and writing ability of Iranian EFL learners. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Tehran, Iran.

Lee, Y., Breland, H., & Muraki, E. (2004). Comparability of TOEFL CBT essay prompts for different native language groups. Research Reports: 77. TOEFL Research Reports (ERIC Documentation Reproduction Service No. ED464963), Princeton, NJ.

MacIntyre, P., & Charos, C. (1996). Personality, attitudes, and affect of as predictors of second language communication. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 15,* 3-26.

Marefat, F. (2006). Student writing, personality type of the student and the rater: Ant interrelationship? *Reading Matrix, 6* (2), 116-124.

McCaulley, M. H., & Natter, F. (1980). *Psychological (Myers- Briggs) type differences in education*. Gainesville, FL: Center for Application of Psychology Type.

Nemati, M. (2003). The relationship between topic difficulty and mode of discourse: An in-depth study of EFL writers' production, recognition and attitude. *IJAL*, 6, 87-116.

Nikjoo, N. (1982). Factorial structure of the EPQ in Iran. Ph.D. Thesis, University of Ulster.

O'Shea, J. (1987). Writing apprehension and university test of writing competence. *English Quarterly, 20* (4), 285-295.

Park, R. H., Stapleton, P. (2003).Questioning the importance of individualized voice in undergraduate L2 argumentative writing: An empirical study with pedagogical implications. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 3,*245-265.

Paunonen, S.V.,& Ashton, M.C.(2001). Big Five Factors and Facets and the prediction of behaviour. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology81*, 524–539.

Richards, J. C., & Renandya, W. A. (2002). *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice.*Cambridge: CambridgeUniversity Press.

Roberts, M.J. (2002). The relationship between extraversion and ability. *Personality and Individual Differences32*, pp. 517–522.

Rose, M. (1984). *Writer's block: The cognitive dimension*. Carbondale and Edwardsville: Southern IllinoisUniversity Press.

Shapiro, K. J., & Alexander, I. E. (1969). Extroversion-introversion, affiliation, and anxiety. *Journal of Personality, 37*, 387-406.

TOEFL test preparation kit (2003). Educational Testing Service. Princeton: USA.

Weigle, S. C. (2002). *Assessing writing*. Cambridge: CambridgeUniversity Press.

Zaghi, D. (2008). *Writing performance in narrative and argumentative rhetorical modes and personality types of Iranian EFL learners.* Unpublished master's thesis, Allameh Tabatabaee University, Tehran, Iran.

Title

The Effect of Modified speech on listening to Authentic Speech

Author

Mohamad Reza Khodabakhsh, (Ph.D.)
Kurdistan University, Sannandaj, Iran

Bio data

Mohamad Reza Khodabakhsh, assistant professor of Kurdistan University, Sannandaj, Iran. He has publications in domestic journals. His areas of interest are fluency in speaking, authentic speech and listening comprehension and FL language teaching methodology.

Abstract

The present study investigates the effect of controlling speech rate on listening comprehension of Iranian students majoring in English. It was somehow the application of Krashen's 'input hypothesis'(1985). There were two homogeneous groups each comprising 40 students taking 'Oral Translation 3'. In the experimental group there were 28 females and 12 males, in the control group there were 30 females and 10 males. The age of the subjects ranged from 22-28.The selected material was authentic American English spoken by fluent native speakers in the programs such as 'Opera' and 'Dr. Phill'. The students were worked with in a well equipped language laboratory. The experimental group had the advantage of modified speech through Ulead software version 11. The control group just enjoyed the possibility of a five time repetition for each individual sentence. At the end two reliable and valid M.C. listening comprehension and cloze tests were prepared from the covered materials and administered to them. The cloze test was based on the exact word version (Chaudron, 1986). Based on the results of this study it was concluded that there were no significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the multiple choice and cloze tests at .05 level of significance. This implies that first, the experimental group did not do any better than the control group and second, the students were not able to apply the benefits of slowing down the speech to authentic texts and for speeches delivered at a normal rate.

Keywords: Speech modification; Speech rate; Connected speech; Reduced forms.

Introduction

The idea of using speech modification in case of NNSs dates back to the 1970s. Friedman and Johnson (1971) proposed using slower rates in language teaching. The idea of matching speech rate and listeners proficiency was put forward by Pimsleur, Hanckok, & Furey (1977). They proposed two methods of adjusting rates, namely, speech expansion and compression, though these equipments were not available at that time. Theye proposed an alteration method, i.e., inserting pauses into recorded speech to expand it. Friedman and Johnson (1971, cited by Griffiths, 1990) reported on the structurally spaced pauses into orally presented Russian sentences and significantly accurate recall. Foulke (1968) found that speeding up of recording up to 260wpm had no effect on comprehension but above that it began to crumble precipitously. Foulke and Stitch (1969) and Stitch (1971) concluded that the threshold for listening comprehension is 275 wpm, after which comprehension declines rapidly. Carver (1973) came up with the similar results.

Anderson-Hsieh and Koehler (1988) reported on the adverse effect of speed on listening comprehension of English native speakers but added that a non standard pronounced accent had a more deleterious effect on listening comprehension. Stanley (1978) pinpointed the adverse effect of speech rate on listening comprehension. Griffiths (1992) studied the effects of speech rates (127, 188, 250 wpm) on the nonnative speaker's listening comprehension and concluded that the slowest rate was the most comprehensible and the higher rates led to worse comprehension. Conrad (1989) and Griffiths (1990) reiterated the adverse effect of speech rate on listening comprehension. Boyle (1984), Flowerdew and Miller (1992) indicated that fast speech leads to problems in listening. In Zhao's study (1997) speech rate was measured by the recognition of the spoken word. Here the control of speech was given to the learners themselves. He experimented with four conditions, namely, listening to sentences once; repeating; modification of speed and repetition; and a speech rate of 194 wpm. He concluded that in condition three where students could modify speed and repeat, the students obtained the highest scores. Grosjean (1972) showed that the increase of speed addressed to NNSs (intermediate proficiency) from 147wpm to 169 wpm led to a 14.65 decrease in listening comprehension. Nevertheless, at the slowest rate, i.e., 96 wpm the subjects were incapable to recall 56% of sentence details. Chauron (1979) held that one of the important features of listening comprehension is the great speed accompanying connected speech. At a normal speed a new word is uttered at the rate of 300msc which needs to be transformed into lexical units and then realized at the higher structural units. Chodorow (1979) attributed the decrease

of comprehension in the fast speech to the loss of the processing time. Derwing and Munro (2001) conducted an experiment on the suitability of speech rate in case of Mandarin learners of English. They used a rating scale ranging from too slow to too fast. The passages were read by native English speakers in three modes: unmodified; Mean-Mandarin rate; Mean-English rate; and slow rate. The result showed that speech modifications did not lead to better ratings by the listeners. Blau (1990) conducted two experiments on the effect of input modifications in terms of speed and the insertion of pauses on Puerto Rican and Polish EFL learners and found no significant effect with mechanically slowing down the speed but significant effect with the insertion of 3-second pauses. The slowing down of the speed was effective with the lowest levels of L2 proficiency. Segalowitz and Segalowitz (1993, cited in Vandergrift, 2004, p.6) assigned importance to the word recognition in listening comprehension. Goh (2000) mentioned lack of recognition of the familiar words to the learners as their second major problem after forgetting what is heard.

Speech modification

Comprehensible input in receptive skills was put forth by Long (1981) who endorsed the role of comprehensible input in conversational modifications. Krashen (1985) is the most theoretically-based advocate of comprehensible input who postulates the linguistic input directed to L2 learners should be a little above their current level of linguistic competence. One feature of this modification is speech rate which has been investigated by other researchers (Anderson-Hsieh et al., 1988; Blau, 1990; Boyle, 1984 ;Carver, 1973; Chiang and Dunkel, 1992; Chaudron, 1979; Conrad, 1989; Derwing and Munro, 2001; Flowerdew and Miller, 1992 ; Foulke, 1968; Friedman and Johnson, 1971; Griffiths, 1990; Grosjean, 1972; Stanley, 1978; Stitch, 1971; Zhao, 1997). Save for Blau, (1990) and Derwing and Munro (2001), the other researchers concluded that speed modification facilitates listening comprehension. It seems axiomatic that slowing down the speech rate would facilitate listening comprehension. To the knowledge of the researcher the reason/s for this facilitation has/have not been well delineated. Is it due to processing task or to the identification of words in connected speech? Blau (1990) attributed it to the provision of more time for processing in terms of the insertion of pauses in the main structural constituents. The present study tends to replicate the effect of speech modification not as an end in itself, but rather as a means to an end. That is ,to see first , the beneficial effects of speech modification consistent with Krashen's input hypothesis in listening comprehension and, second, the effect of this

modification for new and novel situations. It also tends to delve into the corollary repercussions of speed modifications.

Purpose of the study

The present study attempts to evaluate the effectiveness of Krashen's input hypothesis (1985) in terms of speech rate for Iranian EFL learners. More importantly, the researcher tries to investigate the effectiveness of this hypothesis in situations where this modified input is no longer available when listening to authentic speech of moderately fast rate.

Research questions

1) Does slowing down the speech rate facilitate perception of words and listening comprehension of Iranian EFL listeners listening to authentic American speech compared to mere repetition?

2) Can the gradual increase of speed be effective in English language classes with respect to listening comprehension?

Nullhypotheses

Two null hypotheses are formulated:

1) Slowing down the speech rate is not an important factor for Iranian EFL listeners at the university level.

2) The gradual increase of speed cannot be of great help in laboratory classes.

Methodology

Participants

The subjects participating in this study were senior English students majoring in English Translation at Azad University of Hamedan, Iran. They all had passed all the prerequisite courses for Oral Translation 3, namely, Laboratories 1 and 2 and Oral Translations 1 and 2. Approximately, there were a total of 140 students in the two groups but after the administration of the TOEFL test, version 1994, 80 students were included in the study. The aim of using this test was excluding the outliers and also getting four homogeneous groups on the basis of their scores. This reduction in number was also due to limitations observed in practice, restrictions in accommodating this huge number in the laboratory booths and also for precision in the procedures used. The students scored between 48 and 61out of 80 with a mean score of 54.The lowest mean score was on listening comprehension which was 10 out of

25. This indicated that they had drastic problems with listening comprehension. They were randomly assigned to two experimental and two control groups each containing around 20 students. The subjects comprised both males and females, with the majority of females in all the four groups. In the experimental groups there were 28 females and 12 males. In the control groups there were 30 females and 10 males. The age of the subjects ranged from 22 to 28.

These students had passed Oral Translations 1 and 2 with the researcher and they complained of the speech rate in the authentic oral texts. The majority of them had no access to satellite and showed no interest in watching the English broadcasts. To get the students involved in the class activities the researcher allocated some marks to the students who were attentive and did the assigned activities appropriately. These points were not considered in the test scores of the study.

Materials

The materials which were used in this study were as follows:

Video-taped selections of American shows, namely,' Opera','Doctors ', and also Talk Shows from MBC (Middle East Broadcating Center)and CBS (Columbia Broadcasting System). Some of these shows were 'Overwhelmed mothers', 'Rudness', and 'Cruelty to Animals' from Opera shows. The topics of discussion in 'the early show' from CBS were general and with no specialized orientation some examples were 'Buying a House', and 'B.P.A.' from 'Health Watch'(Early Show, September 16, 2008). The average speed of these materials was 215 words per minute.

Instrumentations

New versions of the TOEFL test for pre-testing and post-testing. The TOEFL tests comprised 80 questions (listening comprehension: 30 questions; Reading comprehension: 25 questions; Structure: 25 questions). The aim of the pre test was to homogenize the experimental and the control groups.

Cloze test items based on the exact word (Chaudron, 1986). This test comprised 300 words out of which 50 words were deleted. The criterion for the exact word was based on providing the intended word or the word with negligible minor spelling errors. The reliability and validity of this test were .83 and 51.35 respectively. The words deleted from the passage were assumed to be problematic because of the speech rate and features of connected speech.

Examples were " I wen to a denis" for 'I went to a dentist,' and " I had an apoinmen", 'for 'I had an appointment'.

Multiple choice questions based on the oral texts. A total number of 60 questions based on the materials covered were piloted on the students of Kurdistan University and 20 questions were excluded because of the item facility and item difficulty. These materials were worked on during the term. The reliability and validity of the M.C. questions were .87 and 51.35 respectively.

Procedures

First, a 1994 version of TOEFL test was administered to the participants and roughly four homogeneous groups (two experimental and two control groups) were formed on the basis of their scores. In the first session the students in the four groups were guided and directed with respect to what would be done and what they would be required to do.

The students in the control groups were given the written forms of some of the words which were assumed to be problematic in the oral text. These words were in the oral texts and the students were required to read them aloud individually. The aim of this activity was to appraise the students' knowledge of the segmental and suprasegmental features. So, their voices were tape-recorded. After making sure that they had problems with these features, the correct pronunciation of words together with the prosodic features read aloud by native American speakers extracted from The American Heritage Dictionary of English Language, the 4th ed. were given to them. The segmental and suprasegmental featureswere worked with them and they were just told to transcribe the allotted assignment for the week (around 6 to ten minutes each week) and without exerting attempt leave the indiscernible words blank. In the laboratory each problematic sentence was played up to 5 times. At the end, the teacher's own version which was exactly in accord with what the speakers said in the oral text and was read aloud. On the basis of this the students gave their own translations (though, translation was not the concern of this study).

Also, in the first session the features of connected speech were taught by the teacher and practiced by the students. Some examples of assimilation which were paramount in connected speech are as follows: The following examples are drawn from Gimson 1994: 257-60

/n/   changing to /m/ before[p,b,m]   ten people changes to tem people

/t/   changing to [p] or a glottal stop before [p, b, m] that boy changes to thap boy

/t/ changing to[k] or a glottal stop before[k, g] that girl   changing to thak girl

/d/ changing to [b] or a glottal stop before [p,b,m] good play changing to goob play

/d/ changing to [g] or a glottal stop before[k, g] good cause changing to goog cause

The orientation of work with the experimental groups was the rate of speech. Like the control group they were provided with the recorded materials and required to listen and transcribe the assigned work and without exerting attempt leave the indiscernible words blank. In the laboratory the speech rate was slowed down from 4-5 words per second to 3, and then to 2 words per second so that discerning the flow of speech and consequently listening comprehension would become possible. It was not obligatory to follow this route exactly, that is, slowing down from 4-5 words to 3 and finally to 2. It all depended on the sentence and how grave the features of connected speech along with the speech rate might have been. At each rate checks were made for the identification of words in the sentences. Of course, not all words were indiscernible. The problem was with some words in the sentences. The researcher left out the sentences that were discernible and the emphasis was put on the identification of words that had undergone the process of increased speed and connected speech. So checks were made for those problematic words or sentences. If the students could not provide the intended word or words, it was only in that case that speed was slowed down to slower rates. The students in the experimental groups were told to be attentive to these activities. In the following week, all groups were asked some questions on the covered materials so that they would take the course seriously. None of the four groups had the final transcription of the oral material. This was because of the researcher's concern that they might rely on their memory. In each session the same procedure was employed with this difference that the rate of speech for the experimental group was manipulated. The students in the control groups were told to check the words for their meanings, segmental, and suprasegmental features.

Data collection

After following this procedure after 16 weeks the students were given two tests from the covered materials. A 40 item MCQ, and an exact word cloze test(Chaudron, 1986). As mentioned before the reliability and validity of these two tests had been estimated. The reliability of the cloze test was .87 and that of the MCQ was, 83. The construct validity of both tests was 51.35. For the MC items 40 minutes and for each deletion in the cloze test 10 seconds were given. The MC items were read only once (the voice from the video- recorded materials). The cloze was read two times. During the first reading they just listened. Also a TOEFL test, version 1996 was used to assess the subjects' capabilities in listening to unheard materials after they had been exposed to speech modification.

Data analysis

Is the speech rate modification more facilitative than mere repetition?

The subjects took a M.C.Q. test comprising 40 items and a cloze test (exact word, Chaudron, 1986) in their booths in the laboratory.An independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the multiple choice test. The t-observed value is .099 (Table 1). This amount of t-value at 70 degrees of freedom is lower than the critical value of t, i.e. 1.99.

Table 1: Independent t-test Multiple Choice Test by Groups

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
MC	Equal variances assumed	5.081	.027	.099	78	.921	.07500	.75781	-1.433	1.58369
	Equal variances not assumed			.099	70.80	.921	.07500	.75781	-1.436	1.58611

Based on these results it can be concluded that there was not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the multiple choice test. The mean scores of the experimental and control groups are displayed in Table 2. The mean scores for the two groups are 18.92 and 18.85 respectively. It should be noted that the two groups did not enjoy homogeneous variances. The Levene's F of 5.08 has a probability of .027 (P < .05). That is why the second row of Table 1 "Equal variances not assumed" are reported.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics Multiple Choice Test by Groups

	GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
MC	EXPERIMENTAL	40	18.9250	3.89205	.61539
	CONTROL	40	18.8500	2.79698	.44224

An independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the cloze test. The t-observed value is 1.60 (Table 3). This amount of t-value at 78 degrees of freedom is lower than the critical value of t, i.e. 1.99. As the result indicated the mean of the two groups are very close to each other. This means that slowing down the speech rate did not prove effective for the experimental groups in case of the normal speech.

Table 3: Independent t-test Cloze Test by Groups

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
CLOZE	Equal variances assumed	3.380	.070	1.603	78	.113	2.46875	1.54045	-.59804	5.53554
	Equal variances not assumed			1.603	76.04	.113	2.46875	1.54045	-.59928	5.53678

Based on these results it can be concluded that there was not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the cloze test. The mean scores of the experimental and control groups are displayed in Table 4. The mean scores for the two groups are 17.87 and 15.40 respectively. Although the experimental group performed better than the control group on the cloze test the difference between their mean scores is not statistically significant.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics Cloze Test by Groups

	GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
CLOZE	EXPERIMENTAL	40	17.8750	7.42052	1.17329
	CONTROL	40	15.4062	6.31306	.99818

It should be noted that the two groups enjoyed homogeneous variances. The Levene's F of 3.38 has a probability of .07 (P > .05). That is why the first row of Table 3 "Equal variances assumed" are reported. The difference between the means of the two groups is somehow larger than their mean differences on the MCQ test. One reason might be that slowing down the speech has sensitized the experimental groups toward the identification of words.

Correlation Coefficient between MC and Cloze

The Pearson correlation coefficient between the MC and cloze tests is .51 (P = .000 < .05). Since the r-observed value is greater than the critical value of .21, it can be concluded that there was a statistically significant relationship between the MC and cloze tests.

Table 5: Correlation between MC and Cloze

		MC
CLOZE	Pearson Correlation	.514[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	80
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).		

Based on the Effect Size criteria developed by Cohen (1988), the Pearson correlation coefficient is itself an effect size with the following values:

R = .1 WEAK

R = .3 MODERATE

R = .5 STRONG

The index of .514 indicates a strong correlation between the two tests.

   Based on these results it can be concluded that the relationship between the MC and cloze tests are both statistically significant and meaningful.

    The results of the factor analysis indicate that the MC and cloze tests tap on the same underlying construct hence their construct validity is approved. The SPSS extracted one factor which accounts for 51.35 percent of the total variance in table 6. .

Table 6: Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.514	75.724	75.724	1.027	51.350	51.350
2	.486	24.276	100.000			
Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.						

Table 7 displays the factor loadings of the MC and Cloze test. Since they fall under the same underlying construct, the construct validity of the tests can be inferred.

Table 7: Factor Loadings

	Factor
	1
CLOZE	.717
MC	.717
Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.	

Can the gradual increase of speed be effective in English language classes with respect to listening comprehension?

Another version of a reliable and valid MC, and a cloze test of the parts of the materials that had not been worked on in the laboratory along with a TOEFL test, version 1996 were administered to the same subjects at the interval of one month after they took the first tests. Again there were 40 MCQ items and a cloze passage comprising 300 words with 50 deletions. The allotted time was the same as the first tests(1 minute for MC, and 10 second after each stop for the provision of the exact word.

A repeated-measures ANOVA was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the listening comprehension tests of multiple choice (MC), cloze and TOEFL. The F-observed value for the grouping variable, i.e. comparing the experimental and control groups' overall mean scores on the three tests is 3.70 (Table 8). This amount of F-value is lower than the critical value of F at 1 and 77 degrees of freedom, i.e. 3.96.

Table 8: Repeated-Measures ANOVA Listening Comprehension Tests of MC, Cloze and TOEFL by Group

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	160551.195	1	160551.195	5733.648	.000	.987
GROUP	103.870	1	103.870	3.709	.058	.046
Error	2156.122	77	28.002			

Two other statistics supports the non-significant F-value; the probability of .058 which is higher than the significance of .05 and the effect size (partial eta squared) of .046 which lower than .10. Based on the criteria developed by Cohen (1988 cited from Cohen and Brooke Lea; 2004) an effect six of .10 or lower is considered weak.

The statistically non-significant F-value indicates that there was not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the listening comprehension tests of MC, cloze and TOEFL.

Discussion

The results indicated that slowing down the speech might have a n immediate effect on the identification of the words to some extent, but when the speed is increased to the original rate this effect fades out. One important reason might be the alteration of the pronunciation of words in connected speech. That is, in the concatenated speech the features of connected speech like assimilation, contraction, deletion and…will be operative. During the experiment, there were words that remained indiscernible even at the slowest possible rate. This has implications for the teachers to model their speaking on the correct connected speech matched with the proficiency level of the students right from the beginning. They should be fastidious with this manner of speaking.

As displayed in Table 9 the overall mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the three listening comprehension tests of MC, cloze and TOEFL are 26.69 and 25.36 respectively.

Table 9: Descriptive Statistics Listening Comprehension Tests of MC, Cloze and TOEFL by Group

| GROUP | Mean | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval | |
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
EXPERIMENTAL	26.692	.483	25.730	27.654
CONTROL	25.368	.489	24.393	26.342

Based on these results it can be concluded that the null-hypothesis as the gradual increase of speed cannot be of great help in laboratory classes is supported. That is to say there was not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the listening comprehension tests of MC, cloze and TOEFL.

This study tended to investigate the influence of speed rate on word identification and listening comprehension of Iranian EFL students. The underlying psychological building block of this study was the application of Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1985) which postulates i+1 input for the learner in the learning and teaching settings . This study was conducted on Iranian EFL learners of English majoring in translation. There were 80 subjects and the majority were females. They had enrolled for Oral Translation 3 two hours a week and thirty two hours during the term. They all were at the seventh term and had passed all the prerequisite courses for Oral Translation 3. They had been homogenized on a TOEFL test , version 1994. Their mean score on this test was 410 out of 600. They were divided into two homogeneous groups.

The experimental group were provided with speech modification using Ulead Vidio Studio 11, version 2007. The control group was just provided with correct pronunciation and stress in isolation. Both groups were required to prepare themselves for the assigned weekly assignment of the oral passage. They all were supposed to transcribe the allotted assignment. The work with the experimental group began with the normal speed, and then the speed gradually slackened. The minimum discernible speech on this software was 49(about 95 words per minute) and the maximum 180 (approximately 240 words a minute). As long as there were questions with the identification of words this slowing down continued. In fact, the slower the speech became, the fewer words remained unidentified. At three speed rates this was done and at each rate the problematic sentences were played three times. Although at the minimum rate a considerable number of words became discernible, there were still some words that remained unidentified. The same procedure was applied to the control group with

one difference and it was that the problematic sentences were played three times with the unmodified speed.

The results showed that slowing down the speech affected listening positively for the identification of words to some extent. This identification is based on the encoding and storing of" the source information and the message in memory for later retrieval of word recognition, lexical access and listening comprehension" (Frauenfeldere, & Floccia, 1999). Still, some words remained obscure despite slowing down the rate to the maximum level possible. The researchers believe this was due to the features of fast connected speech that had blurred the speech. These findings corroborate the results of Zhao (1997), Griffiths (1991), and Chaudron (1980). What this study tended to contribute further to the previous studies was whether what the course had accrued could be applied to new situations and authentic materials with normal and in some cases with moderately fast speech rate. Though the experimental group outperformed the control group marginally, this difference was not statistically significant. The implication being that slowing down the speech rate did not work with normal speed for unheard and unseen passages and even for the practiced materials satisfactorily. Using Ulead software for speech modification may be helpful in case of the beginners adhering to Krashen's input hypothesis.

This study can have implications for the researchers interested in the effect of speed modification on listening comprehension and word identification. Studies like this dealing with the effect of speech rate on listening can help teachers use speed modification in their classes provided differing rates of speech are worked on simultaneously. Providing listeners just with ungraded materials may not prove helpful.

The findings of this research may warn teachers to be concerned about their speaking in the classrooms and may prompt them to adopt a mode of speaking similar to that of native speakers of English. They should try not to articulate and enunciate words and more importantly they should adhere to the conventions of connected speech. If violations of correct connected speech with moderate speed mean lack of understanding by the learners, then what can be achieved from using a non standard English? This does not mean that they should not be concerned about the feedbacks they would get from the learners; rather, they should adhere to the principles of concatenated speech but with graded chain of speech consistent with the norms of the native speakers of English.

This study showed that connected speech is different from the articulated speech in terms of the alterations the words undergo in connected speech. Lass (1984, Brown 1990, and Roach 1991 cited in Cauldwell, 1996) believe explaining the features of connected speech can

help the learners. The results of this study did not confirm such a claim. Making the EFL learners familiar with the features of connected speech through exposure to oral English from the beginning of listening activity is of utmost importance. As the results of this study revealed, the students knew the words and to a lesser extent they knew the correct pronunciation of words in isolation but the picture became dramatically reversed in connected and fast speech. This may somehow support the result of Goh's study (2000).

Adhering to all principles of connected speech simultaneously and not subsuming one or more elements means that these features should be practiced with moderately fast speed and not separated from each other. Exposing the learners to the authentic oral English seems to be a dire need by the learners as they encounter live and recorded oral English in their daily lives.

This study was conducted on a group of Iranian EFL learners on whose brains many items might have become fossilized and the eradication of which might be difficult. To acclimatize them with this new technique the researchers observed a sense of reluctance and indifference. To some of the learners this technique was degrading even if they had problems with some features of connected speech. It is recommended that future researchers adopt this technique in case of the advanced beginners and intermediate-level students.

It is recommended that future researchers adopt this technique with simultaneous practicing of differing rates, that is, fast, moderate, slow; moderate, slow, fast; slow, fast, moderate so that they would realize the alteration of speech sounds in different versions of speed and at the same time expose them to the unheard and unseen oral materials using the above procedure.

This study was conducted on two hours a week basis totaling 32 hours during the term on ninety students. The increase of two to four and six hours a week with a larger number of students is recommended. In order to economize on time it would be much better if differing rates of speech are pre-recorded, prepared and played consecutively and alternatively.

Candidate areas of research in future might be thorough examination of Persian as a syllable-timed language versus English as a stressed-timed language and also meticulous studies of syllabifications in English and Persian, the impact of working memory and its relationship with fast connected speech on listening comprehension in case of Iranian EFL learners .

References

Anderson-Hsieh,J., and K. Koehler. (1989. The effect of foreign accent and speaking rate on native speaker comprehension; *Language Learning, 38*(4),561-613.

Blau, E. (1990). The Effect of Syntax, Speed and Pauses on Listening Comprehension.*TESOL Quarterly, 24*(4), 746-753.

Blau, E. (1991). More on Comprehensible input: The effect of pauses and hesitation markers on listening comprehension (No. ED340 234): *ERIC*.

Boyle, J. (1984). Factors affecting listening comprehension. *ELT Journal, 38*(1),34-38.

Brown, G. (1986). Investigating listening comprehension in context. *Applied Linguistics, 7*(3),221-225.

Brown, G. (1990). *Listening to spoken English.* London: Longman.

Carver, R. (1973). Effect of increasing the rate of speech presentation upon comprehension. *Journal of Educational Psychology,*65(1) 118-126.

Cauldwell, R. T. (1996). Direct encounters with fast speech on CD- audio to teach listening. *System, 24*(4),521-528.

Chaudron, C. (1979). Complexity of ESL teacher's speech and vocabulary explanation/elaboration. *Paper presented at TESOL Convention.* Boston.

Chaudron, C. (1985). Comprehensibility and learning in the second language classroom. *Studies in 2ⁿᵈ L.A., 7* (2), 216-232.

Chaudron, C. (1986). The interaction of quantitative and qualitative approaches to   research: A view of the second language classroom. *TESOL Quarterly,20*(4),709-717.

Chaudron, C. , Rchards,J.C. (1986). The effects of discourse markers on the comprehension of lectures. *Applied Linguistics, 7*(2), 113-127.

Chiang, C. S., & Dunkel, P. (1992). The effect of speech modification, prior knowledge and listening proficiency on EFL lecture learning. *TESOL Quarterly, 26* (2), 345-374.

Chodorow, M.S. (1979). 'Time-compressed speech and the study of   lexical and syntactic Processing, in W.E. Cooper and E.C.T. Walker (eds.), *Sentence processing.* Hilsdale, NJ:Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Cohen, Barry,H. & R, Brooke,Lea. (2004). *Essentials of statistics for the   social and behavioral sciences* . Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley and Sons.

Conrad, L. (1989). The effects of time-compressed speech on native and EFL listening comprehension. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 11*(1), 1-16.

Cutler, A., Dahan, D., & van Donselaar, W. (1997). Prosody in the comprehension of spoken language: Literature review. *Language and Speech, 40*(2), 141-201.

Derwing, T.M. & Munro, M.J. (2001). What Speaking Rates Do Non-native Listeners Prefer? *Applied Linguistics. 22*(3), 324-337.

Dunkel, P. (1986). Developing listening fluency in L2: Theoretical principles and pedagogical considerations. *Modern Language Journal, 70(2),* 99-106.

Dunkel, P. (1991). Listening in the native and second/foreign language: Toward an integration of research and practice. *TESOL Quarterly, 25*(3),431-457.

Field, J. C. (2004). An insight into listeners' problems: Too much bottom-up or too much top-down. *System, 32*(3),363-377.

Flowerdew, J., & Miller, L. (1992). Student perceptions, problems and strategies in L2 lectures. *RELC Journal, 23*(2),60-80.

Flowerdew, J., & Miller, L. (2005). *Second language listening: Theory and practice.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Foulke, E. (1968). Listening comprehension as a function of word rate. *Journal of Communication, 18*(3), 198-206.

Foulke, E. and Sticht, T.G. (1969). Review of research on the intelligibility and comprehension of accelerated speech. *Pausological Bulletin* 72: 50-62

Frauenfelder, U. H., & Floccia, C. (1999). The Recognition of spoken words. In A. D. Friederici (Ed.), *Language comprehension: A biological perspective* (Second ed.). New York: Springer.

Friedman, H.L. & Johnson, R.L. (1971). Some actual and potential uses of rate controlled speech in second language learning. In P.Pimsleur & T. Quinn (Eds.). *The Psychology of Second Language Learning, 167-164.*

Gimson, A. (1994). *Gimson's pronunciation of English(5th ed., revised by A. Crattenden).* London: Edward Arnold.

Goh, C. (2000). A cognitive perspective on language learners' listening comprehension problems. *System, 28*(1), 55-75.

Griffiths, R.T. (1990 a). Speech rate and NNS comprehension : A preliminary study in time-benefit analysis. *Language Learning, 40*(3), 311-36.

Griffiths, R. (1990 b). 'Facilitating listening comprehension through rate control. *RELC Journal,* 21(1), 55-65.

Griffiths, R.T. (1991). Pausological research in an L2 context: A Rationale, and Review of Selected Studies. *Applied Linguistics, 12*(4) ,345-364.

Griffiths, R. (1992). Speech rate and listening comprehension: Further evidence of the relationship. *TESOL Quarterly, 26*(2), 385-391.

Grosjean, F. (1972). Pauses, Clauses, Sentences. *Language and Speech, 15.*

Grosjean, F. (1985). The Recognition of words after their acoustic offset: Evidence and implications. *Perception and Psychophysics,* 38(4), 299-310.

Grosjean, F., & Gee, J. P. (1987). Prosodic structure and spoken word recognition. In U.Frauenfelder & L. K. Tyler (Eds.), *Spoken Word Recognition:* A Bradford Book. The MIT Press.

Krashen, S. (1985). *The Input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. London: Longman.

Lass, R. (1984). *Phonology: An introduction to basic concepts.* Cambridge: CUP.

Long, M. (1981). Input, interaction, and second language acquisition. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences.* 379, 259-278.

Pimsleur, P.C. Hanckok, C. and Furey, P .(1977). Speech rate and listening comprehension in M.K. Burt, H.C. Dulay, and M. Finocchiaro (eds). Viewpoints on English as a second language . New York: Regents.

Roach, P. (1991). *English phonetics and phonology.* UK: CUP.

Rost, M. (2002). *Teaching and researching listeni*ng*: Applied linguistics in action.* London: Longman.

Segalowitz, N. & Segalowitz, S. (1993). Skilled performance, practice, and the differentiation of speed-up from automatization effects: Evidence from second language word recognition. *Applied Psycholinguistics.* 14(3),369-385.

Stanley, John A. (1978). Teaching listening comprehension: An interview report on a project to use uncontrolled language data as a source material for training foreign students in listening comprehension. *TESOL Quarterly.* 12 (3)*,* 285-295.

Stitch, T. (1971). Learning by listening in relation to aptitude, reading, and rate-controlled speech: additional studies. *Human Resources Research Organisation.* Technical Report. No. 71-5.

Vandergrift, L. (2004). Listening to learn or learning to listen? *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*(1),24,3-26.

Zhao, Y. (1997). The Effects of Listeners' Control of Speech Rate on Second Language Comprehension. *Applied Linguistics,* 18(1), 49-68.

Title

The Impact of ESP In-service Teacher Training Programs on Iranian ESP Teachers' Beliefs, Classroom Practices and Students' Achievements

Authors

Peyman Rajabi (Ph.D. candidate)
Islamic Azad University, Science & Research Branch, Tehran, Iran

Gholam Reza Kiany (Ph.D.)
Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran, Iran

Parviz Maftoon (Ph.D.)
Islamic Azad University, Science & Research Branch, Tehran, Iran

Bio data

Peyman Rajabi is a Ph.D. student of TEFL at Islamic Azad University of Tehran, Science and Research Branch. His fields of interest include ESP, curriculum planning, second language research, and ELT teacher development programs.

Dr. Gholam Reza Kiany is an associate professor of TEFL at Tarbiat Modaress University, Tehran. He has been teaching M.A. and Ph.D. courses at different Iranian Universities for the past twenty five years. He has published a number of textbooks and articles in language learning. His fields of interest include language testing and assessment, ESP, second language learning, and educating teachers.

Dr. Parviz Maftoon is an associate professor at Islamic Azad University of Tehran, Science and Research Branch. He has been teaching M.A. and Ph.D. courses at different Iranian Universities for the past thirty years. He has published a number of articles and textbooks in TEFL. His fields of interest include SLA, curriculum development, second language writing, teacher training, and ESP.

Abstract

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) coined the term "practitioner" for ESP teachers since, they claimed, many pivotal roles such as course designers, materials developers, researchers, evaluators, and classroom teachers should be taken on by an ESP instructor. That is why teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) requires a special approach to the training of

the teachers who are supposed to teach English through content. The present study aimed at investigating the underlying effects of an ESP in-service teacher training program on the beliefs and instructional practices of Iranian ESP teachers as well as students' achievements. A population of 423 Iranian ESP teachers responded to a survey questionnaire on teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. This was followed by selecting 120 teachers and assigning them into two experimental and two control groups. The experimental groups participated in a 10 week ESP in-service teacher training program. The outcomes of Chi-square, Mann-Whitney U, and Wilcoxon Signed Rank tests clearly revealed the influential and constructive role of the training program on the beliefs and classroom practices of ESP teachers. The study also found significant difference between the achievements of students who enjoyed trained ESP instructors in comparison to those who received untrained ESP instructors.

Keywords: ESP, Teachers' beliefs, ESP teacher training program, Classroom practice

Introduction

Undoubtedly, the recent developments in nations' political, cultural, social, athletic, business, touristic, and economic ties as well as the recent increase in ESP conference presentations, professional and academic gatherings, invited lectures, and on-line workshops will lead us to conclude that ESP has gained a significant place not only among academic circles but it has gained the shape of a new industry in the 21st century. However, ESP has developed at different speeds in different countries due to the different needs and specifications that arise in each language-learning setting. Thus, it may not be considered a monolithic universal phenomenon (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Teaching English for Specific Purposes (TESP) has been considered a separate undertaking from English language teaching. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) coined the term "practitioner" for ESP teachers since, they believe, many pivotal roles such as course designers, materials developers, researchers, evaluators, and classroom teachers should be taken on by an ESP instructor. Bell (1981) also believes that every language teaching program comprises three stages of input, process, and output; therefore, it is essential for an ESP teacher to have several roles which require both content and formal schema knowledge in a particular field of science.

Since its infancy, many controversial issues have been raised to maintain whether the EFL teacher or the subject-matter in the field has the right to teach an ESP course. Some argue that ESP teachers are expected to have sufficient knowledge in content areas as well and be able to elicit knowledge from students. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) consider ESP not as any particular

language product but as an approach to language teaching which aims to meet the needs of particular learners. This means, in practice, that much of the work done by ESP teachers is concerned with designing appropriate courses for various groups of learners. They further believe that whereas course design plays a relatively minor part in the life of the General English (GE) teacher, for the ESP teacher, course design is often a substantial and important part of the workload. From this brief explanation on ESP, one may learn that the ESP teacher should have the same capabilities required by General English (GE) teachers as well as a good familiarity with the design of the course. Moreover, there are other scholars who claim that ESP teaching is part and parcel of an English language teacher's career and that it is therefore their responsibility to design or teach such courses. However, we cannot neglect the fact that ESP teaching should focus on procedures appropriate for learners whose main goal is learning English for a purpose other than just learning the language system itself. Therefore, it is believed that for some basic aspects of its teaching, ESP has developed its own specific methodology and its research draws on research from various disciplines in addition to applied linguistics-- this may be the key feature which clearly characterizes ESP.

Therefore, ESP teaching requires a special approach to the training of the teachers who are supposed to teach English through content. First of all, EFL teachers should be provided with the necessary knowledge and tools to deal with students' special field of study, because they are not specialists in the field, but in teaching English, their subject is English for the profession but not the profession in English. They are expected to help students, who know their subject better than them, develop the essential skills in understanding, using, and/or presenting authentic information in their profession (Bojovic`, 2006). This is a quite challenging task to perform with any knowledge of content through which they will teach English as it facilitates learners' acquisition of formal schema of academic texts.

In the Iranian higher education system, students majoring in the different fields offered in universities throughout the country have to pass a two-credit Basic English course followed by a three-credit General English course. They are then required to pass a two or three-credit ESP course, depending on their majors. Most of the students in ESP classes feel the necessity mainly to pass the final exams in the second language. Such students claim that they cannot gain mastery over the English language within a limited course of study. But the procedures followed in ESP classes do not fulfill these students' needs. That is to say, the classes are predominantly teacher-centered, with the exception of students being required to read a few lines from the booklet, one by one, offering the meaning of the words if they are asked. Much of the language produced in Iranian ESP classrooms is language for display. Teachers offer students a model of the language forms along

with technical terms and register which provide the focus of a particular lesson. They produce model sentences and ask learners to translate. They ask questions designed to elicit specific responses which practice the target form for a particular lesson, and finally they translate the selected text. However, there is dissatisfaction with the dominant paradigm and it is challenged by new values which emphasize the centrality of the learner, the social nature of language, and its availability for spontaneous, original personal use. In other words, on the one hand ESP is informed by established practice and on the other hand that practice is challenged by theory and also by the experience of many practitioners. Thus the challenge is to propose a methodological framework which is able to integrate theory into practice, formal and communicative activities, but there is no clear consensus among Iranian ESP instructors in terms of applying a rather thorough and uniform model of presenting ESP materials. However, a change in the existing paradigm strongly depends on a remarkable change in a number of factors including ESP teachers' beliefs, curriculum, educational policies, syllabi and textbooks.

Farhady (2005) in an attempt to clarify factors influencing ESP instruction in Iranian academic settings refers to the important role of teacher variable. He believes that teachers should be equipped with the trends and developments of ESP. In other words, there should be a sense of uniformity among the ESP teachers' attitudes, beliefs, methods, techniques, and classroom activities. Scott (2001) argues that while TESOL, TEFL, etc. courses for teachers provide a good foundation for the teaching of general language, theyare insufficient for the teaching of EAP. She believes that EAP's ''distinctiveness derives from its aim, which is the promotion of student learning on courses within higher education institutions''. Errey (2001) agrees that specialized teacher training is needed, involving principles and approaches appropriate for EAP and ESP. This is, in fact, now beginning to happen with an MA ESP developed by Candlin and Bhatia at City University in Hong Kong and Oxford Brookes University offering an MA in Teaching EAP/ESP in 2000.

Lack of having uniformity in terms of teaching ESP materials, no ESP teacher training program, and misconceptions about ESP courses are instances of Iranian ESP teachers' failure in successful implementation of ESP courses. Since the focal point of the present study is on the 'teacher' variable, other factors such as ESP learners, materials, ESP curriculum, cultural and social issues in Iranian academic settings are not going to be taken into account or discussed. Therefore, the present study has merely concentrated on conducting an ESP in-service teacher training program to investigate whether such a program has any impact on the beliefs and classroom practices of Iranian ESP instructors. Moreover, the present study attempts to come up with reasonable answers to the following questions:

1. Is there any significant difference between the pedagogical beliefs of Iranian ELT and subject-matter ESP instructors about ESP?

2. Is there any significant difference between the instructional practices of Iranian ELT and subject-matter ESP teachers in ESP classes?

3. Is there any significant difference between the pedagogical beliefs of Iranian ELT and subject-matter ESP instructors after the ESP in-service teacher training program?

4. Is there any significant difference between the instructional practices of Iranian ELT and subject-matter ESP instructors after the ESP in-service teacher training program?

5. What impact(s) does the ESP in-service teacher training program have on students' achievements?

Subjects

A population of 423 Iranian male and female university teachers who still teach ESP courses at Sate and Azad Universities of Hamedan, Markazi, Kurdistan, Kermanshah, Guilan, Lorestan, Mazandaran, and Isfahan Provinces participated in this study. These ESP teachers are either TEFL or non-TEFL (subject-matter) majors with university degrees of MA/Ms or Ph.D. This sample was intended to complete a survey questionnaire about ESP teachers' beliefs and instructional practices. The main subjects of the present study were selected from among the respondents to the questionnaire in the first group and included 120 TEFL and non-TEFL major ESP teachers. The rationale for selecting such population also included some criteria such as ESP teachers' age, ESP background, ESP teaching experiences, motivation and degree of interest to ESP, and evaluation sheet filled by previous ESP students. Then the subjects were divided into two experimental and two control groups each of which included 30 teachers.

In addition to the ESP teacher participants, 142 university sophomores who took ESP as a compulsory course participated in this study. The sample included students from the discipline of Humanities (Business Administration). This sample has been selected from among a total of 242 students by administering a language proficiency test.

Instrumentation

The instruments selected as measures in this study comprise of 1) a Survey Questionnaire developed by the investigators, 2) The sample version of PET (2009), and 3) a Cambridge University Business English test package. The questionnaire used for this study targets close-ended sections that require

teachers to respond to statements on a five point Likert scale. Firstly, it attempted to identify the beliefs ESP teachers have regarding ESP and its role in language learning and teaching in Iranian academic settings. Secondly, the questionnaire aimed to obtain information about teachers' reported classroom practices regarding the teaching of ESP courses.

In order to select the secondary group of subjects (students) in terms of language proficiency qualifications, the investigators had to administer a standard language proficiency test (PET) to a total of 242 Business Administration students.

Both experimental and control group students in the present study were intended to take a final exam ESP test. So, we needed to develop an ESP test consisting of four modules: listening, reading, writing, and speaking. The listening and reading modules for Business Administration students consisted of three sections which expected the students to respond to multiple-choice, gap-filling, True or false, matching and form filling questions. Writing module consisted of two sections. In the first section, the students are expected to write a memo about 20–30 words. This is actually a piece of communication with a college within a company. For the second part, the students have to write a piece of business correspondence of between 40 and 50 words. So, they need to read a letter and respond to it.

For speaking module, the students were invited to talk about two distinct topics, one about their field of study and the other about an unfamiliar topic.

Design

The present study combines qualitative and quantitative methods of research. It fits partly into the descriptive paradigm as it aims to observe and describe systematically, factually and accurately, the qualities of a pre-conceived phenomenon (i.e. teachers' beliefs and instructional practices) in a so called naturally occurring context (i.e. ESP classes) through a questionnaire based survey. The study is also partly quasi-experimental. Brown (1988) characterizes a quasi-experimental design as one that involves the administration of a pre-test, treatment and post-test on naturally occurring groups. In this respect, the teacher training program that is going to be carried out in this study can be regarded as the treatment and exploration of ESP teachers' beliefs as well as their instructional practices before and after the treatment along with students' performances on ESP tests can be regarded as the pre and post-tests. Therefore, a pretest/posttest design will form the framework of the present study.

Procedure

A questionnaire-based survey is used to easily obtain information from a large number of participants (423) in order to understand the beliefs of ESP teachers in the context of study.

The next step would be carrying out an in-service ESP teacher training program which lasted for a period of 10 weeks. The focus of the program was mainly on making the teachers familiar with *theoretical approaches* and *methods of ESP instruction* in a learner-centered context, *practical aspects of ESP instruction* based on current models, *methods of assessing the students' needs*, and making the ESP instructors familiar with *methods of evaluating* the students in ESP classes.

To do this, from the first sample population (423) we needed two groups of participants, one experimental and the other the control group. The experimental group included 60 ELT and non-ELT instructors. Then they were divided into two groups of 30 in which exclusively ELT or subject-matter ESP instructors were placed. The same procedure was applied to the control group participants. The underlying principle of ESP teachers' training program originated from the present literature and predominantly a large-scale ESP needs analysis project carried out by Farhady (2007). This project, which was financially sponsored by SAMT (an Iranian acronym equivalent to the Center for Studying and Compiling University Books in Humanities), was mainly based on four parameters including needs specification, purpose specification, content specification, and skills and techniques specification. Therefore, the foundation of the course was established based on the results of SAMT project. The focus of the program was mainly on making the teachers familiar with theoretical approaches and methods of ESP instruction in a learner-centered context, practical aspects of ESP instruction based on current models, and methods of assessing the students' needs.

The final step comprises two parts. The first part includes conducting a survey study among the ESP teachers who received the training program to see whether the ESP teacher training program was efficient enough to bring about any changes in their beliefs and conceptualizations about ESP courses and method(s) of instruction or not. This was carried out through re-administering the first questionnaire. The second part consists of administering an ESP achievement test to the second group of the subjects of the present study (students) in order to see whether their teachers' in-service training course had any impact on their performances or not. The first experimental group of students benefitted from a trained ELT instructor while a trained subject matter instructor undertook the teaching ESP materials to the second experimental group students. The students in control groups received the instructors which did not participated in the ESP teacher training program but had previously responded to the questionnaire. Meanwhile, the Business Administration Department had recommended its ESP teachers to teach the same textbook to the students since a uniform and

similar final exam was supposed to be administered simultaneously for all students. Therefore, both trained and untrained ESP instructors reached a consensus on teaching the course book named Business Vocabulary in Use by Mascull (2002).

Results

The first part of the questionnaire dealt with investigating the frequency of classroom activities carried out in Iranian ESP classes. Therefore, based on the outcomes of Farhady's (2007) ESP needs analysis project, 16 highlighted classroom activities were chosen and given to a total of 423 Iranian ESP teachers. A 5-point-scale ranging from frequently to never was used to determine the frequency of these classroom activities in the ESP classes. The following table reveals the descriptive as well as inferential statistics for implementing instructional activities by Iranian ELT and subject-matter ESP teachers.

Table 1: Iranian English Major vs Subject-Matter ESP Teachers' Classroom Activities

Classroom Activity	Field	Frequency					Chi-Square Test Results
		never	seldom	sometimes	often	always	
1.Explaining technical words in Persian	ELT	0	1	9	93	54	**.000**
	S.M	1	1	3	68	193	
2. Explaining grammar	ELT	49	101	7	0	0	**.314**
	S.M	69	187	10	0	0	
3. Translating ESP texts into Persian	ELT	0	0	1	23	133	**.680**
	S.M	0	0	2	27	234	
4. Doing reading comprehension exercises	ELT	0	2	20	102	33	**.133**
	S.M	3	1	29	207	26	
5. Asking and answering questions in English	ELT	50	89	7	9	2	**.000**
	S.M	217	46	3	0	0	
6. Classroom presentations in English	ELT	132	21	4	0	0	**.065**
	S.M	209	57	0	0	0	

7. Note-taking from classroom lectures	ELT	108	49	10	0	0	**.113**
	S.M	196	67	3	0	0	
8. Writing classroom reports in English	ELT	127	29	1	0	0	**.125**
	S.M	195	68	3	0	0	
9. Providing chances for students' classroom discussions in English	ELT	38	86	32	1	0	**.000**
	S.M	171	92	3	0	0	
10. Listening to audio files	ELT	41	53	40	23	0	**.000**
	S.M	177	84	5	0	0	
11. Developing study skills activities	ELT	7	44	83	20	3	**.000**
	S.M	102	72	92	0	0	
12. Summarizing textbooks or pamphlets in English	ELT	102	51	4	0	0	**.381**
	S.M	181	82	3	0	0	
13. Answering essay type quizzes in English	ELT	30	40	51	36	0	**.000**
	S.M	74	178	13	1	0	
14. Writing letters or articles in English	ELT	120	22	15	0	0	**.090**
	S.M	217	36	13	0	0	
15. Watching films or other video files	ELT	52	71	26	8	0	**.000**
	S.M	161	100	5	0	0	
16. Conducting collaborative and cooperative activities in the classroom	ELT	43	90	18	4	2	.062
	S.M	64	197	5	0	0	

As the results in Table 1 show, majority of the instructors in both groups "seldom" or "never" explained grammar to the ESP students. This approximately approves the fact that grammar is overlooked in most ESP classes. The results of Chi-square indicate a value of (0.31) which is higher than the alpha value of (0.05). So, it can be concluded that there is not any significant difference between the two groups in terms of teaching grammar to ESP students. This is a misconception about the role of grammar in ESP teaching. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) believe that while

much of the skills-oriented work in ESP does not concentrate on grammar in itself, it is incorrect to consider grammar outside the realm of ESP.

The third activity, translating the ESP texts into Persian, favored the common consensus of both groups. Among ESP instructors, (84.7%) of the English majors as well as (87.6%) of the subject-matter teachers "frequently" translate the ESP texts into Persian. The Chi-square test outputs reveal no differences between the two groups. This is certainly in line with one of the themes extracted from our ESP classroom observations carried out at the initial stages of the present study. The implementation of translation by instructors as the easiest way of conducting ESP classes as well as the removal of students' psychological barriers in such circumstances probably caused a strong tendency among ESP teachers to predominantly focus on translation.

As Table 1 show, English major instructors as well as their non-ELT counterparts predominantly "often" do reading comprehension exercises. It seems the rationale for emergence of ESP in Iran is to teach students "reading skills" to enable them to use English to study their subject areas. This can be easily seen from the organization and compilation of a number of ESP sources, i.e. SAMT textbooks, Payame Noor Publications, etc. So, reading comprehension has favored considerable superiority among language skills in Iranian ESP classes. The value of (0.133) testifies the fact that there is no significant difference between ELT and non-ELT instructors in doing reading comprehension activities.

Classroom activity 6 deals with ESP students' classroom presentations in English. As it is shown in Table 1, the majority of English and non-English ESP instructors clearly stated that they "never" ask their students to perform such a task in their classes. The inferential statistics approves the fact that there is no significant difference between these two groups of teachers in implementing such activity in ESP classrooms. The poor general language proficiency of Iranian ESP students is the big hurdle in implementing such a task in ESP classes. However, we cannot ignore the reluctance of ESP instructors towards classroom presentations in English.

The teachers were asked to determine the frequency of students' note taking from ESP classroom lectures, classroom activity 7. Note-taking is the straightforward writing down of whatever is said or written on a board (Jordan, 1997). It seems that since few or no lecture may be presented in Iranian ESP classrooms, students are not accustomed to such activity. Another reasonable interpretation is due to the fact that students may be inexperienced in listening to spoken English with its idiomatic expressions. However, insufficient linguistic competence of the subject matter instructor as well as the insufficient subject specific knowledge by ELT instructors might be other influential reasons for ignoring such an activity in Iranian ESP classes. The evidential facts are clearly reported in Table 1.

Writing classroom reports in English comprised the eighth activity. The results of descriptive statistics in Table 1 show that (80.9%) of the ELT instructors as well as (74.4%) of their non-ELT counterparts "never" ask their students to write classroom reports in English whereas only (0.6%) of the English majors and (1.1%) of the subject matters ESP teachers believe that they "sometimes" ask their students to write classroom reports in English. The Chi-square results reveal that there is not any significant difference between both groups.

The ESP instructors' responses to classroom activity 12 or summarizing texts or articles in English are shown in Table 1. Summary writing, as stated by Jordan (1997), is an important aspect of academic writing, and is linked to academic reading by means of note-taking. It causes the learners to integrate the information from previous researchers in their fields of study in an accurate style. In the present study both groups claimed that they predominantly "never" use such an activity in their ESP classrooms. That is why writing is the most neglected skill among language skills in Iranian academic settings. The value of (0.381) strongly approves the fact that there is not any significant difference between ELT and non-ELT instructors in implementing classroom activity 12.

The ESP instructors were supposed to determine the frequency of classroom activity 14 which dealt with students' article or letter writing in their specific fields. Over (76%) of the ELT teachers as well as (81%) of the subject matter ESP instructors "never" utilized such an activity in their classrooms. This is mainly due to the fact that the whole objectives of ESP programs have not been clearly specified for our teachers. The value of (.09) evidentially approves that there is not any significant difference between the two groups in terms of implementing this classroom activity.

Richards and Rodgers (2001) proposed that cooperative learning activities are used in teaching content classes, ESP, the four skills, grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. The assumption is that students' communicative competence will be developed through socially interaction activities. So, through activities such as team practice, jigsaw, cooperative projects we can maximize students' interaction and facilitate students' contributions to each other's learning. However, students' different proficiency levels might hinder success in implementing such activity in ESP classes since some learners may obtain more benefits from it than others. The majority of the instructors in both groups reported that they "seldom" make use of students' cooperative activities in conducting their ESP classes, activity 16. This might be due to lack of sufficient time or insufficiencies in establishing student-centered atmosphere in ESP classes. The inferential statistics show that there is no significant difference between ELT and non-ELT instructors in implementing such an activity in ESP environments. Now, let us focus on classroom activities which indicated a long gap between English major and non-English major ESP instructors regarding the frequency of classroom implementation.

The teachers were asked to determine the frequency of the first classroom activity, explaining technical words in Persian. The results indicated that (51%) of the ELT instructors and (72.6%) of the non-ELT teachers "frequently" explain technical words in Persian. The Chi-square results indicate the Sig. value of (.000) which is smaller than (.05), we can conclude that the proportion of English major ESP teachers who explain technical words in Persian is significantly different from those non-English majors. Swale (1985) proposes that the importance of teaching vocabulary in ESP is now widely accepted. However, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) believed that the teaching of technical vocabulary is not the responsibility of the ESP teacher. With regard to dealing with unfamiliar technical vocabulary in ESP classes Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) believe that in many cases there is a one-to-one relationship between the terms in English and the learners' first language, and so it will be enough to translate the term into the learners' native language after a brief explanation. Although there is a gap between both traditions, the frequencies show that there is a general tendency among Iranian ESP instructors to provide the learners with explanation of technical words in Persian.

Questioning is a powerful means of controlling communication. It is, in fact, a good tool for the teacher to provide the learners with opportunities to think better and develop classroom interactions efficiently. The instructors were asked to determine the frequency of ESP students' responses to their teachers' question(s) in English, the class activity 5. Among non-English ESP teachers, (81.6%) claimed that they "never" practice such an activity in their classes while only (31.8%) of the ELT instructors overlooked the application of class activity 5. The Chi-square results also indicate a significant difference between the two groups in implementing classroom activity five. Providing opportunities for students to hold classroom discussions in English comprise classroom activity 9. More than (64%) of the non-English major ESP instructors "never" favored the application of such task while the same frequency was reported by only (24%) of the ELT instructors. This gap may extensively be due to instructors' fields of study and interests. The Chi-square results reveal that there is a significant difference between these two groups in terms of doing classroom activity 9. It goes without saying that the ignorance of such activities (5 & 9) by the majority of non-ELT instructors is due to a couple of reasons. First and for most, we do not have a thorough visualization of the objectives of ESP programs in our academic settings. Teachers may claim that these activities are exclusive to general English classes not to ESP courses. The second major reason lies on poor language proficiency of Iranian ESP students; however, no one is completely sure whether the non-ELT instructors have a good command of linguistic competence or not. The third reason might focus on the time budgeting of ESP classes in Iran. During a limited span of 90 minutes per week there may be no point in dealing with oral practice activities by ESP

instructors. However, the tendency of applying oral activities by English major instructors is highly felt which is mainly due their linguistic background and prior ELT experience.

The ESP teachers were asked to determine the frequency of activity 10 which dealt with listening activities of the students in ESP classrooms. The story of activity 9 is repeated here. Only (26%) of the ELT teachers claimed that they "never" do listening comprehension tasks in their ESP classes while this was strictly true for (66.5%) of the subject matter teachers. As Robinson (1991) has proposed, listening in ESP classes involves listening to lectures as well as classroom seminars. Therefore, ESP students do need exposure to short and lengthy examples of listening in preparation for the normal lectures of the real life. However, such exposure is perhaps best obtained live. It seems all language skills except reading comprehension are predominantly overlooked by the majority of ESP instructors. However, we do not mean the whole language skills should be similarly emphasized in ESP classes as far as the specificity of the purposes is concerned. Table 1 shows the significant difference between ELT and non-ELT instructors in terms of applying listening comprehension activities.

Table 1 also represents how ESP instructors determined the frequency of study skills activities in their classes. In addition to language skills, this item deals with understanding of tables, graphs, charts, special dictionaries, web-related skills, and catalogs. The majority of non-ELT teachers (38.3%) "never" assigned study skills activities while approximately (53%) of the English majors claimed that they "sometimes" utilize them in their classes. The Chi-square test results show the significant difference between the two groups as well. The main reason rests on the present ESP textbooks which scarcely have provided their audience with fruitful sources of information. In other words, ESP experts, who have a key role in syllabus design and materials development, should employ this crucial aspect of learning in ESP textbooks as well. Farhady's (2007) ESP needs analysis project clearly analyzed the available ESP textbooks in terms of study skills activities. Unluckily, almost all of them could not provide the ESP students with study skills activities.

The frequencies of classroom activity 13, answering essay type classroom quizzes, are shown in Table 1. The rationale for including such item was to see whether the writing skill of the students is being frequently judged by their ESP instructors or not. However, one may claim that there are other alternative ways to assess and evaluate the writing skill of students in ESP classes. Since it can be an example of a diagnostic test, it provides fruitful information for the teachers to see whether there is area of difficulty in students' writing or not. This type of test acts as a spur or motivation for students by setting short-term goals. Subject matter ESP teachers maintained that they "seldom" have their students answer essay type classroom quizzes while the majority of ELT

instructors "sometimes" made use of such activity in their classes. Table 1 testifies that there is a significant difference between the English major and non-English major ESP teachers.

The responses of the ESP teachers in terms of specifying the frequency of activity 15, watching films or video programs in specific fields, are presented in Table 1. The outcomes reveal that more than 60% of the subject matter instructors "never" made use of technological aids in their ESP classrooms while only 33% of the ELT teachers did the same. The Chi-square test results show that there is a significant difference between the two groups regarding the manipulation of video aids.

The second part of the questionnaire dealt with identifying Iranian teachers' beliefs about ESP and methods of instruction. It is made up of 21 statements and requires the respondents to rate each statement on a five point scale, ranging from Strongly Agree (SA) to Strongly Disagree (SD). Since it was too much difficult to include a large number of widespread beliefs in a very limited pool, the researcher decided to merely focus on some common and highlighted beliefs. Therefore, based on the present literature (Basturkmen, 2006; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Hutchison & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Robinson, 1991; Strevens, 1988) and the outcomes of the EAP needs analysis project carried out by Farhady (2007), we specified 21 types of pedagogical beliefs on ESP domain. Three underlying constructs namely teaching ESP, students' needs, and beliefs about students' practice were explored for the aforementioned beliefs.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for ESP Teachers' Beliefs about Teaching ESP

Item	Field	Frequency					Chi-Square Test Results
		S A	A	N	D	S D	
1. content teaching	ELT	83	60	10	3	1	.000
	S.M	204	41	16	4	1	
2.content familiar	ELT	9	62	71	8	7	.000
	S.M	2	3	201	38	22	
3.sufficient English for others	ELT	120	32	5	0	0	.000
	S.M	157	83	34	1	1	
4. content problems	ELT	1	3	10	51	92	.000

	S.M	177	67	17	4	1	
5.technical word matching	ELT	85	54	12	5	1	.143
	S.M	160	80	24	1	1	
6.non-English teacher better	ELT	0	0	0	0	157	.000
	S.M	188	60	13	4	1	
7.multidiscipline	ELT	0	47	82	15	13	.000
	S.M	0	7	189	35	35	
8.Persian language	ELT	97	55	4	1	0	.333
	S.M	166	74	24	1	1	
9.language application	ELT	0	71	27	58	1	.000
	S.M	2	26	69	167	2	
10.conducting needs analysis	ELT	89	55	11	2	0	.000
	S.M	6	52	203	5	0	

As Table 2 shows, the difference between English major and subject matter ESP teachers is not statistically significant in terms of the items 5 and 8. In other words, the application of students' mother tongue in ESP classes for better conveying the meaning of technical words and comprehending the texts is highly prioritized among both groups. The rest of the items demonstrate the significant difference between two traditions. Since the first factor covers the items which correspond to ESP teachers' beliefs about teaching ESP, the gap between English and non-English major instructors is really remarkable. ELT teachers seemed to better digest both the mechanics and objectives of teaching while their non-English major counterparts focused on the superficial aspects of teaching ESP. One of the underlying reasons lies on the fact that the nature of ELT is strongly tied to the theories of language learning and teaching. Therefore, it is quite natural to see that the non-English majors who received no specific training in terms of teaching English as a foreign language showed quite different ideas regarding the nature of teaching ESP courses. The following table represents the items which corresponded to the second factor, teachers' beliefs about students' practices in ESP classes.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics for ESP Teachers' Beliefs about Students' Needs

Item	Field	Frequency					Chi-Square Test Results
		S A	A	N	D	S D	
1.understanding without translation	ELT	6	39	25	68	19	**.000**
	S.M	0	3	16	201	46	
2. future needs	ELT	23	58	74	2	0	**.000**
	S.M	12	45	204	5	0	
3. lg evaluation	ELT	40	49	66	2	0	**.000**
	S.M	6	45	210	5	0	
4. developing lg activities	ELT	3	22	90	42	0	**.001**
	S.M	6	45	191	2 4	0	
5. study skills	ELT	2	43	96	16	0	**.476**
	S.M	6	52	185	23	0	

The results of Table 3 clearly show the significant differences between the beliefs of English major and non-English major ESP teachers in terms of the first four items. As it can be seen from the table, except one item, the respondents predominantly had "neutral" beliefs about the proposed ideas. This may be a reflection of conservatism among ESP teachers who did not state their clear ideas. This conservatism seems to be derived from the fact that the objectives of implementing ESP courses have not been clearly specified in our academic circles yet. Lack of teachers' awareness about the role of ESP learners, their needs, and presenting language learning activities in ESP classes has caused non-English major instructors to be on the safe side of responding to these items. However, this reluctancy is felt among English major instructors as well. For further evidence, we can refer to the ESP syllabi introduced by Iranian Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology (The Supreme Council of Curriculum Planning) for different disciplines. These syllabi, which were mostly created in stereotype form, do not obviously specify the real goals of ESP programs as well as the role of the teachers, the learners, and materials in ESP classes. With regard to the last item which focused on "the necessity of developing study skills activities among students in ESP classes", the Chi-square test did not show any statistically significant difference between English major and non-English major instructors. Both groups reported "neutral" belief about

this item which signifies to the fact that there is no clear specification of objectives in ESP programs. Now, let us deal with the items corresponded to the third factor.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics for ESP Teachers' Beliefs about Students' Practices

Item	Field	Frequency					Chi-Square Test Results
		S A	A	N	D	S D	
1. translation	ELT	85	61	4	3	4	**.052**
	S.M	169	80	12	4	1	
2.independent speaking	ELT	1	1	37	49	69	**.001**
	S.M	2	0	59	17	188	
3. no listening-speaking	ELT	0	59	38	54	6	**.000**
	S.M	1	172	92	1	0	
4. grammar	ELT	10	20	89	38	0	**.000**
	S.M	14	53	194	5	0	
5.language skills	ELT	3	55	91	8	0	**.000**
	S.M	6	45	192	23	0	
6. memorizing words	ELT	86	60	8	2	1	**.077**
	S.M	181	64	16	4	1	

Table 4 represents the ESP teachers' beliefs about the third factor, students' language needs in ESP classes. There was not any statistically significant difference between ELT and non-ELT instructors in terms of the first and the last items (the Sig. values are 0.52 & 0.77 respectively). The first item emphasizes the utilization of "translation" as the foundation of ESP classroom activities. This is mainly seen through the frequency of considerable positive attitudes of both groups. It is actually in line with our initial observation results which showed that "translation" has occupied most of the Iranian ESP classes. Moreover, majority of both groups strongly agreed on the memorization of technical words as a necessary practice in ESP classes. It seems that the objectives of ESP instruction in our academic settings, learners' insufficient linguistic proficiency, and ease of instruction, socio-cultural factors, target language use domains, and political issues have caused ESP instructors to predominantly emphasize on "translation" as the cornerstone of ESP classroom activities. However, no congruence was seen between English major and non-English major ESP instructors in terms

of language skills such as listening- speaking activities and grammar teaching. This is mainly due to the fact that English major instructors have sufficient pedagogical competence in terms of conducting language learning courses. Schleppegrell and Bowman (1986) emphasize that communication skills establish the ESP classroom atmosphere. So, language is acquired by students when they have opportunities to use the language in interaction with each other. However, they further add that an ESP program, for example, might stress the development of reading skill in students who are preparing for graduate work in engineering; or it might stress the development of conversational skills in students who are studying English in order to become tour guides. But this case was mainly ignored by non-English ESP instructors who reported "neutral" or "opposite" views regarding the necessity of applying language skills in ESP classes. This results from lack of awareness about the appropriate utilization of language skills by non-English major instructors in ESP classes.

Before conducting the ESP in-service teacher training course, four groups of ESP teachers who previously responded to the questionnaire were selected and assigned into control and experimental groups.

The Chi-square results clearly signified that there is no significant difference between the beliefs of ELT teachers in control and experimental groups before the training program (p = .819). Similarly, the p value of (.701) which is larger than the value of .05 shows the fact that there is no significant difference between the beliefs of non-ELT instructors in both experimental and control groups.

With regard to ELT instructors' classroom practices, the Chi-square results also indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between the ELT instructors in experimental and control groups (p =.384). The Chi-square results approve the fact that there is no statistically significant difference between classroom practices of non-English major ESP instructors in control and experimental group before the ESP in-service teacher training program.

Based on the outcomes achieved from ELT and non-ELT instructors, two experimental and two control groups were selected for the second part of the present study.
The following tables statistically represent the impacts of the training programs on the beliefs and classroom practices of the ESP teachers in experimental groups. The present study also reveals any probable impact(s) of the training program on the classroom achievements of the ESP students.

Table 5: Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for the Differences between the Beliefs and classroom practices of ELT Instructors in Experimental Group before and after Training Program

	Beliefs	Classroom practice
Z	-2.051	-4.790
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.040	.000

The *p* value in Table 5 clearly show that the difference between the beliefs and classroom practices of the English major ESP teachers in experimental group before and after the training program was statistically significant. This factually approves the role of the training program on the beliefs and practices of ELT teachers.

Table 6: Mann-Whitney U Test for ELT Instructors' Beliefs and classroom practices in Control and Experimental Groups after Training Program

	Beliefs	Classroom practice
Mann-Whitney U	220.000	.000
Wilcoxon W	685.000	465.000
Z	-3.414	6.676
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000

The inferential statistics and Mann-Whitney U test results strongly supports the fact that the beliefs and classroom practices of ELT instructors in experimental group were statistically different from those of the control group after the training program. This can undoubtedly signify the impact of the training program on ESP teachers' beliefs as well as their classroom practices.

Table 7: Mann-Whitney U Test for ELT and Non-ELT Instructors' Beliefs and Classroom practices in Experimental Groups after Training Program

	Beliefs	Practices
Mann-Whitney U	232.000	229.500
Wilcoxon W	697.000	694.500
Z	-3.240	-3.284
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001

One of the aims of the present study was to find out whether there is any statistically significant difference between the beliefs and classroom practices of the ELT and subject matter in experimental groups after the training program. In spite of the fact that both groups

received the same training program, there still exists considerable difference between the two groups.

One of the consequences of the ESP in-service teacher training program would definitely be its either direct or indirect impacts on students' achievements in ESP courses. To investigate such impacts, 142 previously homogenized Business Administration students who took their compulsory ESP course were selected for the study. This population was classified into four groups. Two groups favored English and subject matter ESP teachers who had participated in the ESP teachers' training program whereas the rest two just benefited from untrained ELT or non-ELT instructors. The following table clearly reveals the students' achievements in the four groups.

Table 8: Scheffe Test for Sources of Differences   Multiple Comparisons

(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	2.00	7.083*	1.718	.001	2.22	11.95
	3.00	9.817*	1.730	.000	4.92	14.71
	4.00	11.875*	1.730	.000	6.98	16.77
2.00	3.00	2.734	1.730	.478	-2.16	7.63
	4.00	4.791	1.730	.058	-.11	9.69
3.00						
	4.00	2.057	1.742	.707	-2.87	6.99

The results of Scheffe Test, Table 8, clearly show the sources of differences marked by asterisk (*) between four groups of students. Goups 1 and 2 favored trained ELT and non-ELT instructors whereas groups 3 and 4 merely benefited from untrained ELT and on-ELT instructors respectively. The difference between the students' achievements in group 1 and each individual group was statistically significant (*p<.05*) while group 2 students who benefited from a trained non-ELT instructor reported no statistically difference with control group students (groups 3 and 4) in terms of classroom achievement. In spite of the available controversies in ESP field determining whether ELT or non-ELT instructors are best suited for teaching ESP, the results simply indicate that ESP students were taught by trained ELT instructors outperformed other groups. Once more the effectiveness as well as the efficiency of English major teachers in teaching ESP is proved. However, we should not neglect the positive role of the trained non-ELT instructor who was responsible for teaching students in

group 2 in comparison to his untrained counterpart teaching ESP materials to group 4 students.

Discussion

As for the case in Iran, both ELT and subject-matter ESP instructors try to join language and content doing their teaching through direct translation activities and intensive reading. The overriding belief of the 423 teachers who participated in this study was that "translation" is a pivotal component of the language classroom.

The results of the present study strongly highlight considerable difference between the beliefs of ELT instructors and their non-ELT counterparts. The main causes of such a gap lie in the fact that the non-ELT instructors may not be aware of integrating language and content instruction, since there is limited attention to language needs in the preparation of content teachers, and limited attention to either the specific discourse of academic disciplines or to the practical concerns of needs analysis, text adaptation, curriculum development, or collaborative teaching in most language teacher training programs (Crandall, 1998).

Moreover, the study aimed at finding out whether there is any significant difference between classroom practices of ELT and non-ELT instructors. The outcomes extracted from 423 ESP teachers revealed that ELT and content teachers differed greatly in frequency of doing a number of classroom activities. The main reason for such a gap is insufficient knowledge or familiarity of non-ELT instructors with applying and integrating language skills in ESP classes. Language learning and content of subject matter could be brought together because a foreign language is most successfully acquired when learners are engaged in its meaningful and purposeful use. The integration of language and content involves the incorporation of content material into language classes. Content can provide a motivational and cognitive basis for language learning since it is interesting and of some value to the learner (Brewster, 1999).

The focal point of the present study rests on the role of an ESP in-service teacher training course on the beliefs and classroom practices of ESP instructors. After conducting a fourteen week training course, the ESP teachers in experimental groups were given the same questionnaire to see whether there has been any change in their beliefs and attitudes about ESP course and its methods of instruction. The ELT and non-ELT instructors' responses were compared and contrasted with their prior responses as well as the responses of the ESP instructors in control groups. The results showed that the experimental ESP instructors' beliefs significantly differed from their preliminary beliefs after the training course. It is

pleasant to state that dramatic change was observed in the beliefs and classroom practices of non-English major ESP teachers after the training program in comparison to their pre-training program. Moreover, considerable difference was reported in the beliefs of instructors in experimental groups with their control group counterparts. The ESP teachers in experimental groups were independently compared with each other in terms of their post training beliefs as well. The outcomes approved the fact that the significant difference between the beliefs of the ELT and subject-matter teachers still existed. It seems that insufficient knowledge about English language methodology as well as poor competence about ESP instruction, course design, and needs analysis have seriously caused non-ELT instructors to stay far from their ELT counterparts with reference to implementing the objectives of ESP instruction. Since ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and methodology are based on the learner's rationale for learning (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987), the role of the ESP practitioner is essential to the success of ESP programs. As a matter of fact, ESP combines subject matter and English language teaching. Such a combination is highly motivating because students are able to apply what they learn in their English classes to their main field of study, whether it be accounting, business management, economics, computer science or tourism.

Another step taken in the study was to determine the extent to which the ESP in-service teacher training program had indirectly influenced the students' classroom achievements. Congruent with the outcomes of ELT teachers' beliefs after the training program, the group which enjoyed trained ELT instructor outperformed other groups in the achievement test. This evidentially proves the fact that English major ESP instructors can fulfill course goals much better than specialists in the field provided that they possess a certain level of background knowledge in their students' academic subjects of ESP teaching in order to meet this challenge. In other words, ESP teachers are supposed to be knowledgeable in content areas as well and be able to elicit knowledge from students. However, language teachers are trained to teach linguistic knowledge rather than a content subject. Hence, they may be insufficiently grounded to teach subject matters (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Another remarkable point regarding the outcomes of students' achievement test proves the better operation of the group which faced a trained non-ELT instructor versus the one instructed by an untrained non-English major ESP teacher. This can also testify the effectiveness of the ESP teacher training program on the instructional practices of subject-matter teachers. However, it seems difficult to easily fill the existing gap between the ELT and content teachers. Factors such as the potential superiority of ELT teachers over non-ELT instructors in terms of appropriate

linguistic competence, language proficiency, linguistic performance, teaching styles, strategic competence, and language awareness are mostly influential in English majors' success in ESP classes.

Conclusion

The most prevailing myth associated to ESP in Iranian academic settings is that "ESP is merely reading" or "ESP is mono-skill" as any teaching action that is related to its design and implementation is devoted exclusively to one ability. Thus, on one hand, ESP is to be understood as synonymous with reading and, on the other hand, any reading course is to be understood as ESP. Other current myths aligned with ESP reading courses due to the adopted methodology and the specific contents that were developed during the implementation of the ESP courses in the country are: "translation reveals as the fundamental activity in almost all ESP classes "grammar is not taught", and "Persian has to be used in the classroom as the medium". In order to better understand these misconceptions it is necessary to have a glance at the most underlying principle adopted to teach reading . Some of the procedures put into work in the classroom were based on the belief that cognitive and linguistic difficulties should be eased and balanced during the learning process by making up the most of students´ previous knowledge. So, the use of the students' mother tongue and translation will bring psychological, pedagogical, and even economical security for Iranian ESP instructors. This is also a satisfactory condition for ESP students.

There is a vital need to redefine the roles and responsibilities of the ELT and content instructors in the ESP curriculum development of our academic settings. The most optimistic case for the actual presentation of the ESP courses would be the cooperation of ELT and content teachers. The two parties can join in a collaborative task in order to set the goals and plan the needs assessment projects. From cultural and sociological standpoints; however, we wonder whether these two parties can come to a mutual agreement about conducting ESP courses.

And the last word focuses on conducting ESP teacher training programs in which description of competencies and qualifications of a professional ESP instructor is properly established. This can also be a benchmark for accreditation of individuals who would like to start or continue the carrier of teaching ESP courses in our academic settings.

References

Basturkmen, H. (2006). *Ideas and options in English for specific purposes.* London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Bell, T. (1981). *An introduction to applied linguistics: Approaches and methods in Language Teaching.* London: Batsford Academic andEducational Ltd.

Bojovic`, M. (2006). Teaching Foreign Language for Specific Purposes: Teacher development. Application of Teacher Educationin Europe. 31st Annual ATEE Conference, 2006.

Brewster, J. (1999). *Teaching English through content: Supporting good practice in innovation and best practice.* London: Longman.

Brown, J. D. (1988).*Understanding research in second language learning.*Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Crandall, J. (1998). Collaborate and Cooperate: Teacher Education for IntegratingL and Content Instruction. *FORUM.36*(1), 2.

Dudley-Evans, T., & St John, M.J. (1998). *Developments in English for specific purposes: A multi- disciplinary approach.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Errey, L. (2001). EAP Teacher Training: How Specialized Is It? EL Gazette, October.
Farhady, H. (2005). Reflections on and Directions for ESP Materials Development in SAMT. In: Kiany, G. R., Khayyamdar, M. (Eds.), *Proceedings of the first national ESP/EAPconference* (vol. 3) pp. 2-32 . SAMT, Tehran.

Farhady, H. (2007). Needs Analysis Project (unpublished document). SAMT Organization.

Hutchison, T., & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes: A learning-centered approach.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Jordan, R. (1997). *English for academic purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mascull, B. (2002). *Business vocabulary in use.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mitchell, R., & Myles, F. (2004). *Second language learning theories* (2nd ed.). London: Hodder Arnold.

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (2nd ed.). New York: CambridgeUniversity Press.

Robinson, P. C. (1991). *ESP today*: *A Practitioner's guide*. London: Prentice Hall International Ltd.

Schleppegrell, M., & Bowman, B. (1986). *ESP: Teaching English for specific purposes*.

    Washington: Peace Corps.

Scott, M. (2001). Is an ELT Training Good Enough for EAP? EL Gazette, September.
Strevens, P. (1988) ESP after Twenty Years: A Real-appraisal. In M. Tickoo (ed.) *ESP:*

    State of the Art (pp. 1-13). Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.

Swales, J. M. (1985)*. Episodes in ESP: A source and reference book on the development of*

    English for science and technology. New York: Pergamon Press.

Title

Acquisition of English Syllable Structure as a Foreign Language by Iranian Farsi and Arabic Speakers

Authors

Ali Akbar Jabbari (Ph.D.)
Yazd University, Yazd, Iran

Amrollah Fazlinezhad (M.A.)
Yazd University, Yazd, Iran

Bio data

Dr. Ali Akbar Jabbari is associate Professor of Applied Linguistics at Yazd University, Yazd, Iran. He received his Ph.D. degree from Durham University in Britain in 1998 in Second Language Acquisition (SLA). His main research interests concern foreign language learning of syntax and phonology.

Mr. Amrollah Fazlinezhad got his M.A. degree from Yazd University in 2005 in second language acquisition of phonology.

Abstract

This study is an attempt to provide a number of issues related to how Iranian Farsi and Arab speakers acquire the syllable structure of English as a second language, in terms of the interaction of the learners' L1 syllable structure with Broselow's (1995) principles on Sonorant Sequencing which provides a hierarchy on the basis of which the language sounds are ranked or ordered according to their relative degree of sonority and Anderson's (1983)hypothesis which states that forms in the Target Language (TL) that differ from and are more marked than Native Language (NL) forms will be difficult to learn, and that the relative degree of difficulty will correspond to the relative degree of markedness. Moreover, an attempt is made to test Contrastive Analysis (CA) hypothesis in relation to Farsi and Arabic learners' behavior with respect to English consonant clusters. In this regard sixty pre-university native Farsi and Arabic speakers in Mahshahr, Iran were recorded to check the subjects' performances. The results of the study indicated that although some of the errors were due to transfer of their L1 knowledge, in most of the cases, their performances did not correspond to the notion of CA that degree of similarities corresponds to levels of facilitation and degree of difference corresponds to levels of difficulty. The end result of the study is in

conformity with Broselow's Sonorant Sequence and Anderson's Markedness Differential Hypothesis.

Introduction

One area of second language acquisition which researchers have largely overlooked until recently has been the area of phonology. Most recent studies have centered upon the acquisition of morphemes and a few of them on structures. Many papers have been written in the past claiming to predict performance in interlanguage (IL) pronunciation by presenting contrastive analyses of the phonologies of English and various other languages, but of these very few have presented systematically- gathered and analyzed performance data to test these predictions(Akmajian et al. 1995; Flege& Liu, 2001).

Research on the syllable in second language acquisition, starting with Tarone (1972) revealed the acquisition of phonology to be a more dynamic process than was previously thought. Up until the publication of Tarone's findings, research on the L2 acquisition of phonology was primarily concerned with the acquisition of segments. Whereas previous studies of the acquisition of segments tended to view them in isolation, an account of L2 phonology which takes syllables into account regards the realization of a segment as determined by its position within the syllable. The inclusion of a syllable has also served to expand the list of structures subjects to transfer to include canonical syllable structure.

Second language phonologists have attempted to determine to what extent syllable structure is transferred from the learner's first language and to what extent developmental processes and universals are invoked. An important assumption, supported by data on child language acquisition (Ferguson, 1987), is that a syllable composed of a consonant followed by a vowel is the optimal syllable. Tarone (1976, 1980) suggests that L2 learners also exhibit a preference for such CV syllables; this seems to be a preference which operates independently of the canonical syllable structure of their native languages.

When it is said that a learner prefers a certain syllable type, it is meant that the learner attempts to bring syllables in the target language into conformity with either the canonical syllable structure of the L1 or with a universal unmarked CV syllable. The strategies used by second language learners to do so include the deletion of a vowel preceding or following a single consonant cluster, the insertion of a vowel to break up a consonant cluster(epenthesis), or the insertion of a glottal stop in the syllable onset. Because the learner's native language

phonology may also include such rules, evidence of these rules in the learner's interlanguage is not always the result of such strategies per se, but rather may actually be an incidence of transfer.

Tarone's findings illustrated that a closer and more comprehensive examination of the data could reveal a lower rate of transfer than had been previously thought. Her analysis of the data showed that between 10% and 47% of the syllable structure errors committed by Cantonese, Korean and Portuguese learners of English could not be traced to transfer. According to Tarone, these errors were the result of learners' general preference for CV syllables rather than transfer of the learners' often more complex native language syllable structures.

Types of consonant clusters

Segmental phonological studies are not restricted to paradigmatic listing of sounds and their equivalents in the compared languages. A complete account also includes comparison of syntagmatic relations between sounds, i.e. various combinations of sounds called consonantal cluster (Krzeszowski, 1990; MacKay et al. 2001).

English permits up to three consonants word initially such as [strɪt][1] "street", [sprɪŋ] "spring" etc, and four consonants are permitted in the final position like /tɛksts/ "texts". In Farsi and Arabic; however, the restrictions are heavier with respect to the number of consonant clusters. Regarding the initial position Farsi permits no consonant cluster. In this language, consonant clusters occur mostly in final position maximum two consonant clusters, while standard Arabic allows only syllables consisting of CV or CVC except at the beginning or end of an utterance however different dialects have their own rules(Yarmohammadi & Pouretedal, 1996).

L1 knowledge can be a help or a hindrance to the learners of an L2. Where the source language (L1) has features similar to the target language (L2), the prior knowledge can facilitate L2 learning (positive transfer); but where the compared languages differ, L1 knowledge can interfere with that learning (negative transfer. see Hayati, 1998; Mackey, 1973). As Mackey (1973: 199) mentions: "the deeply ingrained patterns of his first language will interfere with those of the language he is learning." However transfer is the main theoretical support for CA, and at the same time, its main source of criticism. In other words, based on Lado (1957) the degree of differences and similarities determines the extent to which language transfer facilitates learning the second language.

---

[1] In this article the symbols indicated in slashes, brackets, or quotations refer to phonemic, phonetic, or spelling form respectively.

Proponents of universality

Karimi (1984) in a study examining the strategy Farsi speakers employ to overcome the difficulty of pronouncing initial consonant clusters in English draws the conclusion that these strategies cannot be traced to their native language and hence cannot be considered as a case of language interference. She does not dispute the fact that CA is able to predict the pronunciation errors they make.

Anderson(1983) presents evidence in support of the following hypotheses:

a.   Transfer does play a role in second language acquisition, at least in the area of phonology.

b.   Syllable structure restrictions are particularly susceptible to transfer.

c. Universal principles of markedness play a role in learners' errors; for example, language learners show a preference for less marked (more 'natural') syllable structures.

Markedness Differential Hypothesis (MDH) and error predictability

Markedness Differential Hypothesis takes into accounts both NL transfer and language universals (Eckman, 1977; Eckman et al., 2003). The hypothesis states that forms in the TL that differ from and are more marked than NL forms will be difficult to learn, and that the relative degree of difficulty will correspond to the relative degree of markedness. The aspects of the target language that are different but unmarked will not be difficult to learn. In this view, a phenomenon A in some language is considered to be more marked than a phenomenon B, "if the presence of A in a language implies the presence of B, but the presence of B does not imply the presence of A" (Eckman, 1977, 320). To illustrate this notion of markedness, Eckman used the example of voiced versus voiceless stops. There are languages, such as Korean, that have only voiceless stops, and there are languages, such as English, that have both voiced and voiceless stops. However, there are no languages that have only voiced stops.

Thus voiced stops always imply the presence of voiceless stops and are thus said to be more marked (or less natural) than voiceless ones. The hypothesis, then, would predict that a voiceless stop would be easier for the L2 learner to acquire than its voiced counterpart, if neither occurred in the NL of the learner.

An aspect of L2 performance that is of special interest in examining these hypotheses is L2 syllabification. Because languages often vary in syllable structure complexity from languages, such as Arabic, which allow only "open" consonant-vowel CV syllables, to languages like English or Russian, which allow complex onsets and codas, it is possible to make predictions

about the relative difficulty of L2 syllables based on contrastive analysis and to compare the performance of language learners from diverse language backgrounds.

It is also possible to make predictions of syllable difficulty based on language universals. Research on the syllable has shown that the most universal syllable type is the open CV syllable and that, in any given language, syllables with consonant clusters always imply the presence of simpler syllable types. Thus the longer the cluster, the more marked it is considered to be. Research has also shown that consonant clusters occur less frequently across languages in syllable final position (Greenberg, 1978). Thus final clusters can be considered more marked (or less universal) than initial clusters, although they are not considered "marked" in the strictest sense of the word.

Nevertheless, the predictions of relative difficulty made by the MDH proved to be more accurate than the contrastive analysis predictions on syllabification (Tarone, 1972). This is because the MDH accepts that native language transfer by itself is insufficient to explain L2 learning difficulty. There are problems inherent in the target language, independent of language transfer, that present difficulties to the ESL learner, and it seems that these difficulties can be understood in light of language universals. Thus the MDH is more tenable than contrastive analysis because it takes into account both of these factors.

Sonority sequencing

We can look to the theory of linguistic universals to provide an account of these errors. Broselow (1995) provides the universal principle of "Sonority Sequencing" (this term is due to Selkirk, 1984) as a means for coping with the error patterns that cannot be motivated by anything specific to the grammar of either the native or the target languages, but instead are consistent with universal markedness constraints.

Sonority sequencing states that segments within a syllable tend to be arranged according to their relative sonority, with the most sonorous element (the vowel) in the middle, and segment arranged in order of decreasing sonority as they approach the margins of the syllable.

(1). The sonority hierarchy

  Stops- affricates-fricatives- nasals- liquids- glides- vowels

  Least sonorous ------------------------> most sonorous

        Broselow (1995)

The principle that segments which are closer to syllable margins will be less sonorous than segments which are closer to the nucleus of a syllable predicts correctly that there will be no

initial clusters in English consisting, for example, of /liquid l/ following by /s/ (a liquid followed by a fricative) or /m/ followed by /p/ (a nasal followed by a stop). The only English clusters which violate this principle are the s-stop clusters, which contain a fricative preceding a stop. Thus, these clusters are exceptional in violating the sonority hierarchy. (Note that clusters of /s/ plus /w/, a glide, or /I/, and a liquid, do not violate the sonority hierarchy.

In addition to being the only two-consonant clusters which may contain an obstruent as their second number, s-stop clusters are exceptional also in being the only initial clusters which may be followed by a third consonant:

(2) a. s- stop consonant   b. Other Cluster

     spr-, spl-, spy-   *blw

     str-*sly

skr-, ski-, sky-, skw-   *psm

Moreover, Karimi (1987) observed that Persian learners place a vowel before any s-consonant clusters such as [estu:dent], but between the consonants in any other cluster type such as [peleI]. That is they do vowel insertion because sonority sequencing is not violated. Also, Broselow and Finer (1991) argue that 'sonority' plays a role in second language acquisition. The present study, however, aims to test markedness differential hypothesis and sonority sequencing in relation to Farsi and Arabic speakers.

Methodology

To study the strategies Farsi and Arabic speakers employ to tackle the problem of pronouncing English consonant clusters, an experiment was conducted, which is discussed in more detail in this section. The research hypotheses which are investigated in this study are as follows:

1. Broselow's Sonorant Sequencingand Anderson's MDH account for learner's acquisition of syllable structure of a second language.

2. Contrastive Analysis alone predicts the difficulties the learners' will run into in the acquisition process of English syllable structure.

3. All learners employ the same strategies to tackle the problem of consonant clusters, which is not influenced by their L1.

Participants

The subjects in this study were selected from those who had just started their last year at high school i.e. the pre- university course in Mahshar, Iran. They were selected from among those students whose average score range was at least from 12 to 16 on their final English course in their third grades. They were divided into two groups of thirty with two different native languages: group 1 whose native language was Arabic and group 2 who were native speakers of Persian.

It is worth noting that the group 1 speaks a variety of Arabic which is peculiar to this area and is significantly different from standard Arabic for example the sounds /g-tʃ-p- / are not available in standard Arabic but the speakers of this vernacular utter the word [kælb] means dog as [tʃ∂l∂b] or [dʒ∂gaI ∌(r)] for "cigarette". However, as far as the phonological features in this study are concerned, this variety is similar to standard Arabic. By the same token, although the variety of Persian spoken by group 2 is different from standard Persian in many ways (for example [ræftu;m] for [ræftæm] meaning I went), the phonological features of this variety are very similar to standard Persian.

Materials

The testing material used in this study, which consists of 35 words,was divided into two main groups. They were then, divided into two subgroups respectively. Of course five irrelevant words were used as placebo.

The first group contained 25 words which included initial consonant clusters. 10 out of 25 consisted of two initial consonant clusters i.e. stop/fricative liquid and 15 out of 25 consisted of s+ stop/liquid/fricative, i.e. 3 initial consonant clusters. The second group contained 10 words with consonants clustered at the end (final consonant clusters). They then were divided into two subgroups. 5 out of 10 had two final consonant clusters and the other half consisted of more than two clusters.

These words covered a wide variety of permissible consonant clusters in English but the list was not meant to be comprehensive, because they had to be selected from among the words the learners were already familiar with. The words were divided into two groups so that any difference if any, between initial and final consonant clusters could be observed.

Procedure

An ex-post facto design was used to conduct the study since there was no treatment and it was just meant to know how acquisition of their English syllable structure had happened. Hatch & Farhady (1981) believe that when there is no treatment, instead of abandoning the research, the researcher simply has to limit the domain of his claim or avoid making cause- and- effect statements.

Since the learners were not meant to be instructed and the learners' present interlanguage was to be studied, the subjects were only asked to read the words aloud and were recorded to find out how they had learned English syllable structure. No correction was made and they were just tape recorded individually and separately from others so that their mistakes if any would not have any effect on other learners.

The learners were not interviewed nor were they asked to describe picture or to talk about a subject because, in terms of speaking skill, they were not competent at all. The reason was that in the curriculum, spoken English was either never taught or totally underemphasized, and the only pronunciation drill the students did was limited to repetition of individual words in chorus and individually after the teacher.

Results

The performance of Arab speakers

The Arab speakers' performance on the test, which is mentioned in appendix 1, can be divided into four parts: first, the performance on the first ten words which are made up of stop/fricative and a liquid clustered initially such as "try". Of the thirty learners in the study only one pronounced them by adding a vowel before the cluster. The others either pronounced the words correctly, inserted a glottal stop at the beginning of the syllable or they inserted a vowel into the cluster.

The second part, the performance on the second fifteen words, beginning with [s +stop/liquid/fricative], (such as "spring" and "swear") was highly interesting because there was one mispronunciation by most speakers i.e. the word 'swear'which was pronounced /eswer/. All the other words in this group either were pronounced correctly or the speakers inserted a vowel before the cluster or inserted a vowel into the cluster.The strategy used by the speakers for words with three consonants clustered initially followed the same pattern. Some speakers however, inserted one vowel in between the consonants as follow:

Table1 /s+stop/ sample errors committed by Arab speakers

/sᴵpᴵlᴵt/   /sᴵtᴵrᴵ t/

The Arab speakers' performance on the third group of words such as /colt/ was almost the same as the performance of the Persian learners'. Both groups had a few errors and they used the same strategy when they made mistakes.

The Arab speakers' performance on the last group of words such as "opts" and "glimpsed" showed a tendency to have difficulties or to be unable, at least at this stage of acquisition, to pronounce words with more than two consonants clustered at the end. Some speakers also deleted some consonants to simplify the consonant cluster in final position. Three errors which were common to most speakers are displayed in table 2. (vowel insertion or consonant deletion).

Table 2 Coda three consonant cluster sample errors committed by Arab speakers

/glᴵmpsed/
/mᴵlked/
/strᴵ tʃ/

There is one caveat here: since the combination /k / is found in some English words like "crooked" and "wicked", "milked" cannot be considered as totally un-English and is in harmony with English phonotactics. Consequently it can be concluded that their syllable structure is **CVC** and occasionally or rarely **CCVCC** because most of them pronounced the word /qmaaʃ/, /θneᴵn/, and /kᴵtabᴵtlhæ/ correctly. Some subjects pronounced /fil ɘᵁr/ for "floor" whereas some pronounced /eslaᴵd/ for "slide".

The performance of Persian speakers

Persian speakers' performance can also be divided into four groups: the performance on the words which have stop/fricative liquid clustered initially, the performance on the words with

[s] and one or two other consonants at the beginning and finally the performance on words with two final consonant clusters or more.

The learners' performance on the first group of words shows that Persian learners tend to insert a vowel in between stop/fricative and liquids more than that Arabs (see table 3). However, when it comes to words with s+ stop/liquid/fricatives clustered initially, they only tend to add a vowel to the initial position (see table 4). The only exception to this generalization is the word 'swear' which was pronounced correctly by all the learners in this group.

We can claim that the performance of the Persian speakers' and that of Arab speakers' were alike on the third group of words i.e. two consonants clustered finally. Whereas it is observable that Persian speakers performed outstandingly better than Arab speakers on the last five words clustered finally. Apart from the word /strengths/ which most of the learners were unable to pronounce correctly, all the other words were either pronounced without any vowel insertion and consonant reduction.

Table 3 Sample Errors Committed by Persian Speakers

/teraɪ/	/kerəᵁ/
/peləᵁ/	/gelæd/

Table 4 Sample Errors Committed by Persian Speakers

/espɪk/	/espɪrɪtʃ/
/esplɪt/	/esteɪk/

The performance of the groups compared

When compared, the performance of the two groups of learners clearly indicates that each group faces different problems in pronouncing consonant clusters. Although the syllable structures of Persian and Arabic are the same, the errors produced by the groups were different. Arab learners had few problems with the s+ stop/fricative liquid combination while the Persian speakers' errors were not only more observable but also they employed just vowel

insertion strategy to overcome the problem whereas the Arab speakers used two different strategies.

By contrast, Persian speakers had less trouble pronouncing final clusters especially more than two clusters while most Arabs were almost unable to pronounce more than two final consonants. In addition, some Arab speakers tended to delete some consonants in the final position while Persian speakers rarely did so. Arab speakers also tended to add a glottal stop at the beginning of some syllables in non-final consonant clusters.

The area of difficultly common to both was stop/fricative+ liquid. To tackle this problem the two groups employed the same strategy. They both resorted to vowel insertion medially.

Data analysis

The chi-square test was used to test the null hypothesis in consonant clusters of onset and coda syllable positions in association with the subject groups who were required to read aloud the words. Thus, the number of types of consonant clusters was counted. Having been dealing with the observed counts of onset and coda consonants by Persian and Arab speakers, we used a chi-square Test to measure whether the association between consonants and the speaker groups was significant.

The performance of the two groups of the subjects on English words consisting of two consonants clustered syllable initially (stop/fricative + liquid) such as /try/ was not significant ($X^2(1, N = 156) = 3.00$, P >.05). However, their performance on English words consisting of three consonants clustered syllable initially (s+ stop/fricative/liquid) such as "spring" and "square" was significant ($X^2(1, N = 254) = 358.47$, P < .001). Then the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between the consonant clusters and the groups is rejected, while the null hypothesis of the subjects on English words consisting of two consonants clustered syllable finally such as /colt/ was not rejected ($X^2(1, N = 121) = 2.60$, P >.05). Finally, the relationship of the subjects on English words consisting of more than two consonants clustered syllable finally such as /opts/ and /strengths/ was realized ($X^2(1, N = 204) = 358.47$, P < .01)

The aims of the measurement were to examine the CA predictions to see whether similar consonant clusters pattern across languages facilitate learning and are not problematic for the learners or vice versa, against the scheme of "sonority hierarchy" as suggested by Broselow (1995) and Anderson's MDH (1983).

Discussion

About half of the words pronounced by each group contained some sorts of syllable structure error for the performance of the subjects on English words consisting of two consonants clustered syllable initially (stop/fricative + liquid) such as /try/. In examining the overall use of the strategies used by each group, epenthesis and glottal stop addition were observed but consonant deletion was not observed. It is immediately apparent that both groups relied heavily on epenthesis as a strategy in altering syllable structure of English but Arab speakers tended to add glottal stop at the beginning of some syllables. In so far as the pattern of syllable structure of both Arabic and Farsi shows the two languages don't allow consonant clusters in their onsets. Although the amount of errors committed by each group was close together, the two groups didn't use the same strategy.

   The performance of consonant clusters of more than two in the onset (s+ stop/fricative/liquid) such as "spring" shows the amount of errors committed by each group was drastically different. They didn't follow the same strategy dealing with that problem. It also indicates that the performance of Arab speakers is quite better (254 correct responses) than that of Farsi speakers (89 correct responses) in pronouncing non-final consonant clusters of more than two.

   The frequency of performance of the subjects on English words consisting of two consonants clustered syllable finally such as "colt" errors committed by Farsi (132 correct responses) and Arab speakers (121 correct ones) is fairly the same. Although the syllable structure of Arabic doesn't accept consonant cluster at all, this shows that both groups with different background resorted to the same strategy.

        The performance of the subjects on English words consisting of two consonants clustered syllable initially (stop/fricative + liquid) unlike that of consonants clustered syllable finally was not rely heavily on epenthesis as a strategy in altering syllable structure. Rather, the subjects mostly used consonant deletion. This would seem to indicate that, in so far as consonant deletion is a strategy used in the acquisition of first language phonology (Tarone, 1972), it may be possible that first language acquisition processes are in fact reactivated to a certain extent in the acquisition on second language phonology. However, if such a reactivation does take place, it does not seem to operate with great force. Rather, the two strategies of consonant deletion and epenthesis seem to affect the syllable structure with approximately equal force for most subjects. Different subjects do seem to prefer different strategies; however, the critical variable in their choice of strategies appears to be their native

language background. This point supports Anderson's MDH. Arabic speakers preferred glottal stop addition and consonant deletion as a strategy, while the Farsi speakers decidedly favored epenthesis as a strategy in simplifying syllable structure. If we compare the results, it is clear that the Arabic speakers have had more difficulties in production of final consonants rather than non-final consonant clusters. The end result is reverse for Farsi speakers.

In the analysis of the data, all the errors, or points of deviation, between inter language and target language syllable structure, can be classified as to whether their origin could be reliably traced to language transfer or not. So, for example, the Farsi speaker's replacement of /ter**aI**/ for "trai" is classified as an error originating in language transfer, since Farsi speakers do not have any /tr/ clusters. However, the same speaker's production of /k ∂ᵁl∂t/ for "colt" is classified as non-transfer in origin. Since Farsi syllable structure has the word /m ^{Cl}lt/ (meaning a kind of fever) or for speakers of Arabic again /ter**aI**/ is classified as an error originating in language transfer. Though Arabic structure is quite a very simple one, surprisingly a lot of Arab speakers were able to produce (s+ stop /fricative/ liquid) like /spring/ correctly.

As it was shown above, the results of the experiment lend support to the Markedness Differential Hypothesis. This hypothesis takes into account both NL and language universals, suggesting that target forms that are more marked are more difficult to learn.

It is worth remembering that, as far as consonant clusters are concerned, English is said to be more marked than both Persian and Arabic. The most universal pattern is CV. It's not surprising that both groups of learners had some difficulty with both initial and final consonant clusters.

However, the fact that the learners employ different strategies to deal with the problem and that these strategies are attributable to the nature of languages, bear out Anderson's (1983) view that MDH is a predictor of the syllabification performance.

This also backs up Sato's (1984) conclusion, that some phonological processes are strongly influenced by constraints on the syllable structure in the first language. This view is shared by Young-Scholten and Archibald (1993) who conclude that acquisition of syllable structure in L2 influenced by universal principles of prosodic structure and by properties of L2 syllable structure. Therefore, CA alone is not able to predict the problems L2 learners are likely to have.

These results also show that L2 learners use a different strategy from L1 language to pronounce difficult L2 words. Thus supporting Tarone's (1980) view on the strategies used by

L2 Learners, the two groups here frequently used vowel insertion. However, the fact that Arab learners reduced the final consonant cluster from four and three to two is a sign that some L1 acquisition strategies may sometimes be at work.We can also conclude that since both Arabic and Persian syllable structures do not allow initial consonant clusters, based on CAH it is expected that performance of the two speakers as well as the strategies used by them would be the same. But this expectation is not verified.

Therefore it turns out to conform with or correspond to Broselow's (1995) Sonorant Sequencing' as well as Anderson's (1983) MDH which confirm the role of 'universals' in language performance.

References

Akmajian, A., Demers, R., Farmer, A., Harnish, R., (1995). *Linguistics:An introduction to language and communication,* Fourth edition. The MIt Press Massachuset.

Anderson, J.I. (1983). Syllable simplification in the speech of second language learners. *The Interlanguage Studies Bulletin, 3,*6-8

Broselow, E. (1995). *Transfer and universals in second language epenthesis.* Amsterdam: John Benjamin.

Broselow, E. & Finer, D. (1991). Parameter setting in second language phonology and syntax. *Second Language Research, 7,* 35-59.

Eckman, F. (1977). Markedness and the contrastive analysis hypothesis.*Language Learning, 27,*315-330.

Eckman, F.R., Elreyes, A. & Iverson, G.K. (2003). Some principles of
    second language phonology. *Second Language Research,19,* 169–208.

Ferguson, G. (1987). Second language syllable simplification: Another look at interlanguage syllable structure. *Language Learning,34,* 43- 57.

Flege, J, & Liu, S. (2001). The effect of experience on adults' acquisition of a second language. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 23,* 527–552.

Greenberg, P. (1978). *On the acquisition of Prosodic Structure.* Amsterdam: Holland Institute of Generative Linguistics.

Hatch. J. & Frhady, M. (1981). *Research design and statistics for applied linguistics.* Tehran: Rahnama Publication.

Hayati, A.M. (1998). Contrastive analysis: theory and practice. Khuzestan: Jahad Daneshgahi Publications.

Karimi, S. (1987). Farsi speakers and the initial consonant clusters in English. In G. Ioup and S. Weinberger (eds.). *Interlanguage Phonology*. Cambridge, MA: Newbury house.

Krzeszowski, P.T. (1990). *Contrasting languages: The scope of contrastive linguistics*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Lado, R. (1957).*Linguistics across cultures*. Ann Arbor:University of Michigan Press.

Mackey, W.F. (1973). Language didactics and applied linguistics. In Oller and Richards, (eds.). *Focus on the Learner*. Massachusetts:Newbury House Publishers, Inc.

MacKay, L, Meador, D, & Flege, J. (2001).The identification of English consonant clusters by native speakersof Italian. *Phonetica*, *58*, 103–125.

Sato, C. (1984). Phonological processes in second language acquisition: Another look at interlanguage syllable structure. *Language Learning*, *34*, 43-57.

Tarone, E. (1972). A suggested unit for interlingual identification in pronunciation. *TESOL Quarterly*, *4*, 310- 325.

Tarone, E. (1976). Some influences on interlanguage phonology. *Working Papers in Bilingualism*, *8*, 87- 111.

Tarone, E. (1980). Some influences on the syllable structure of interlanguage phonology.*IRAL*, 18, 139-52.

Yarmohammadi, L. & Pouretedal, Gh. R. (1996). *A course in English pronunciation: A generative framework*. Tehran: The Center for Studying and Compiling University Books in Humanities (SAMT).

Young-Scholten, M. & Archibald, J. (1993). *The Acquisition of prosodic structure in a second language*, Tübingen: Niemeyer.

Appendix I

1. shriek	21. try
2. throw	22. free
3. split	23. dry
4. spring	24. string
5. street	25. pry
6. square	26. fry
7. destroy	27. crow
8. colt	28. grow
9. glimpsed	29. glad
10. milked	30. cloud
11. deaths	31. rubbish

12. bathes

13. calves

14. beliefs

15. strengths

16. modern

17. opts

18. brings

19. seaside

20. swear

32. ploughs

33. blouse

34. sneak

35. smart

36. speak

37. star

38. school

39. slick

40. capital

Title

The Relation between Paragraph Organization and the Topic Progression Used in English Paragraphs Selected from Native Books on Teaching Writing

Authors

Zargham Ghabanchi,**(Ph.D.)**
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran

Sahar Zahed Alavi,**(M.A.)**
Bojnord University, Bojnord, Iran

Bio data

Zargham Ghabanchi got his Ph.D. from the University of Liverpool, UK in Applied Linguistics. Now he has a chair at Ferdowsi University of Mashhad. He was the chancellor of Sabzevar Payam Noor University for five years. He has published several books and articles.

Sahar Zahed Alavigot her M.A. in TEFL from Sabzevar Teacher Training University in 1388. She has been teaching various English courses in different English institutes, Sabzevar University,Bojnord State University and Bojnord Payam noor University.

Abstract

Coherence is one of the most important factors in effective writing. Lautmatti (1978) proposed a model, based on the progression of topics in a paragraph, for marinating coherence. Using Lautmatti's (ibid) framework, the study examines the types of topic progression techniques used in 120 paragraphs which are selected from a number of academic books on teaching writing. Three types of paragraph, namely forty paragraphs of comparison and contrast, forty paragraphs of cause-effect and forty paragraphs of chronology, with two different types of organization, listing and time, are selected to be analyzed. The present study investigates the relationship between the paragraph organization and the types of topic progression techniques used in them. As the results of the Chi-square tests show, there is a relationship between the paragraph organization and the types of

topic progression techniques. Among four types of topic progression techniques_ parallel, sequential, extended parallel and extended sequential_ in paragraphs with listing organization sequential progression (38%), and in paragraphs with time organization extended parallel progression (35%) and parallel progression (29.4%) were the dominant types of topic progression techniques. The knowledge of the types of progression in paragraphs with specific organization helps one in writing a coherent paragraph.

Keywords: Lautmatti's (1978) framework, Types of topic progression techniques, Paragraph organization, Types of paragraph, Paragraphs of comparison and contrast, Cause-effect and chronology

Introduction

Writing is a highly complex process for novice and non-novice writers, since it involves a host of advanced skills that include critical thinking, logical development, and coherence of ideas.A coherent text involves reciprocal interaction from both text- and reader-based features.

Realizing coherence in written discourse is one major challenge confronting writers, since it is not only a desirable character of a text but also a crucial aspect that establishes the oneness of a collection of abstract thoughts. One can only claim a written text is successful if it is able to found a relationbetween the writer and reader, and between clauses, sentences, and paragraphs.

Lautmatti (1978) mentioned that the logical sequencing and clear progression as well as the smooth connection of ideas in a composition cause the composition to be a coherent one. He proposed a model, named Topical Structure Analysis (TSA) to determine the coherence of a paragraph based on the consideration of the progressions of the topics of sentences in the paragraph. According to this model there are four major progressions namely parallel progression, sequential progression, extended parallel progression and extended sequential progression.

The knowledge of the types of progressions used in the TSA can help one determine whether a composition meets the standards of high quality paragraph. TSA is one strategy to make compositions easier to understand. One can detect the type of topical progression most frequently used in paragraphs with different types of organization, which are temporal, listing and spatial. Then, he can have a generalization about the type of progression used in

paragraphs with a specific organization, which is the arrangement of sentences in a text according to some factors such as time, listing and space. Then, it will be easier to write a coherent paragraph with specific organization.

Research Questions

This studytries to answer the following questions by using Latuamatti's (1978) framework:

1. Is there any relation between the paragraph organization and the frequency of the use of topic progression techniques in the sample paragraphs?

2. Is there any difference in the frequencies of types of topic progression techniques used in paragraphs with listing organization?

3. Is there any difference in the frequencies of types of topic progression techniques used in paragraphs with time organization?

Research Hypotheses

1. There is no relation between the paragraph organization and the frequency of the use of topic progression techniques in the sample paragraphs?

2. There is no difference in the frequencies of types of topic progression techniques used in paragraphs with listing organization?

3. There is no difference in the frequencies of types of topic progression techniques used in paragraphs with time organization?

Review of related literature

An effective paragraph must meet mainly four requirements. First, it must discuss one topic only; that is, its statements and illustrations must showa *unity* of subject matter, often expressed in a topic sentence. Second, it must say all that the readers need to know about the topic; it must be complete. Third, the sentences in the paragraph must show an order that the readers can recognize and follow.Order in paragraphs is considered as the direction of movement. There are three directional patterns in paragraphs: chronological, listing and special order. Chronological order is a way of organizing the ideas in a paragraph in the order of their occurrence in time. Listing is a way to organize the items and ideas in a paragraph in the listing form. In spatial (place) organization, the ideas call for a presentation in space. Fourth, the sentences in the paragraph must show coherence, allowing the readers to move

easily from one sentence to the next sentence without feeling that there are some gaps in the sequence of the writer's ideas (Trimmer, 1992).

Coherence in writing especially in English can be achieved through certain strategies such as introductory activities, explicit teaching, awareness-raising tasks and writing practice (Lee, 2002). Lauttmati (1978) proposed TSA as another device to achieve coherence in writing. In TSA, researchers look at sequences of sentences and examine how the sentence topics work through the text to progressively build meaning. Lautmatti (*ibid*) introduced three types of progression: parallel, sequential and extended parallel progression. In parallel progression, successive sentences have the same sentence topics; that is, the topics of the various sentences are referentially identical, using repeated lexical items, synonyms, near-synonyms or pronouns. Writers who use parallel progression are fully aware of the content of their writing and the manner by which they can further explore that subject (Carreon, 2006). In sequential progression, the sentence topics are always different, and the comment part of the previous sentence often becomes the topic of the following sentence. Extended parallel progression is a parallel progression which is temporarily interrupted by a sequential progression. As Cerniglia, Medsker, and Connor (1990, p.238) indicated, extended parallel progression "often develops an idea well but also brings the reader back to the main idea to achieve a closure".Extended parallel progression is actually the preferred type of progression by teachers, since it shows the ability of the students in their discussion to go back to the main theme (Carreon, 2006).Simpson (2000) revealed a fourth type of progression identified as extended sequential progression. It occurs when the rhyme element of a clause is taken up as the theme of a non- consecutive clause.

About the different types of progression, Fries (1994) mentions that there is no claim that every text segment must have a single simple method of development or must express a single point. Different types of progression can be seen in a text.

Several studies (Connor, 1987; Connor & Farmer, 1990; Chiu, 2004; Shan Fan ,2008) show that students can use TSA to increase the quality of their writing. Connor and Farmer (1990) suggestthe use of TSA as a revision strategy in college writing classes. They found that being aware of and using extended parallel progression helped students to focus on their writing, while regulating the ratio of parallel to sequential progressions helped them to develop their compositions better.

Schneider and Connor (1991) conducted research studies on TSA of low-rated and high-rated essays. They found that the low-, medium- and high-rated essays differed significantly in the proportion of parallel and sequential progression. The medium- and low-rated essays

contained a greater proportion of parallel topics than did the high-rated essays, which contained a greater proportion of sequential progression.

Almaden's (2006) study investigated the topical progression in paragraphs written by Filipino ESL students. His samples consisted of sixity paragraphs lifted from the students' portfolios. The paragraphs were analyzed using Lautamatti's TSA. It was found that parallel progression was the most preferred progression in the paragraph**s**, extended parallel progression was the second one, sequential progression was the third most preferred, and extended sequential progression was used least in the paragraphs.

In Hoenisch's (2009) paper, the highest quality accomplished essays contain a large proportion of coherence-building sequential progression and a small proportion of parallel progression.

Method

This study investigated the types of topic progression technique used in 120 paragraphs (40 paragraphs of comparison & contrast, 40 paragraphs of cause-effect and 40 paragraphs of chronology).

In conducting TSA, some steps are taken. First the topic of each unit (any independent clause and all its required modifiers, or any non-independent clause punctuated as a sentence as indicated by end punctuation, or any imperative) is determined. The determination of topic is based on interpretation (Witte, 1983; Schneider & Connor, 1991)and "As for" device (Hoenich, 2009). As the next step, the topics of all the units are plotted onto a graph, and a physical representation of the thematic development and the types of progression identified by Lautamatti (1978) and Simpson (2000) - parallel progression, sequential progression, extended parallel progression and extended sequential progression- can be visualized.The following paragraph taken from the samples is provided as an example of how the procedure was done:

Lincoln's early political career did not foreshadow the success he was to have as president. In his early twenties, he moved to Illinois. It was there that, having first tried his hand at the variety of occupations (store keeper, postmaster, surveyor), he first became interested in politics. He was not successful the first time he ran for office in 1831. After having served only this one term in the U.S. Congress, he was defeated for reelection and returned to practice law in Springfield. However, he was successful in his subsequent attempts, and served four two-year terms in the state legislature, from 1834 to 1842. During this same period, he added the study of law to his legislative duties, finally being admitted to the Illinois bar in 1836. Shortly after passing the bar exam, he moved to Springfield, Illinois, to set up his own legal practice. In 1846, he was elected to the United Stats House of Representatives for two years. Indeed, he had almost entirely lost any hope of holding political office when, in 1854, the slavery question once again forced him into the political arenas. Although he was defeated twice for election to the U.S. Congress, he finally managed, in 1860, to be nominated by the Republican Party as its candidate for president.
1. Lincoln's early political career

2. he

3. there (Illinois)

4. he

5. reelection

6. he

7. law*

8. he

9. he

10. political office

11. he

t-unit	Parallel progression	Sequential progression	Extended parallel progression	Extended sequential progression
11	1	3	5	1

Note: ⤳ represents sequential progression

* represents extended sequential progression

Results

The hypotheses of thisresearch are investigated with the use of descriptive statistics, and inferential statistics.

The frequency of the use of each types of topic progression technique in three types of paragraphs isgiven in Table 1. And the bar graph presenting this data is shown in Figure 1.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for the Use of Topic Progression Techniques in Paragraphs of Comparison and Contrast, Cause-effect and Chronology

|		Frequency			Percent			Valid Percent			Cumulative Percent		
		Comp. & con.	Cause-effect	Chro.	Comp. & con.	Cause-effect	Chro.	Comp. & con.	Cause-effect	Chro.	Comp. & con.	Cause-effect	Chro.
Valid	p.	52	52	104	14.1	20.2	29.4	14.1	20.2	29.4	14.1	20.2	29.4
	s.	126	112	80	34.2	43.4	22.6	34.2	43.4	22.6	48.4	63.6	52.0
	e.p.	90	32	124	24.5	12.4	35.0	24.5	12.4	35.0	72.8	76.0	87.0
	e.s.	100	62	46	27.2	24.0	13.0	27.2	24.0	13.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Total	368	258	354	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			

Figure 1

Bar Graph for the Use of Topic Progression Techniques in Paragraphs of Comparison and Contrast,Cause-effect and Chronology
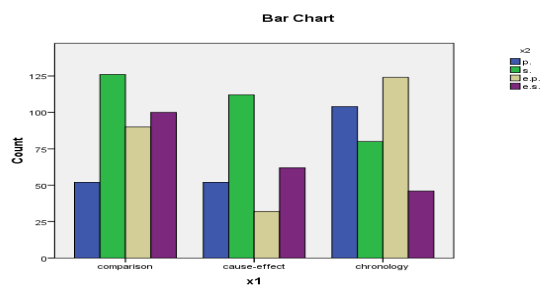
This study investigates two organizations of time and listing: 80 paragraphs with listing organization (40 paragraphs of comparison and contrast and 40 paragraphs of cause-effect) and 40 paragraphs with time organization (paragraphs of chronology). In order to test the null hypothesis, where it has been hypothesizes that: There is no relation between paragraph organization and the type of topic progression technique, the Chi-square test was used. Table 2 shows the observed frequencies of the types of topic progression techniques in 80 paragraphs with listing organization and 40 paragraphs with time organization. Asthe result of the Chi-square test, provided in Table 3,shows the null hypothesis is rejected and there is a relationship between paragraph organization and the type of topic progression technique.

Table 2

Observed Frequencies for Topic Progression Techniques in Paragraphs with Listing and Time Organizations

		p.	s.	e.p.	e.s.	
x1 listing	Count	104	238	122	162	626
	Expected Count	132.9	203.1	157.1	132.9	626.0
	% within x1	16.6%	38.0%	19.5%	25.9%	100.0%
Time	Count	104	80	124	46	354
	Expected Count	75.1	114.9	88.9	75.1	354.0
	% within x1	29.4%	22.6%	35.0%	13.0%	100.0%
Total	Count	208	318	246	208	980
	Expected Count	208.0	318.0	246.0	208.0	980.0
	% within x1	21.2%	32.4%	25.1%	21.2%	100.0%

Table 3

Chi-square Test

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	73.370[a]	3	.000
Likelihood Ratio	74.174	3	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	10.881	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	980		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 75.13.

Another chi-square test is used to examine if there is a relation between the organization of paragraphs of comparison and contrast and paragraphs of cause-effect (listing organization) and the type of topic progression technique used in them. As the result of the Chi-square test which is provided in Table 4 shows, there is a relationship between the organization of paragraphs of comparison and contrast and paragraphs of cause-effect (listing organization) and the types of topic progression technique.

Table 4

Chi-square Test

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18.555[a]	3	.000
Likelihood Ratio	19.111	3	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.189	1	.004
N of Valid Cases	626		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 42.86.

The observed frequencies of the types of topic progression techniques used in paragraphs with listing organization can be seen in Table 1. As it is shown in table 5, the differences between the frequencies of topic progression techniques in paragraphs with listing organization are not due to chance.

Table 5

Chi-square Test

Observed value	Critical value	Sig.	d.f.
67.84	7.81	.05	3

As it is presented in Table 2, sequential progression with the percentage of 38 is the dominant type of progression used in paragraphs with listing organization.

To see if there is a real difference in the frequencies of types of topic progression used in paragraphs with time organization, the Chi-square test is used. As the result of the Chi-square test shows in Table 6, the null hypothesis is rejected. That is, there are differences between the frequencies of types of topic progression techniques used in paragraphs with time organization, and these differences are not due to chance.

Table 6

Chi-square Test

Observed value	Critical value	Sig.	d.f.
38.16	7.81	.05	3

As it is presented in Table 1, extended parallel progression with the percentage of 35 is the dominant type of progression used in paragraphs with time organization.

Findings and conclusion

The first research question posed in this study asks if there is any relation between the paragraph organization and the types of topic progression techniques. The Chi-square test shows a significant relationship.The second and the third questions of the study respectively ask if there is any difference in the frequencies of types of topic progression techniques used in the sample paragraphs with listing organization, and if there is any difference in the frequencies of types of topic progression techniques used in paragraphs with time organization. As the results of the Chi-square tests show, the differences in the frequencies of types of topic progression techniques in paragraphs with listing organization- paragraphs of comparison and contrast and paragraphs of cause-effect- are not due to chance. In these paragraph types, sequential progression is the most frequently used type of topic progression technique. Moreover, the analysis indicated that the differences in the frequencies of types of topic progression in paragraphs with time organization_ paragraphs of chronology_ are not due to chance, and parallel progression and extended parallel progression are the most frequently used types of topic progression techniques among these types of paragraphs.

In paragraphs of chronology, with time organization, the repetition of key words or phrases in consecutive clause (parallel progression) and in nonconsecutive clauses (extended parallel progression) are used to reinforce an idea in the reader's mind and remind the readers

of the important topics (Schneider & Connor, 1991). In these types of progression, writers choose to string ideas close together rather than link them across paragraph (Almaden, 2006). On the contrary, in paragraphs of comparison and contrast and cause-effect, with listing organization, an idea is developed by extended sequential progression. This type of progression, adds detail to a topic mentioned earlier in a rhyme of a clause (Carreon, 2006). It increases the number of different topics and connects the ideas across paragraph.

As it is seen, nearly similar types of topic progression techniques are used in paragraphs of comparison and contrast and paragraphs of cause-effect. This might be because both types of paragraphs have the same paragraph organization, namely, listing. And as it is evident, these paragraphs have topic progression techniques different from those used in paragraphs of chronology. Again, this can be related to their paragraph organizations. Since paragraphs of comparison and contrast and paragraphs of cause-effect on the one hand, and paragraphs of chronology on the other hand have different paragraph organizations, the types of topic progression used in each group should differ from the other. The results of this study are compatible with those of Alavi's (2010) thesis, which analyzed TSA of paragraphs ofchronology, comparison and contrast and cause-effect written by EFL students.

Based on the findings and conclusions, this study offers some implications for teachers, EFL learners and material developers. Teachers can provide the students with the general information about four types of topic progression techniques, and then they can teach the types of topic progression used most frequently in paragraphs with a specific organization. They should emphasize that in paragraphs with different organizations, different types of topic progression techniques are likely to be used. Students can learn about topic progression techniques to write their paragraphs coherently. The syllabus designers had better emphasize on discourse level rather than sentence level. It is a good idea that syllabus designers present TSA and topic progression techniques as explanations to the way coherence is created in paragraphs. Moreover, they had better devote some parts of the writing text books to introduce different types of topic progression used in paragraphs with different types of organization.

References

Alavi,S.Z.(2010), *The relation between paragraph organization and the topic progression used in paragraphs written by Iranian EFL students.* Unpublished Master's thesis, Tarbiat Moallem, Sabzevar, Iran.

Almaden, D. O. (2006). An analysis of the topical structure of paragraphs written by Filipino students. *The Asia-Pacific Education Research, 15* (1), 127-153.

Carreon, M. C. (2006). Unguarded patterns of thinking: Physical and topical structure analysis of students journals. *The Asia Pacific Education Research, 15* (1), 155-182.

Cerniglia, C. S., Medsker, K. L., & Connor, U. (1990). Improving coherence by using computer-assisted instruction. In U. Connor & M. J. Ann (Eds.), *Coherence in writing: Research and pedagogical perspectives* (pp. 227-241). Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages Inc.

Chiu, Y. F. (2004). Coaching a student to develop coherence based upon topical structure analysis: A case study. *Journal of Language and Learning,2* (2), 154-170.

Connor, U. (1987). Research frontiers in writing analysis. *TESOL Quarterly, 21*, 4, 677-696.

Connor, U., & Farmer, M. (1990). The teaching of topical structure analysis as a revision strategy for ESL writers. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom* (pp. 126–139). Cambridge: CambridgeUniversity Press.

Fries, P. H. (1994). On theme, rheme and discourse goals. In Malcolm coulthard (Ed.). *Advances in written text analysis* (pp. 229-250). London and New York: Roultledge.

Hoenich, S. (2009). Topical structure analysis of accomplished English prose. Unpublished Master's thesis. University of New York.

Lautdmatti, L. (1978). Observations on the development of the topic in simplified discourse. In U. Connor & R. B. Kaplan (Eds.), *Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text* (pp. 87–113).Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company Inc.

Lee, I. (2002).Teaching coherence to ESL students: A classroom inquiry. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 11* (2), 135-159.

Lock, G. (1996). *Functional English grammar: An introduction for second language teachers.* Cambridge: CambridgeUniversity Press.

Nezhad Ansari, D. (2002). Writing effective paragraphs. Kanun Pajuhesh: Esfahan.

Schneider, M., and Connor, U. (1991). Analyzing topical structure in ESL essays: Not all topics are equal. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,12*, 411-427.

Shan Fan, Y. (2008). Topical structure analysis as an alternative learning strategy for coherent writing. Unpublished Master's thesis. University of Japan.

Simpson J. M. (2000). Topical structure analysis of academic paragraphs in English and Spanish. *Journal of Second Languagr Writing, 9* (3), 293 - 309.

Witte, S. P. (1983). Revision: An exploratory study. *College Composition and Communication, 34* (3), 313-341.

Title

An Investigation of E-mail Writing Style in Persian Learners of English: The Effects of Social Distance and Closeness on the Formality of the Written E-mails

Authors

Shahla Janghorban (M.A.)
University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran

Saeed Ketabi (Ph.D.)
University of Isfahan,Isfahan, Iran

Bio data

Shahla Janghorban has an M.A. degree in TEFL from the University of Isfahan. She is a lecturer at Isfahan University of Medical Sciences. She has published and presented papers in conferences and journals.

Dr. Saeed Ketabi has a Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics from the University of Cambridge, England and is currently teaching ELT course at the University of Isfahan, Iran. He has published and presented several papers.

Abstract

The present study investigates the e-mail literacy in Persian learners of English and focuses on the effects of social distance and closeness on the formality of the written e-mails. More specifically, the study investigates whether there is any difference between the e-mails that students send to their teachers and those they send to their friends, regarding the formality and the number of discourse features used in them. This question was examined in the following way: Firstly, an Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was given to 45 M.A. students of TEFL at the University of Isfahan. On the basis of the disposition of the OPT scores around the mean (i.e. mean $\pm$ 1SD), 30 homogeneous learners were selected to serve as the participants of this study.Secondly, they were asked to write four types of e-mails on the predetermined subjects and send the first two e-mails to one of their teachers (as the recipient whose social status was higher than theirs and) the second two ones to the coordinator of the class (as the recipient

whose social status was similar to theirs, if not the same as theirs). Thirdly, in order to answer the research question, the frequency and percentage of the formality and discourse features of the sent e-mails to the teacher and the coordinator were calculated, the results of which indicated that there is a significant difference between the e-mails sent to the teacher and those sent to the coordinator in terms of formality and discourse features.

Introduction

In earlier times, people in literate societies had two ways of communicating with one another: either face-to-face (through the immediacy of speech) or at a distance (through more temporally or geographically remote writing). The rules of interlocutor engagement were clear. One could directly see the person with whom one was speaking, but not the one to whom s/he was writing. With only minor exceptions (such as passing a note to a confederate during a public gathering), there was no middle ground (Baron, 1998).

Over the last century, developments in telecommunications have made possible new communicative modalities that blend the presuppositions of spoken and written language. We speak on the telephone, but at a distance, and without seeing our interlocutor. We send written messages, once by telegraph, now by fax, that travel in near real time. Voice mail (as its name implies) offers the voice cues of speech expected parameters of spoken language. Nowadays, for a growing number of people the most useful telecommunication device is electronic mail (e-mail), which conveys messages written at a computer keyboard, again, in near-real time.

In only three decades, e-mail has grown from a government-initiated, academically implemented system for sharing research information into an international alternative to long distance phone calls, interoffice memos, and face-to-face encounters. The appeal of the medium is as pervasive in the private world as it is in business or academy. In the corporate world, e-mail is becoming equally ubiquitous. In fact, in some contexts, it has all but replaced more traditional means of communication, from phones to memos to chance encounters in the hall (Chen, 2006).

Electronic mail has become an indispensable tool in business and academia, personal use is increasing every day, and e-mail has become the predominant means of communication in the information society. It pervades business, social, technical, and academic exchanges and as such it is a highly relevant area for research on communities and social networks. Not surprisingly, e-mail has been established as an indicator of collaboration and knowledge

exchange (Whittaker & Sinder, 1996; Wellman, 2002). E-mail is also a tantalizing medium for research because it provides plentiful data on personal communication in an electronic form. This volume of data enables the discovery of shared interests and relationships where none were previously known (Schwartz & Wood, 1992). Given its ubiquity, it is a promising resource for tapping into the dynamics of information within organizations, and for extracting the hidden patterns of collaboration and leadership that are at the heart of communities of practice.

Purpose of the study

 The development of information and communication technology along with the widespread use of the Internet has rapidly promoted e-mail as a common interpersonal communication medium. With its high transmission speed and less intrusive nature, e-mail has even been widely used for both personal communication and institutional communication, particularly in academic and business institutions (Baron 2000; Crystal, 2001). The wide use of the e-mail medium, however, does not necessarily mean that it is used without difficulty. While people can write e-mails to peers in any manner they like, research has shown that people in the workplace tend to feel uneasy writing e-mails to those perceived as higher in status when initiating communication, suggesting new ideas, making requests, and expressing disagreement or criticism (Murray, 1995, 1998; Kling, 1996; Baron, 1998, 2000). They usually need to spend more time planning and composing such status-unequal e-mails in which various face-threatening acts are involved.

An important reason for the challenge of using this medium, particularly for status-unequal communication is that e-mail, unlike face-to-face talk, lacks paralinguistic cues such as vocal inflection, gestures, facial expressions, and a shared mental and physical context (Murray, 1995). These paralinguistic cues usually constitute metamessages that convey social meaning (e.g., relationships between and attitudes towards each other) and serve as social lubricants. Without these paralinguistic cues, the metamessages sent via e-mail are revealed solely by how the written words are chosen, expressed, and organized. Wording and message structuring, thus, become more crucial in e-mail communication than in face-to-face talk.

However, there seem to be no fixed, standard e-mail writing rules for users to observe, especially since e-mail is a hybrid discourse inheriting features of both written and spoken language. On the one hand, e-mail users may feel liberated from the restriction of traditional letter writing rules; on the other, they may struggle to produce an appropriate e-mail to meet

the recipient's standards. Though the appropriateness of language use in e-mail may differ from person to person, it is generally determined by those who have more power, like any other communication medium. As Fairclough (1995) points out, "appropriateness is an ideological category, which is linked to particular partisan positions within a politics of language" (p.234). That is, appropriateness is ideologically situated in different socio-cultural contexts and those who have less power need to observe standards of a dominant socio-cultural group. This critical perspective on language use implies that e-mail users do not always have freedom in writing when they are in a position of lower power; instead, they have to follow the standards of appropriateness set by those who are on the dominant side in order to communicate successfully.

For non-native speakers, writing status-unequal e-mails can pose an even greater challenge because they need to have sophisticated pragmatic knowledge in the second language (L2) and critical language awareness of how discourse shapes and is shaped by power relations, identity, and ideologies established in the target culture. Due to their limited linguistic ability and unfamiliarity with the norms and values of the target culture, confusions or problems can occur in their L2 communication, including e-mail communication. In Shetzer and Warschauer's (2002) discussion of electronic literacy, they have placed strong emphasis on the importance of L2 learners' pragmatic competence for computer-mediated communication, such as the ability to perform speech acts and use appropriate communication strategies in the online environment, yet they did not address how L2 learners develop such pragmatic competence for producing electronic discourse. The development of pragmatic competence and critical language awareness in using the e-mail medium, which is known as "e-mail literacy", is a pressing issue in the digital era and needs to receive greater attention in second language research and education.

If students can, in principle, be expected to have the ability and means to write status-congruent e-mail messages to faculty, one can also expect that such messages might be characterized by features that reflect greater formality, what might be termed e-politeness in the e-mail medium. More specifically, students' e-mail requests of faculty might exhibit indirectness rather than directness, as well as lexical and syntactic strategies to mitigate requisite force.

Concerning the few studies on L2 learners' e-mail practice, the present study is an attempt to focus on a common type of e-mail practice that most L2 learners who study in higher educational institutions need, i.e. e-mail communication with professors. This type of e-mail practice seems important to researchers and educators because they found that the e-

mails that L2 learners write often contain some inappropriate language use and may even produce a negative impact on their studies. In other words, the main focus of this study is to compare the formality of the e-mails that students send to their teachers and those that they send to their friends and reveal whether there is any difference in those two types of e-mails in terms of formality of the opening and closing terms and the use of reduced forms, symbolization, emotion pictures, wiring mistakes and the discourse features used in them. By discourse features, the researcher means text connectives, code glosses, and validity/modality markers. It is believed that using these discourse features indicates the formality of the e-mail, whereas the use of reduced forms, symbols, emotion pictures, and writing mistakes is a sign of informality. As for the different words and phrases used to open and close an e-mail, it is suggested that some determined words such as "Dear, Hello, and to somewhat Hi" are the formal terms for salutation and the formal words for closing an e-mail are "Sincerely yours, Truly yours, and Best regards".

Method

Participants

Initially, 45 students were selected from the M.A. TEFL classes of the University of Isfahan. They were both male and female learners whose age ranged between 22 and 32. Then, an Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was administered for the sake of homogeneity and 30 homogeneous intermediate learners were selected to serve as the participants of the present study.

Research question and hypothesis

The present study is an attempt to investigate the following question:

Research Question: Is there any significant difference between the e-mails that students send to their teachers and those they send to their friends, regarding the formality and the number of discourse features used in them?

Hypothesis: There is no difference between the e-mails that students send to their teachers and those they send to their friend, regarding the formality and the number of discourse features used in them.

Procedure

After selecting 30 homogeneous intermediate students, four tasks were chosen and offered to the participants to write four e-mails about. The topics in question were selected with a view to fulfilling the requirements for the research question.

It was tried to choose the topics with which the subjects were quite familiar and those in which they had some practice. Based on the aforementioned criteria, three tasks were selected as follows:

As the first task, the students were required to send some e-mails to one of their teachers, in fact, to the head of the Department of English as the person who was at a higher social and educational position, and ask him to change the date of the final exams. Having received the sent e-mails, the mentioned teacher forwarded them to the researcher. It is worth mentioning that the students were not told that they were the participants of the study to make it as natural as possible.

As the second task, the same procedure was followed. The only difference between the first task and the second one was in the topic of the e-mails. In other words, for the second task, the students were asked to send some e-mails to the aforementioned teacher and congratulate him on the New Year.

For the investigation of the e-mails sent to the participants' peers, a different method was followed. To avoid the artificiality of the process, at first one of the students of each class was determined as the coordinator of the class. Then the coordinator asked the participants to send her some e-mails and ask her to request one of the teachers to lend them a book that was not available at the markets of Iran. After receiving the e-mails, the coordinator forwarded them to the researcher.

It is worth mentioning that the last group of e-mails includes those e-mails sent by the participants to the coordinator to congratulate her on the New Year.

Having received all the aforementioned e-mails, they were investigated in order to find out the possible differences between the e-mails in terms of formality and discourse features, which are briefly explained below.

Features in focus

a) Opening of the E-mail

One of the most important parts of any e-mail is the word or phrase used to initiate the e-mail. Based on the social distance between the e-mail sender and recipient, different opening words such as "dear, hello, hi, hey, …" are used.

b) Closing of the E-mail

Another important part is the word or phrase used to terminate the e-mail. Social distance and closeness play an important role in this case too. Based on the recipient's social rank, the e-mail sender may make use of different words or phrases like "sincerely yours, truly yours, best regards, see you, love, …".

c) Reduced forms

Sometime because of shortage of time, the sender prefers to use some reduced forms in their e-mails. Some instances of those reduced forms are "I've instead of I have, you're instead of you are, can't instead of cannot, …".

d) Symbolization

Under some circumstances, the e-mail sender prefers to make use of some symbols in the process of e-mail writing. The common symbols include "sb instead of somebody, sth instead of something, …".

e) Emotion pictures

Some individuals tend to use some emotion pictures in their e-mails in order to convey their feelings better.

f) Text connectives

Text connectives include sequencers, logical/temporal connectors, reminders, announcements, and topicalizers which show the organization of text (e.g., but, and, there is/are, in the first place, as mentioned above,...).

g) Code glosses

Code glosses are those defining or explaining phrases used to ensure the clarity of the expressions (e.g., in other words, ...).

h) Validity/Modality markers

Validity/modality markers are used to ensure the writer's certainty about the truth of the content (e.g., certainly, probably, ...).

Results

In order to answer the research questions in focus in this study and to examine the relevant hypotheses, a specific statistical measure was utilized. To be more specific, the statistical measure included calculating the percentages and frequencies of the intended features.

The null hypothesis states that there is not a difference between the e-mails sent to teachers and those sent to peers in terms of formality. In order to investigate this null hypothesis, the participants in this study were required to send some e-mails to their teachers and some others to their friends. After collecting the data, by analyzing sixty e-mails written by Iranian EFL students, the number of the intended features, like formal opening and closing of the e-mails, reduced forms, symbolization, emotion pictures, text connectives, code glosses, and validity/modality markers, was counted. The frequencies obtained were described in terms of percentages and frequencies, and then a comparison was made between the frequencies and percentages of each type of the features in the data to see if the differences are meaningful. The descriptive statistics, along with the results of the frequencies and percentages, are presented in Tables 6.1. and 6.2., respectively.

Table 6.1. presents the frequencies of the intended features in the e-mails that the participants sent to their teachers and Table 6.2. provides the reader with the information related to the mentioned features which were present in the e-mails that the subjects sent to their friends.

Table 1. The Frequencies of the Formality and Discourse Features in the Sent E-mails to Teachers

Statistics

		Opening	Closing	Reduced Forms	Text Connectives	Symbols	Code Glosses	Writing Mistakes	Emotion Pictures
N	Valid	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		.67	.57	.60	1.07	.30	1.27	.33	.00
Std. Error of Mean		.088	.092	.132	.166	.098	.209	.111	.000
Median		1.00	1.00	.00	1.00	.00	1.00	.00	.00
Mode		1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
Std. Deviation		.479	.504	.724	.907	.535	1.143	.606	.000
Variance		.230	.254	.524	.823	.286	1.306	.368	.000
Range		1	1	2	3	2	4	2	0
Minimum		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Maximum		1	1	2	3	2	4	2	0
Sum		20	17	18	32	9	38	10	0
Percentiles	25	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	50	1.00	1.00	.00	1.00	.00	1.00	.00	.00
	75	1.00	1.00	1.00	2.00	1.00	2.00	1.00	.00

Table 2. The Frequencies of the Formality and Discourse Features in the Sent E-mails to Friends

Statistics

		Opening	Closing	Reduced Forms	Text Connectives	Symbols	Code Glosses	Writing Mistakes	Emotion Pictures
N	Valid	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		.40	.33	.90	1.13	1.27	.60	1.17	.40
Std. Error of Mean		.091	.088	.162	.171	.179	.132	.192	.113
Median		.00	.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.00	1.00	.00
Mode		0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
Std. Deviation		.498	.479	.885	.937	.980	.724	1.053	.621
Variance		.248	.230	.783	.878	.961	.524	1.109	.386
Minimum		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Maximum		1	1	3	3	3	2	3	2
Sum		12	10	27	34	38	18	35	12
Percentiles	25	.00	.00	.00	.00	.75	.00	.00	.00
	50	.00	.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.00	1.00	.00
	75	1.00	1.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	1.00	2.00	1.00

As it is shown, the frequencies of all the intended features are presented in Tables 6.1. and 6.2. According to these tables, students tend to use more formal features in the e-mails sent to their teacher compared to those sent to their friends. The reason for this difference can be

explained as the teacher's higher social and educational position. For the more detailed information of those features, see the following tables.

Table 3. The Frequency and Percentage of the Formal and Informal Openings in the Sent E-mails to Teachers

Opening

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Informal	10	33.3	33.3	33.3
	Formal	20	66.7	66.7	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Table 4. The frequency and Percentage of the Formal and Informal Openings in the Sent E-mails to Friends

Opening

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Informal	18	60.0	60.0	60.0
	Formal	12	40.0	40.0	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

As shown above, the participants made use of 66.7% formal and 33.3% informal openings while writing to their teachers and 40.0% formal and 60.0%informal openings while writing to their friends.

It is worth mentioning that according to the e-mail writing rules, formal openings are "Dear and Hello" and the informal ones include "Hey, the first or the last name of the recipient without any titles, and blank openings". So, the researcher tried to classify the openings based on the same rules.

Based on the mentioned points, it can be inferred that the participants in this study used more formal language, including openings, when they wanted to address their teachers who are considered to be in a higher position but it was not the case for the e-mails the addressees of which were the participants' friends.

Table 5. The Frequency and Percentage of the Formal and Informal Closings in the Sent E-mails to Teachers

Closing

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Informal	13	43.3	43.3	43.3
	Formal	17	56.7	56.7	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Table 6. The Frequency and Percentage of the Formal and Informal Closings in the Sent E-mails to Friends

Closing

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Informal	20	66.7	66.7	66.7
	Formal	10	33.3	33.3	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

As it is shown, the participants used 56.7% formal and 43.3% informal closings while writing e-mails to their teachers but the corresponding percentages for the e-mails sent to their friends were 33.3% and 66.7% respectively.

For making a judgment about the formality and informality of the closings used in the sent e-mails, the established e-mail writing rules were again referred to. According to those rules, formal closings include "Sincerely yours, Truly yours, Best regards, …" and informal closings are "Bye, With love, Your friend, …".

The same conclusion as drawn for openings can be drawn for closings too. When the students wanted to write some e-mails to their teachers, they used the formal closings but in the cases that they wrote to their friends they made use of less formal ones.

Table 7. The Frequency and Percentage of the Reduced Forms in the Sent E-mails to Teachers

Reduced Forms

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency		
53.3	53.3	53.3	16	0	Valid
86.7	33.3	33.3	10	1	
100.0	13.3	13.3	4	2	
	100.0	100.0	30	Total	

Table 8. The Frequency and Percentage of the Reduced Forms in the Sent E-mails to Friends

Reduced Forms

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	12	40.0	40.0	40.0
	1	10	33.3	33.3	73.3
	2	7	23.3	23.3	96.7
	3	1	3.3	3.3	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

As can be seen in Tables 6.7. and 6.8., the percentage of the reduced forms in the e-mails sent to the teachers is much less than that of the reduced forms in the e-mails sent to friends. It is known that using reduced forms in any passage, including e-mail, letter, or essay, is a sign of informality of that message. Based on the figures in Tables 6.7. and 6.8., it can be concluded that students tended to use less reduced forms in their e-mails to their teachers and make use of more formal language. In the sent e-mails to their teachers, 53.3% of the participants used no reduced forms, 33.3% made use of one reduce form, and 13.3% used two reduced forms but in the sent e-mails to their friends, 40% of the participants used no reduced forms, 33.3% used one reduced form, 23.3% made use of two reduced forms, and 3.3% used three reduced forms.

Table 9. The Frequency and Percentage of Text Connectives in the Sent E-mails to Teachers

Text Connectives

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency		
30.0	30.0	30.0	9	0	Valid
70.0	40.0	40.0	12	1	
93.3	23.3	23.3	7	2	
100.0	6.7	6.7	2	3	
	100.0	100.0	30	Total	

Table 10. The Frequency and Percentage of Text Connectives in the Sent E-mails to Friends

Text Connectives

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	9	30.0	30.0	30.0
	1	10	33.3	33.3	63.3
	2	9	30.0	30.0	93.3
	3	2	6.7	6.7	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

As displayed in Tables 6.9. and 6.10., the percentage of using text connectives is different in the two types of the sent e-mails. In other words, the e-mails the recipients of which were teachers were more formal than those the recipients of which were students. In the sent e-mails to their teachers, 30% of the participants used no text connective word, 40% used one, 23.3% used two, and 6.7% made use of three text connective words but in the e-mails the recipients of which were friends, 30% of the participants used no text connective word, 33.3%used one text connective word, 30% made use of two, and 6% used three text connective words. Bearing in mind that using the text connectives is another sign of formality, the drawn conclusion is that the sent e-mails to the teachers were more formal than those sent to the friends.

Table 11. The Frequency and Percentage of Symbols in the Sent E-mails to Teachers

Symbols

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	22	73.3	73.3	73.3
	1	7	23.3	23.3	96.7
	2	1	3.3	3.3	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Table 12. The Frequency and Percentage of Symbols in the Sent E-mails to Friends

Symbols

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	7	23.3	23.3	23.3
	1	12	40.0	40.0	63.3
	2	7	23.3	23.3	86.7
	3	4	13.3	13.3	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

From the information presented in the Tables 6.11. and 6.12., it can be concluded that the percentage of the symbols in the sent e-mails to friends is much higher than that of the sent e-mails to teachers. In other words, 73.3% of the participants did not use any symbol in the e-mails they sent to their teachers, 23.3% used one and 3.3% used two symbols but when writing to their friends, 23.3% used no symbol, 40% used one, 23.3% two, and 13.3% used three symbols. Therefore, the e-mails sent to friends were less formal than those sent to teachers.

Table 13. The Frequency and Percentage of the Code Glosses in the Sent E-mails to Teachers

Code Glosses

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	10	33.3	33.3	33.3
	1	7	23.3	23.3	56.7
	2	9	30.0	30.0	86.7
	3	3	10.0	10.0	96.7
	4	1	3.3	3.3	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Table 14. The Frequency and Percentage of the Code Glosses in the Sent E-mails to Friends

Code Glosses

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	16	53.3	53.3	53.3
	1	10	33.3	33.3	86.7
	2	4	13.3	13.3	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

A comparison between Tables 6.13. and 6.14. reveals the same fact as that of the previous tables. In the cases that their teachers were the recipients of the e-mails, 33.3% used no code glosses, 23.3% used one, 30% made use of two, 10% use three, and 3.3% made use of four code glosses but when their friends were the recipients of the e-mails, 53.3% of the participants used no code gloss, 23.3% used one, and 13.3%made use of two code glosses. As mentioned in the beginning part of this chapter, code glosses indicate the formality of any messages and in this case they show that students were more formal in writing to their teachers than their friends.

Table 15. The Frequency and Percentage of the Writing Mistakes in the Sent E-mails to Teachers

Writing Mistakes

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	22	73.3	73.3	73.3
	1	6	20.0	20.0	93.3
	2	2	6.7	6.7	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Table 16. The Frequency and Percentage of the Writing Mistakes in the Sent E-mails to Friends

Writing Mistakes

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	11	36.7	36.7	36.7
	1	6	20.0	20.0	56.7
	2	10	33.3	33.3	90.0
	3	3	10.0	10.0	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

As can be seen in Tables 6.15. and 6.16., the percentage of the writing mistakes in the e-mails sent to the teachers is much less than that of the reduced forms in the e-mails sent to friends. It is known that the presence of writing mistakes in any passage, including e-mail, letter, or essay, is a sign of informality of that message. When the participants wanted to write to their teachers, 73.3% had no writing mistake, 20% had one, and 6.7% had two writing mistakes but in the cases that they wanted to write to their friends, 36.7% had no writing mistake, 20%had one, 33.3%had two, and 10%had three writing mistakes. Based on the results presented in Tables 4.15. and 4.16., it can be concluded that students had less writing mistakes in their e-mails to their teachers than in their e-mails to their friends. In fact, in writing to teachers they were more careful and made use of more formal language.

Table 17. The Frequency and Percent of the Emotion Pictures in the Sent E-mails to Teachers

Emotion Pictures

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	30	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 18. The Frequency and Percent of the Emotion Pictures in the Sent E-mails to Friends

Emotion Pictures

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	20	66.7	66.7	66.7
	1	8	26.7	26.7	93.3
	2	2	6.7	6.7	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

As shown in Tables 6.17 and 6.18, none of the participants used the emotion pictures in their e-mails sent to their teachers but some of them made use of those pictures in their e-mails to their friends. In fact, when the participants' recipients were their friends, 66.7% used no emotion picture, 26.7% made use of one, and 6.7% used two emotion pictures.

Based on all of the presented figures above, it can be inferred that the participants oblige themselves to send more formal e-mails to their teacher as a way of respecting him as a person with a higher position. In other words, in terms of formality markers and discourse features, a significant difference between the two groups of emails was observed.

Discussion

It was stated in the first null hypothesis that there is not any difference between the e-mails sent to teachers and those sent to peers in terms of formality. In order to examine this null hypothesis, the frequencies related to the intended writing features were described in terms of percentages and frequencies and then a comparison was made between the frequencies and percentages of each type of the features in the data and the results led to the rejection of this null hypothesis. In fact, it was concluded that there is a significant difference between those two types of sent e-mails. In other words, the participants appeared to make use of quite different styles in writing e-mails to their teachers and friends in the sense that they used more formal words and expressions in the e-mails sent to their teachers than those sent to their peers. In this way, the first null hypothesis was rejected. The most convincing explanation for such a finding may come from the works of Chen, 2006; Danet, 2001; and Herring 2002. They contend that students are aware of stylistic differences required in e-mail communication with authority figures as opposed to peers and in the most cases they try their best to send formal e-mails to their teachers, some formal e-mails in which the social distance is quite obvious.

Herring (1994) states that one of the features of educational settings that differs from interactions between friends or peers, is the frequent presence of a status and thus a power differential between those interacting. The presence of a power differential in an educational setting would also be expected to elicit polite language. Politeness has been conceptualized as a strategy to minimize face threat that may be mediated by the interpersonal variables of relative power and relationship distance, together with the degree of imposition when a request is made.

Therefore, it can be claimed that the findings of this study lend support to Danet's speculations (2001) that "the relative status of addressor and addressee influences linguistic choice: messages addressed upward tend to be more formal, more polite, and more conforming with conventional norms" (p. 65).

Conclusion

The following conclusions can be drawn from the investigation made in the present study.

Firstly, it was hypothesized at the beginning of the study that there is no difference between the e-mails sent to teachers and those sent to friends. However, the obtained results show that there is a considerable difference between the above mentioned e-mails. The higher the recipient's social rank, the more formal the e-mails are. (see Table 1.). These findings lead us to conclude that social distance and closeness play a very important role in e-mail writing. In fact, the e-mail sender selects the linguistic forms and styles based on the recipient's social status. If the recipient is in a higher position to the sender and they are socially distant from each other, the sender makes use of formal language. Otherwise, some less formal structures and lexical items are used.

Secondly, it can be claimed, based on the results of the present study, that Iranian language learners have a limited awareness of the standard ways of writing e-mails. According to e-mail writing rules, e-mails sent to some authority figures who are considered to be busy and pressed in time should be as short as possible but the results of this study suggest that not only it is not the case among Iranian EFL learners, but their e-mails sent to their teachers are much longer than those sent to their friends. In other words, they usually tried to paraphrase their sentences in the sent e-mails to teachers.

References

Abdullah, M. H. (1998). Electronic discourse: Evolving conventions in online academic environments. ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading, English and Communication, ED422593.

Atamian, R., & DeMoville, W. (1998). Office hours -- none: An e-mail experiment. College Teaching, *46*(1), 31-35.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2001). Evaluating the empirical evidence: Grounds in instruction in pragmatics? In K. R. Rose & G. Kasper (Eds.), Pragmatics in language teaching (pp. 13-32). Cambridge: CambridgeUniversity Press.

Bardovi- Harlig, K., &Hartford, B. (1990). Congruence in native and nonnative conversations: Status balance in the academic advising session. Language Learning, *40*(4), 467-501.

Bardovi- Harlig, K., &Hartford, B. (1993). Learning the rules of academic talk: A longitudinal study of pragmatic development. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, *15*, 279-304.

Baron, N.S. (1998). Letters by phone or speech by other means: The linguistics of e-mail. Language and communication, *18*, 133-170. A

Baron, N. S. (2000). Alphabet to e-mail: How written English evolved and where it's heading. New York: Routledge.

Barrett E. & Lally V. (1999) Gender differences in an online learning environment. Journal of Computer Assisted Learning *15*, 48–60.

Beebe, L. M., & Cummings, M. C. (1996). Natural speech act data versus written questionnaire data: How data collection method affects speech act performance. In S. M. Gass & J. Neu (Eds.), Speech acts across cultures (pp. 65-86). New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

Beebe, L. M., Takahashi, T., & Uliss-Weltz, R. (1990). Pragmatic transfer in ESL refusals. In R. Scarcella, E. Andersen, & S. D. Krashen (Eds.), On the development of communicative competence in a second language (pp. 55-73). New York: Newbury House.

Benbunan-Fich, R., & Hiltz, S. R. (1999). Impacts of asynchronous learning networks on individual and group problem solving: A field experiment. Group Decision and Negotiation, *8,* 409-426.

Biesenbach-Lucas, S. & Weasenforth, D. (2000). E-maul and word processingin the ESL: How the medium affects the message. Language, Learning and Technology, 5, 133-165.

Billmyer, K. (1990). "I really like your lifestyle": ESL Learners learning how to compliment. Working Papers in Educational Linguistics, *6*(2), 31-48.

Bloch, J. (2002). Student/teacher interaction via email: The social context of Internet discourse. Journal of Second Language Writing, *11*, 117-134.

Blum-Kulka, S, House, J, & Kasper, G. (1989). Cross cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies. Norwood, N J: Alblex.

Booher, D. (2001). E-writing: 21st century tools for effective communication. New York: Pocket Books. A

Bou-Franch, P., & Lorenzo-Dus, N. (2005). Enough DCTs: Moving methodological debate in pragmatics into the 21st century. Paper presented at the 16th International Conference on Pragmatics and Language Learning, Bloomington, IN.

Boxer, D. (2002a). Applying sociolinguistics: Domains and face-to-face interaction. Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Boxer, D. (2002b). Discourse issues in cross-cultural pragmatics. Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, *22*, 150-167.

Brenner, K. (2006). A course in writing business e-mail. Essential Teacher, 3(2), 46-49.

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1978). Universals of language use: Politeness phenomena. In E. Goody (Ed.), Questions and politeness (pp. 56-324). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1987). Politeness: Some universals in language use. Cambridge: CambridgeUniversity press.

Cameron, D. (2003). Globalizing "communication". In J. Aitchison & D. M. Lewis (Eds.), New media language (pp. 27-35). New York: Routledge.

Chapman, D. (1997). A comparison of oral and e-mail discourse in Japanese as a second Language. On Call, 11, 31-39.

Chi-Fen Emily Chen. (2006). The development of e-mail literacy. Language, Learning & Technology, 10, 35-55.

Cohen, A., & Olshtain, E. (1993). The production of speech acts by EFL learners. TESOL Quarterly, 27(1), 33-56.

Colley A. & Todd Z. (2002) Gender-linked differences in the style and content of e-mails to friends. Journal of Language and Social Psychology *21*, 380–392.

Colley A., Todd Z., Bland M., Holmes M., Khanom N. & Pike H. (2004) Style and content in e-mails and letters to male and female friends. Journal of Language and Social Psychology *23*, 369–378.

Collins, M. (1998). The use of email and electronic bulletin boards in college-level biology. Journal of Computers in Mathematics and Science Teaching, *17*(1), 75-94.

Crystal, D. (2001). Language and the Internet. Cambridge: CambridgeUniversity Press.

Davis, B., & Brewer, J. (1997). Electronic discourse. Albany, NY: StateUniversity of New York.

Drake, B., Yuthas, K., & Dillard, J. F. (2000). It's only words – Impacts of information technology on moral dialogue. Journal of Business Ethics, *23*(1), 41-59.

DuFon, M. A. (2003). Gift giving in Indonesian: A model for teaching pragmatic routines in the foreign language classroom of the less commonly taught languages. In A. Martínez Flor, E. Usó Juan, & A.

Crystal, D. (2001). Language and the Internet. Cambridge: CambridgeUniversity Press.

Cummins, J. & Sayers, D. (1995). Brave New Schools: Challenging cultural literacy through global learning networks. New York: St. Martin's Press.

Fairclough, N. (1995). Critical discourse analysis: The critical study of language. New York: Longman.

Flynn, N. & Flynn, T. (2003). Writing effective e-mail: Improving your electronic communication. Menlo Park, CA: Crisp Publications.

Fraser, B., & Nolen, W. (1981). The association of deference with linguistic form. International Journal of the Sociology of Language, *27*, 93-109.

Gee, J. P. (2002). Literacies, identities, and discourses. In M. J. Schleppegrell & M. C. Colombi (Eds.), Developing advanced literacy in first and second languages: Meaning with power (pp. 159-175). Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Hale, C., & Scanlon, J. (1999). Wired style: Principles of English usage in the digital age. New York: Broadway Books.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1990). Spoken and written language. Oxford: OxfordUniversity Press.

Hartford, B., & Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1992). Experimental and observational data in the study of interlanguage pragmatics. In L. F. Bouton (Ed.), Pragmatics and language learning. Volume 3 (pp. 33-52). Urbana, IL: DEIL.

Hartford, B., & Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1996). "At your earliest convenience": A study of written student requests to faculty. In L. F. Bouton (Ed.), Pragmatics and language learning. Monograph Series Volume7 (pp. 55-69). Urbana, IL: DEIL.

Haworth, B. (1999). An analysis of the determinants of student e-mail use. Journal of Education for Business, *75*(1), 55-59.

Hendriks V. & Maor D. (2004) Quality of students' communicative strategies delivered through computer-mediated discussions. Journal of Interactive Learning Research 15, 5-32.

Herring, S.C. (1994) Politeness in computer culture: why women thank and men flame. In Communication in, Through and Across Cultures: Proceedings of the Third Berkeley Women and Language Group (eds M).

Bucholtz, A. Liang & L. Sutton), pp. 278–294. Berkeley Women and Language Group, Berkeley, CA.

Herring, S.C. (1996). Computer-mediated communication: Linguistic, social, and cross-cultural Perspectives. Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Herring, S. C. (2002). Computer-mediated communication on the Internet. Annual Review of Information, Science and Technology, *36*, 109-168.

House, J. (1989). Politeness in English and German: The functions of please and bitte. In S. Blum-Kulka, J. House, & G. Kasper (Eds.), Cross-Cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies (pp. 96-122). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

House, J. (2003). Teaching and learning pragmatic fluency in a foreign language: The case of English as a lingua franca. In A. Martínez Flor, E. Usó Juan, & A. Fernández Guerra (Eds.), Pragmatic competence and foreign language teaching (pp. 133-159). Castelló de la Plana, Spain: Publicacions de la Universitat Jaume I.

Hudson, Richard, A. (1980). Sociolinguistics. CambridgeUniversity Press.

Iwai, C., & Rinnert, C. (2001). Cross-cultural comparison of strategic realization of pragmatic competence: Implications for learning world Englishes. Hiroshima Journal of International Studies, 7, 157-181.

Judd, E. L. (1999). Some issues in the teaching of pragmatic competence. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), Culture in second language teaching and learning (pp. 152-166). Cambridge: CambridgeUniversity Press.

Kasper, G. (1992). Pragmatic transfer. Second Language Research, 8, 203-231.

Kasper, G. (2001). Classroom research on interlanguage pragmatics. In K. R. Rose & G. Kasper (Eds.), Pragmatics in language teaching (pp. 33-60). Cambridge: CambridgeUniversity Press.

Kim, M. S., & Bresnahan, M. (1994). A process model of request tactic evaluation. Discourse Processes, 18, 317-344.

Kirkley, S. E., Savery, J. R., & Grabner-Hagen, M. M. (1998). Electronic teaching: Extending classroom dialogue and assistance through e-mail communication. In C. Bonk & K. King (Eds.), Electronic collaborators (pp. 209-232). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Kling, R. (1996). Social relationships in electronic forums: Hangouts, salons, workplaces, and communities. San Diego, CA; Academic Press.

Lakoff R. (1975) Language and a Woman's Place. Harper &Row, New York.

Lapp, S. (2000). Using e-mail dialogue to generate communication in an English as a second language classroom. Australian Journal of Language and Literacy, 23, 50-60.

Li, Y. (2000). Linguistic characteristics of ESL writing in task-based e-mail activities. System, 28, 229-245.

Li, Y. (2000). Surfing e-mails. English Today, 16(4), 30-34, 55.

Liaw, M-L. (1998). Using electronic mail for English as a foreign language instruction. System, 26, 335-351.

Mackey, D. (2005). Send me a message: A step-by-step approach to business and professional writing. New York: McGraw Hill.

Malley, S. B. (2006). Whose digital literacy it is, anyway? Essential Teacher, 3(2), 50-52.

Marbach-Ad, G., & Sokolove, P. (2001). Creating direct channels of communication: Fostering interaction with e-mail and in-class notes. Journal of College Science Teaching, 31(3), 178-182.

Martin, M. M., Myers, S. A., & Mottet, T. P. (1999). Students' motives for communicating with their instructors. Communication Education, 48, 157-164.

Murphy, B., & Neu, J. (1996). My grade's too low: The speech act set of complaining. In S. M. Gass & J. Neu (Eds.), Speech acts across cultures: Challenges to communication in second language (pp. 191-216). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Murray, D. E. (1988). The context of oral and written language: A framework for mode and medium switching. Language in Society, 17, 351-373.

Murray, D. E. (1995). Knowledge Machines: Language and information in a technological society. New York: Longman.

Pennington, M. (1996). The computer and the non-native writer: A natural partnership. Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.

Poling, D. J. (1994). E-mail as an effective teaching supplement. Educational Technology, 34(5), 53-55.

Rinnert, C., & Kobayashi, H. (1999). Requestive hints in Japanese and English. Journal of Pragmatics, 31, 1173-1201.

Rose, K. R. (1996). American English, Japanese, and directness: More than stereotypes. JALT Journal, 18(1), 67-80.

Rose, K. R. (1999). Teachers and students learning about requests in Hong Kong. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), Culture in second language teaching and learning (pp. 167-180). Cambridge: CambridgeUniversity Press.

Rosen E.F. & Petty L.C. (1997) Using Internet resources in a research methods course. Behavior Research Methods, Instruments and Computers 29, 222–227.

Rubin D.L. & Greene K. (1992) Gender typical style in written language. Research in the Teaching of English 26, 7–40.

Shetzer, H. (1998). Critical reflection on the use of e-mail in teaching English as a second language. Unpublishes master's thesis, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. Retrieved June 14, 1999, from http://www.internetsmart.com/shetzer97/

Spears, R., & Lea, M. (1992). Social influence and the influence of the "social" in computer-mediated communication. In M. Lea (Ed.), Contexts of computer-mediated communication (pp. 30-65). London: Harvester Wheatsheaf.

Sproull, L., & Kiessler, S. (1986). Reducing social context clues: Electronic mail in organizational communication. Management Science, 32(11), 1492-1512.

Sproull, L., & Kiessler, S. (1991). Connections: New ways of working in the networked organization. Boston: MIT Press.

Stocks T.J. & Freddolino P. (2000) Enhancing computer mediated teaching through interactivity. The second iteration of a World Wide Web-based graduate social work course. Research on Social Work Practice 10, 505–518.

Swales, J. M., & Feak, C. B. (2000). English in today's research world: A writing guide. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Tait, A. (1999). Face-to-face and at a distance: The mediation of guidance and counseling through the new technologies. British Journal of Guidance and Counselling, *27*(1), 113-122.

Tannen D. (1990) You Just Don't Understand: Women and Men in Conversation. William Morrow, New York.

Thomson R. & Murachver T. (2001) Predicting gender from electronic discourse. British Journal of Social Psychology *40*, 193–208.

Trosborg, A. (1995). Interlanguage pragmatics: Requests, complaints and apologies. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Warschauer, M. (1999). Electronic literacies: Language, culture, and power in online education. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Weasenforth, D., & Biesenbach-Lucas, S. (2001). Just a little bit longer: A contrastive pragmatic analysis of requests for late submission. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Association of Applied Linguistics, St. Louis, MO.

Weitzman, E. (1989). Requestive hints. In S. Blum-Kulka, J. House, & G. Kasper (Eds.), Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies (pp. 71-95). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Weitzman, E. (1993). Interlanguage requestive hints. In G. Kasper and S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), Interlanguage pragmatics (pp. 123-137). Oxford: OxfordUniversity Press.

Worrels, D. S. (2002). Asynchronous distance learning: E-mail attachments used as the medium for assigned coursework. Atea Journal, 29(2), 4-6.