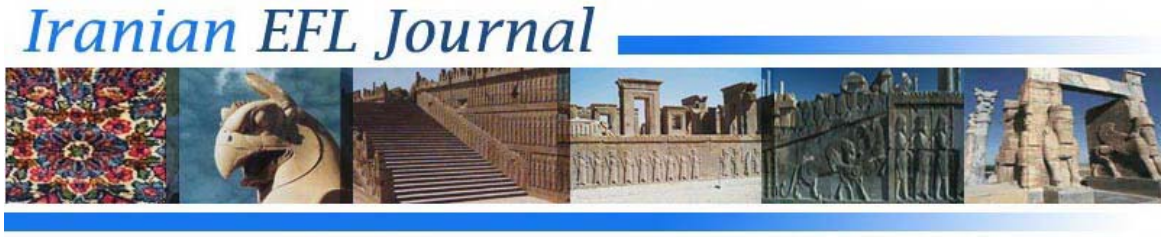


ISSN On-line: 1836-8751
ISSN Print: 1836-8743

The Iranian EFL Journal

August 2011

Volume 7

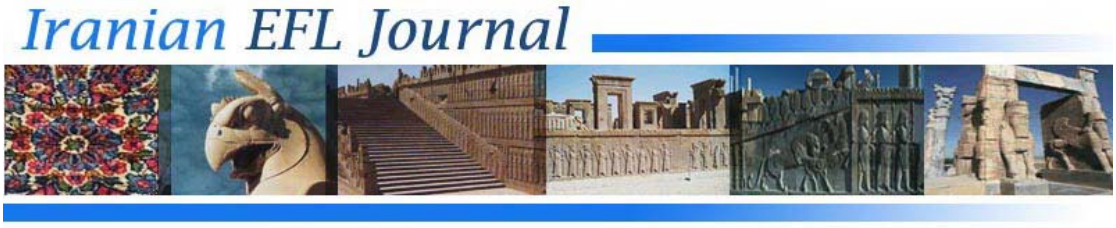
Issue 4

Chief Editors:

Dr. Paul Robertson

Dr. Rajabali Askarzadeh Torghabeh

The Iranian EFL Journal August 2011 Volume 7 Issue 4



Publisher

Dr. Paul Robertson

Time Taylor International Ltd.

Senior Associate Editor

Dr. Rajabali Askarzadeh Torghabeh

Ferdowsi University of Mashhad

Mashhad, Iran

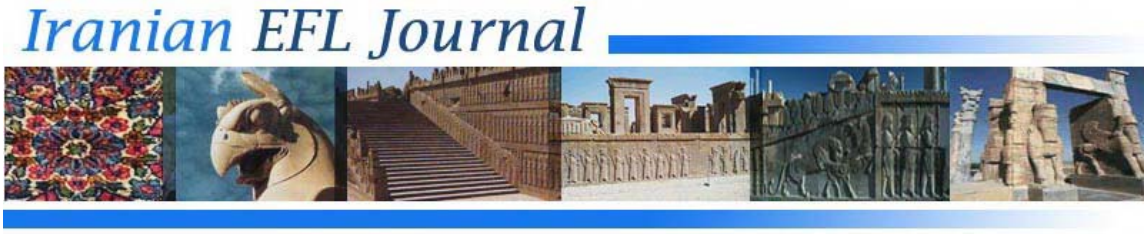
Dr. Roger Nunn The Petroleum Institute Abu Dhabi UAE	Dr. John Adamson Shinshu Honan College Japan	Professor Dr. Z.N. Patil Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages Hyderabad, India
	Senior Statesmen	
	Professor Rod Ellis University of Auckland New Zealand	

	Associate Editors	
Professor Dr. Dan Douglas Iowa State University USA	Dr. Reza Pishghadam Ferdowsi university of Mashhad Mashhad, Iran	Dr. Behzad Ghonsooly Ferdowsi University of Mashhad Mashhad, Iran
Prof. Dr. Rana Nayar Panjab University India	Dr. Abdolmahdy Riazi Shirza University Iran	Dr. Salmani Nodushan University of Zanjan Iran

Editorial team

Dr. Pourya Baghaii Azad University of Mashhad Iran	Dr. Zohre Eslami Rasekh Texas A & M University USA	Dr. Azizullah Fatahi Shar-e Kord University Iran
Dr. Mohammad Reza Hashemi Ferdowsi University of Mashhad Mashhad, Iran	Dr. Parvaneh Tavakoli London Metropolitan University England	Dr. Seyyed Ayatollah Razmju Shiraz University Iran
Dr. Shamala Paramasivam University of Putra Malaysia	Dr. Manizheh Yuhannaee University of Isfahan Iran	Dr. Antony Fenton Soka University Japan
Dr. Esma'eel Abdollahzadeh Iran University of Science and Technology Iran	Dr. Ingrid Mosquera Gende Bettatur University College of Tourism Tarragona Spain	Dr. Rajabali Askarzadeh Torghabeh Ferdowsi University of Mashhad Mashhad, Iran
Dr. Christopher Alexander University of Nicosia Cyprus	Dr. Ali Khazaee Farid Ferdowsi University of Mashhad Mashhad, Iran	Dr. Abbas Zare'ee Kashan University Iran

The Iranian EFL Journal August 2011 Volume 7 Issue 4



The Iranian EFL Journal Press
A Division of Time Taylor Publishers
QC Pavilion
Cebu

http://www.Iranian-efl-journal.com
Iranian.efljournal@yahoo.com

This E book is in copyright.

No reproduction may take place without
the express written permission of the
Iranian EFL Journal

No unauthorized copying

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means electronic, mechanical, photocopying or otherwise, without the prior written permission of the Iranian EFL Journal.

Chief Editor: Dr. Paul Robertson
Senior Associate Editor:
Dr. Rajabali Askarzadeh Torghabeh,
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad,
Mashhad, Iran.

ISSN On-line: 1836-8751
ISSN Print: 1836-8743

The Iranian EFL Journal August 2011 Volume 7 Issue 4

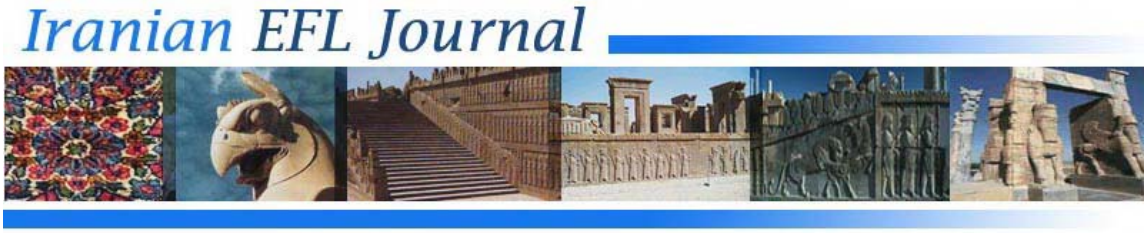
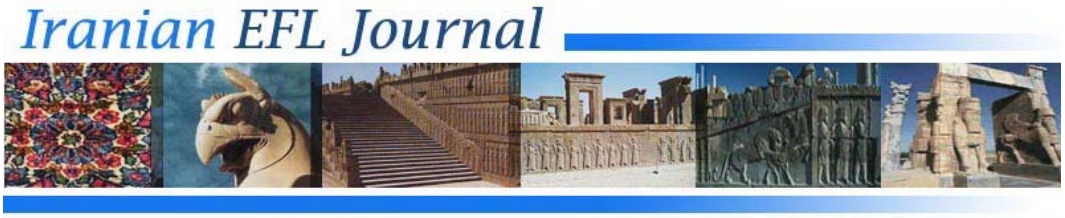
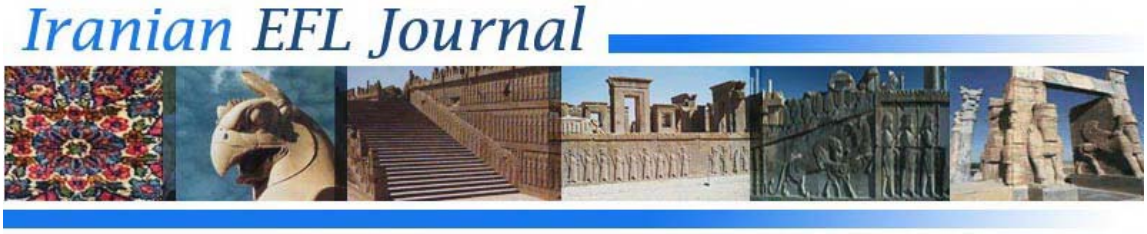


Table of Contents



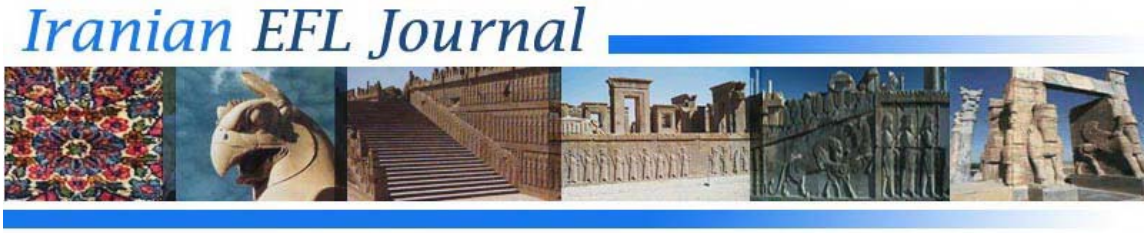


Foreword

Welcome to the fourth edition of the year 2011. The Iranian EFL Journal is a bi-monthly journal from 2011, and this has created a golden opportunity for its 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 fourth issue of volume 7 we present 15 articles for your reading. In the first article, Behzad Ghonsooly, Khalil Ghazizadeh and Rahil Sheibani have done a research on genre-based analysis of English patient information leaflets (PILs) and examining the reading strategies used by skilled and novice readers in eading PILs. In the second article, acquisition of resumptive pronouns in interrogative embedded clauses by Persian learners of English is explored by Mohammad Javad Rezai. In the third article, the impact of background classical music on teaching reading comprehension to Iranian EFL learners: the effect of Mozart sonata on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension learning and performance is presented by Farman Faham. The fourth article which discusses the relationship between spelling and fluency in EFL writings: a study based on the AIMS six trait analytic writing rubric – official scoring guide is presented by Farimah Farrahi Moghaddam. In the fifth article, Zahra Fakher Ajabshir, has studied the evaluation of "English for the students of management" written by, Farhad Moshfeghi. In the sixth article, Anita Vali Mohammadi and Mohammad Sadegh Bagheri, have studied the relationship between emotional intelligence, motivation and the vocabulary size of EFL students. In the seventh article, the relationship between Reid's learning styles and Oxford's language learning strategies in adult EFL learners of Iran Language Institute is studied by Maryam Salehi and Mohamad Sadegh Bagheri. In the eighth article of the issue, comparative genre analysis of newspaper editorials across English and Persian is done by Hamid Allami and Zohreh Shiamizadeh. In the ninth article of the issue, Gholam-Reza Abbasian and Esmaeil Hassan Oghli have discussed the evaluation of Iranian EFL textbooks: a study of learner- teacher's criteria compatibility). In the tenth article of the issue, investigating the primacy of aspect in the performance of Iranian EFL learners is done by Mohammad Ali Farsidoust, Firooz. Sadighi and Mahboobeh Saadat. In the next article, reconsidering speed test with a focus on grammar, is done by Kamal Heidari Soureshjani. In the next article, on the role of consciousness-raising tasks in learning grammar: a learner perspective, is studied by Abbas Ali Rezaei and Rasoul Mohammad Hosseinpur. In the next article, the acquisition of English locative constructions by Persian speakers: syntax-semantic interface, is done by Mohammad Javad Rezai and Saeedeh Avand. In the next article of the issue, Fatemeh Pourjafari discusses a comparative study from ancient fatalism to modern determinism. And in the last article of the issue, Mahbube Keihaniyan, presents teaching methodology, motivation, and test anxiety: comparison of Iranian English private institute and high School.

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

The Iranian EFL Journal August 2011 Volume 7 Issue 4



Title

Genre-based Analysis of English Patient Information Leaflets (PILs) and Examining the Reading Strategies Used by Skilled and Novice Readers in Reading PILs

Authors

Behzad Ghonsooly (Ph.D.)
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran

Khalil Ghazizadeh (Ph.D.)
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran

Rahil Sheibani (M.A)
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran

Bio data

Behzad Ghonsooly associate professor in the Department of English, Ferdowsi University, of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran. His main research interests are language testing, ESP, and translation studies.

Khalil Ghazizadeh assistant professor in the Department of English, Ferdowsi University, of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran. His main research interests linguistics and translation studies.

Rahil Sheibani holds an M.A. in TEFL. She is currently teaching at high schools in Shiraz, Iran.

Abstract

This study sought to identify the rhetorical structures of Patient Information Leaflets (PILs), and also explored the reading strategies utilized by skilled and novice readers

in reading this kind of text. This study was conducted in two phases; the genre analysis phase aimed at identifying the macro- and micro-structure of PILs; the microstructure analysis was done at two levels of move and step. In this phase, 30 English PILs were analyzed. The second phase tried to explore reading strategies used by readers possessing different reading abilities. Think-aloud procedure was used to study the use of different reading strategies. The results of the first phase indicated that PILs are composed of 17 sections, and each section has its own particular move-step framework. The second phase showed that skilled readers used more reading strategies than the novice. The highest utilized category of strategies among both groups was word processing strategy. Moreover, the skilled group paid more attention to higher-level processing strategies than the novice group. In addition to this, they paid attention to word and sentence level meaning simultaneously.

Keywords*:* Genre, Move, Step, Reading strategies, Think-aloud procedure

Introduction

Genre analysis has attracted so much attention since the early 1980. Genre, which has traditionally been a literary concept, has recently become a popular framework for analyzing the form and rhetorical function of non-literary discourse (Candlin, 1993). Linguistics and language teachers have tried to apply genre-centered-approaches to the analysis of written and spoken discourse in order to provide satisfactory models and descriptions for academic and scientific text and also help non-native speaker students to enhance their ability of understanding and proper production of text (Dudley- Evans, 1986).

Swales (1990) asserted that genre analysis essentially is based on two central assumptions. First, the feature of a similar group of text depends on the social context of their creation and use. Second, those features can be described in a way that relates a text to other texts like it. He introduced two other concepts, move and step, in the field of genre analysis. Move is a seminal unit relevant to the writer's purpose. Steps spell out more specifically the rhetorical means of realizing the function of move, the set of steps for a move is the set of rhetorical choices.

Swales' (1990) model has attracted the attention of the researchers working on medical genre (Nwogu, 1997; Samarj, 2000). But except medical research articles the other types of medical text have been ignored. Conducting ample of researches (Nwogu, 1997; Rezaei &

Sayfouri, 2009; Samarj, 2000; Williams, 1999) on medical research articles is an obvious evidence for the importance of these kinds of texts; other medical texts like medical brochures, patient information leaflets (PILs), drug labels, and medical postures get less attention. Because of their large number of intended audience and the importance of their content, PILs are considered to be one of the most important text types in the field of medicine. It is surprising that this kind of text genre has got no attention up to now. So, the present study is a genre-based analysis of PILs which focuses on the identification of their rhetorical structure.

On the other hand, the role of genre in reading comprehension is not deniable. Readers' awareness of the text genre may accelerate their reading comprehension. Identifying the reading strategies EFL learners with different levels of proficiency utilize to read PILs would shed light on the relation of reading strategies and the genre of PILs.

Most of written texts and more especially the scientific data and research articles are presented in English. In order to yield this information, reading is the most beneficial tool. Yalcin and Sengul (2004) mentioned that students should catch up with the changing world, so they are supposed to be lifelong learners. Without supportive skills of reading comprehension, ideal level of learning may not be reached. Reading is an active and complex process; it is a 'cognitive process' both in L1 and L2. This skill is an interaction among the reader, the text and the context in which the reading takes place (Flavel, 1979). However, readers with different reading abilities may use different strategies to read a text. Paris and Jacobs (1984) tried to differentiate between skilled and novice readers. Skilled readers often are engaged in deliberate activities which need planful thinking, flexible strategies and periodic self-monitoring, while novice readers seem to be inattentive to these effective strategies. Moreover, proficient L2 readers can compensate for the lack of English proficiency by increasing awareness and usage of reading strategies to reinforce their understanding (Carrell, 1991). According to Baker and Brown (1984) and Klatzien (1991), poor readers are generally deficient in reading skills and using strategies, while the skilled readers are able to reflect and monitor their own cognitive processes in reading. Skilled readers are not only aware of which strategies to use, but also tend to be better at regulating the use of strategies while reading.

This study aims at identifying the generic structure of PILS and exploring the reading strategies of novice and skilled readers in reading PILS through think-aloud procedure (Ericsson, 2002).

Method

Corpus

To analyze the generic structure of PILs, 30 PILs were collected. These PILs were gathered from pharmacies in Mashhad. According to the aim of the study the sample is restricted to PILs which are written in English, not the translated version. Translated PILs were counted out to prevent probable effect of translation on the rhetorical structure of the material. In collecting the corpus, it was emphasized to select the PILs from best-selling drugs; this is proved in accordance with the pharmacists' assertion.

Analytical Framework

The genre analysis model that is applied as the rhetorical framework for this study is Swales' (1990) model. The analysis of the material based on the analytical framework was administered in two parts: analysis of the macrostructure division in a text, and identifying comprising moves and steps of these identified macrostructures of the PILs.

Macrostructure is a significant aspect of discourse which co-occurs with other discourse structures in a text; it is the sequences of a text. The macrostructure of this study is the fundamental sections of the PILs. Move is the next structural division down this hierarchy. As Holmes (1997, p. 325) defines, move is "a segment of text that is shaped and constrained by specific communicative purpose". Each move is consisted of a number of elements or steps that are combined to constitute information in the move.

Data analysis

In analyzing both the macrostructure and move structure the concept of communicative purpose is central. To analyze the macrostructure, PILs were carefully read and the communicative purpose of each section was noted. It was tried not to impose any specific standard framework on the corpus, rather a descriptive norm that includes all PILs' structures was used. For Analyzing Move-Step Structure each macrostructural section found in the first stage of the analysis was analyzed in order to detect its move structure. The main concern is

to demonstrate the discovered structure in relation to what the text was rhetorically trying to achieve. Bhatia (1993) declared that in spite of the fact that surface signals are fairly valid indicators of discourse functions, the final criteria for attributing discourse values is functional rather than formal. So, the accuracy of these signals is judged against the function of each move in the overall section. Identifying the boundaries facilitates move identification.

Participants

The 2nd phase of the present study concerns qualitative study of reading strategies. The first task to accomplish is the selection of participants for this part of study. Six subjects were chosen to attend the experiment, three as expert group and three as novice group. The participants are EFL students of Ferdowsi University of Mashhad. From among these students the novice and skilled readers were selected. The criterion used to make this distinction and classifying them as novice and skilled readers was a Reading Paper of TOEFL test.

Two groups of equal size are required to achieve a valid and plausible analysis and comparison. Having 3 subjects in each group for think-aloud experiment is a convenient choice, because it seems to produce a sufficient body of evidence to enable the researcher to draw any conclusion from the outcome of the study. The participants were selected from 2 groups according to their university levels, B.A. and M.A. Based on their performance on Reading Paper of the TOEFL test, the top 3 scores among M.A. students were categorized as skilled group and the 3 lowest scores among B.A. students were classified as novice readers group. The participants who are selected through the reading proficiency assessment are tested through think-aloud protocol technique. The participants are supposed to give a verbal report of their mental processes they undergo at the time they are engaged in some cognitive activity. Think-aloud protocol analysis demands participants who are eloquent and able to articulate a clear account of their thought processes.

Choosing Text

One of the PILs analyzed in the present study is selected as the text for think-aloud protocol experiment. To do a proper selection, at first, leaflets that possess all identified sections in macrostructural analysis are distinguished. Then, among these PILs, the one that contains all identified moves was selected; in addition some physical factors such as font, text color, and

transparency of the paper were taken into account in order to prevent their probable hindrance in reading.

Procedure

Pre-Think-aloud Training

Before reading the text, necessary information about the test was provided. As subjects were unfamiliar with the nature of the task, general purposes of the study and what they were required to do was explained. They were told about the main purpose of the test that is to understand their thought processes when they are engaged in reading task. They were asked to verbalize as much of their thought processes as possible.

Segmentation

The first task to accomplish analysis is segmentation of the informants' verbalization. As Ghonsooly's (1997) model signifies, there is no syntactical rule for segmenting utterances at phrasal level or sentential level. The segmentation is based on the pauses in utterance

The next step is coding these identified segmentations. This point should be taken into account that each segment may interrelate with its following or preceding segment; so they should not be coded in isolation. As Ghonsooly (1997) noted, first the broader context should be considered in identifying strategies, because sometimes one segment in isolation indicates a particular strategy, while in combination of segments may correspond to another strategy.

Response Classification Scheme

An important task following verbal report recording and transcription is categorizing strategies used by informants based on some general framework or "response classification scheme". By this scheme researcher can categorize, compare, and contrast the identified strategies. The key aims of the study are to recognize the reading strategies used by different readers, to compare and contrast the frequency of utilizing these strategies by the skilled and the novice readers, beside distribution of these strategies in different sections. Ghonsooly's (2003) scheme is used in the present study. By this scheme "higher-level "and "lower-level" strategies can be separated. This scheme is presented in the following table.

Table1.Classification of Processing Strategies

Higher-order Strategies
Using Prior Knowledge Using Background Knowledge
Metacognition Paraphrasing Identifying Problems Adjusting Rate Skipping Difficult Sections Skipping Trivial Sections
Inferencing Reprocessing at Sentence Level Reprocessing at Phrase Level Guessing Watchers Finding Key Words
Lower-order Strategies
Word Recognition Decoding Using Dictionary Repeating Words Correcting Pronunciation L1 Equivalent Search Word for Word Translations
Syntactic processing Morphological Analysis Syntactical Analysis
Cognitive/Affective Responses
Cognitive Responses Self-directed Questioning Commenting on Process
Affective Responses Emotive Responses

Results

Macrostructure analysis

PIL embodies crucial information across different issues to aid and guide their intended readers. These materials are categorized in different sections. They are presented under specified headings based on their subject matter, so readers can move easily through the text and find their required information. As the table below demonstrates, there are 17 sections in

PILs. Each section presents specific content information to the readers, which are analyzed and reported in separate tables in the next coming parts. These sections are considered as PILs macrostructure. Like the title format and the content rhetorical structure, the section arrangements are also different across the corpus. Proposing a unified arrangement, all PILs section sequences are closely inspected and this reported order is distinguished as the most dominant pattern.

Table 2 The Percentage and Sequence of PILs Section

Section	fre	%
Composition	30	100
Pharmacodynamics and pharmacokinetic properties	19	63.33
Indications	30	100
Dosage and administration	30	100
Contraindications	30	100
Special warnings and precautions for use	30	100
Interactions	29	96.66
Side effects	30	100
Pregnancy and lactation	30	100
Drivers and machine users	26	86.66
Over dose	28	93.33
What you should do in the case you miss a dose?	12	40
Effect when treatment is stopped	7	23.33
Storage condition and shelf life	30	100
Packs	17	56.66
Manufacturer	29	96.66
Date of leaflet revision	27	90

PILs may merge more than one section under a single title, the opposite cases were also observed, in which the content of a single section splits to more than one section, or the content of a section is explained in a separate paragraph, but no title has been assigned to it.

Microstructure Analysis

The sections, presented in Table 2 are analyzed and their moves and steps, if there is any, are identified and shown in the following table. The messages their contents try to convey are

explained, frequencies and percentages of moves occurrence are calculated and reported. This point should be mentioned that, in naming the moves their overall message or the key points with the frequent occurrence was considered as the base. Some moves were repeated through a single section, but they were counted as 1 move. It should be noted here that not all the identified sections are analyzed with regard to their move analysis. The following conditions were observed in omitting PILs section in move analysis:

- PIL section frequency should be above 50%.
- The content should be at least a coherent paragraph having discoursal features.

Table 3 Micro-Structure of PILs

Composition Section

Frequency *Percent*

M1: Describing content 30 100

S1: Giving detailed information about ingredients 17 56.66

Pharmacodynamics & Pharmacokinetic Properties Section

M 1: Preparatory information on drug composition 9 47.36

M 2: Informing patients with drug efficiency 16 84.21

M 3: Informing patients with bodily effects and process 14 73.68

S 1: Describing the effects through statistical measures such as dose and time of effect 13 68.42

Indications Section

M 1: Describing the medicine use for disease treatment 30 100

Dosage and Administration Section

*M1: E*xpression of warning 15 50

M2: Recommending standard dose and its administration method 20 66.66

S1: Daily use of the medicine 16
53.33
M3: Recommending dose based on severity of disease and its administration met
18 60
S1: Daily use of the medicine 16
53.33
M4: Recommending dose based on age group and its administration method 15
50
S1: Daily use of the medicine 14
46.66

Contraindications Section

M1: Indicating ban on use of the drug 14
73.68
S1: Describing cases of contraindication 30
100

Warnings and Precautions for Use Section

M1: Expressing advice for the drug side effects 30
100
S1: Specification of dose 10
33.33
S2: Recommendation of increase, decrease or discontinuing the drug 23
76.66

Interactions Section

M1: Informing patients of cases of interactions 29
100 S1: Naming drug with possible side effects
27 93.10
M2: Expressing advice for increase/decrease or halting the drug 12
41.37

Side Effects Section

M1: Showing both physical and mental disorders 16
53.33
S1: Describing the side effect 12 40
M2: Classifying side effects in to very common, common, and uncommon 17
56.66
S1: Describing the side effect 15
50

Pregnancy and Lactation Section

M1: Expressing rebuttal of the use of the drug for special period of time 17
56.66
S1: Specifying the period of ban 17
56.66
S2: Describing the side effects 9
30
M2: Recommending use of the drug when it is not harmful 13
43.33

Driver and Machine Users Section

M1: Showing the psychophysical effect of the drug 16
61.53 M2: Warning patients not to use
10 38.49

Overdose Section

M1: Showing overdose symptoms 24
85.71 M2: Recommending of treatment in case of
overdose 17
60.71

Storage Condition and Shelf Life Section

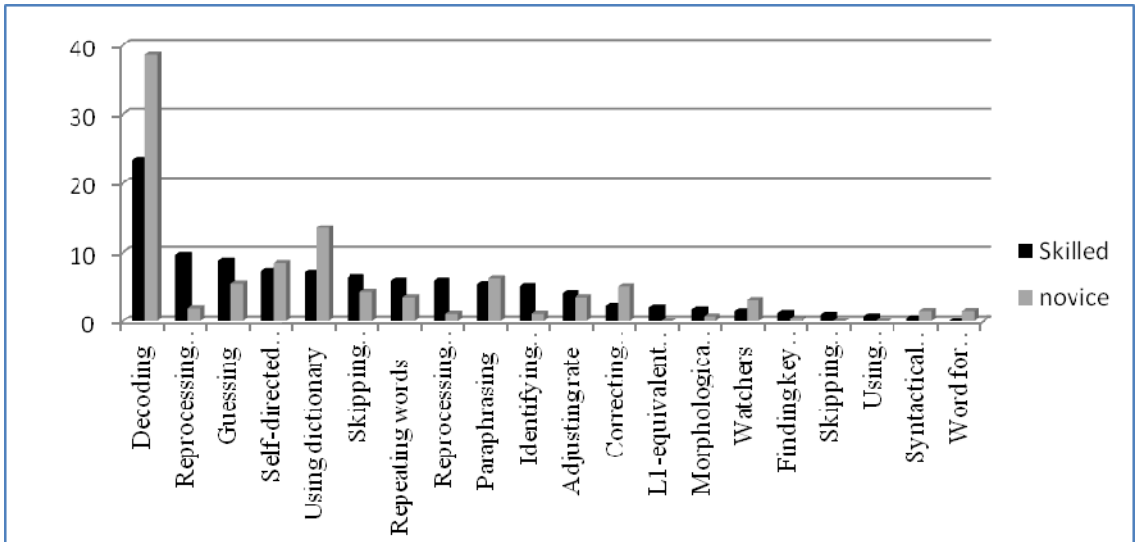
M1: Recommending patients of the expiry ate 26
86.66
M2: Describing physical condition for storing 30
10

Reading strategies

The skilled readers try to comprehend the text via 19 strategies. They decode words very frequently with percentage of 23.35%. The highest proportion of strategies among them belongs to decoding (i.e. 23.35% of all strategies) and the least frequent strategy is syntactical analysis with 0.5 % across strategies.

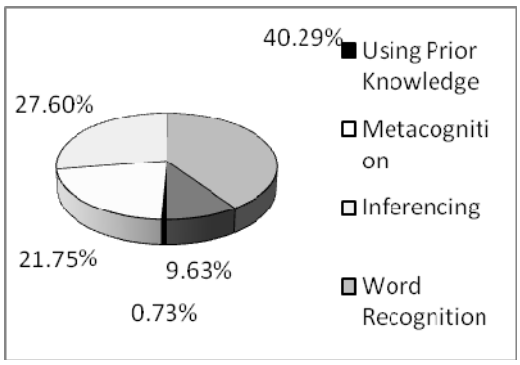
The novice readers also used 17 strategies in their effort to understand the text, like the skilled readers, the most frequent strategy applied by the novice readers is decoding a word with the percentage of 38.61 and the least frequent one is finding key words with the percentage of 0.39.

Figure 1 Percentage of Reading Strategies Utilized by the Skilled and the Novice Readers



As the figure above demonstrates, the skilled used reprocessing at sentence level, guessing, repeating words, skipping difficult sections, reprocessing at phrase level, identifying problems, adjusting rate, morphological analysis, and finding key words more frequently than the novice, while the novice resorted to decoding, self-directed questions, using dictionary, paraphrasing, correcting pronunciation, watchers, syntactic analysis more frequently. Regardless of the readers' level, decoding, reprocessing at sentence level, guessing, self-directed questions, and using dictionary were used more frequently. However, the skilled readers utilized all the identified strategies except word for word translation, the novice readers did not use L1-equivalent search, skipping trivial sections, and using background knowledge at all.

Figure2: Proportion of strategies used by skilled readers Figure3: Proportion of strategies used by novice readers



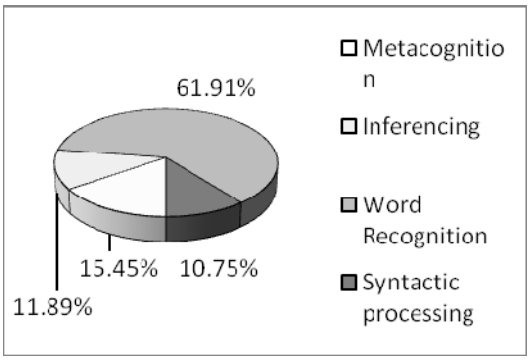


Figure 2 and Figure 3 show that the category of using prior knowledge strategies is absent in the novice readers' text processing. The highest utilized categories of strategies among both group is word processing category. Moreover, the skilled group paid more attention to higher-level processing strategies than the novice group.

Strategies in each section of PILS

In reading different sections, the novice and the skilled readers utilized different strategies. The readers read indications, contraindications, special warnings and precautions for use, pregnancy and lactation, effects on ability to drive and use machinery, and interactions sections.

The indication section included long sentences that are semantically linked to each other and its comprehension demanded using both higher and lower-level processing strategies. The indication section is the leading part of the reading text; it seems that the frequency of using strategy is affected by readers' unfamiliarity with the PIL topic and subject. Reading the indication section, readers of both groups mostly resorted to the word recognition, metacognition, and inferencing strategies. Moreover, the skilled readers rarely utilized syntactic processing and using prior knowledge strategies.

Contraindications section also consists of long sentences; therefore, understanding its comprising words did not contribute to the overall comprehension. The skilled and novice readers used different strategy scheme in reading this section. However, understanding the long descriptive sentences may need higher order strategies, the skilled readers did not disregard lower-level processing strategy importance. They used word recognition to comprehend words meaning; and utilized inferencing and metacognition strategies to get the

section overall meaning. On the other hand, the novice readers tried to understand each word meaning and focused more on word recognition strategies.

The messages of the special warnings and precaution for use section are conveyed through short sentences in comparison to the previous sections. It seems that readers get more familiar with the text theme. In this part, the skilled students used both higher and lower-order processing strategies and tried to reprocess long sentence; while, the novice readers frequently resorted to the word recognition strategies.

Due to the properties of the drug, the selected PILs did not allocate so much content to the 2 following sections (pregnancy and lactation, drivers and machine users). In reading these sections, the readers did not utilize frequent reading strategies; the skilled and the novice readers used 29 and 7 strategies, respectively. All readers utilized both the higher- and lower-order processing strategies.

The last section readers were asked to read was interactions, the most challenging section of the selected PIL. The drugs which have probable side effects are named here; the technical terms in this section caused comprehension obstacles for the readers. The skilled readers utilized word recognition, inferencing, and metacognition strategies which indicates that although, the skilled readers tried to get words meanings, they also pay attention to the sentence overall meaning and reprocessed long structures. Whereas, the novice readers did not try higher order strategies to get the sentence meaning, they intensively used dictionary or guessed word meaning.

Conclusion

The present study was conducted in 2 main phases. The first was genre analysis of PILs. 30 PILs, written in English, were selected to be analyzed in this phase of the study. The researchers analyzed PILs at 2 levels of macro- and micro-structure. Results of the analysis at the macrostructure level indicate that approximately PILs are made of 17 sections. It should be pointed that there is a dominant pattern of organization in PILs. However, some variations were also observed.

In the 2nd phase of the study, an introspective technique (the think-aloud procedure) was employed to investigate the EFL learners' use of processing strategies in reading these texts (PILs). Analysis of the verbal reports indicated that there are some differences in strategy use with respect to reading proficiency level. The exact nature of this difference is not fully

apparent due to the limited population of the study. But some points are clear, such as the novice reading problem which resides in vocabulary deficiency. In general, the skilled readers used more strategies than the novice readers; the skilled and the novice used 19 and 17 strategies respectively. The skilled readers utilized all identified strategies except word for word translation, the novice reader did not use L1-equivalent Search, skipping trivial sections, and using background knowledge at all. In both groups, decoding is the most frequent one.

The present results shed more light on rhetorical analysis of text and reading strategy use, relations which yet remain obscure.

References

Baker, L., & Brown, A. L. (1984). *Metacognitive skills and reading*. In Pearson, P., D. (Ed.) *Handbook of reading research*. (pp. 353-395). N. Y.: Longmans.

Bhatia, V. K. (1993). *Analyzing genre: Language use in professional settings.* London: Longman.

Candlin, C. (1993). *ESP in the workplace and the community: Discourse, social change and the impact on the ESP teacher.* Paper presented at the annual RELC Seminar, Singapore.

Carrell, P. (1991). Second language reading: Reading ability or language proficiency. *Applied Linguistics,* 12, 159-179.

Dudley-Evans, T. (1986). Genre analysis: an investigation of the introduction and discussion sections of MSc Dissertations. In Coulthard, M. (Ed.). *Talking about text.* Birmingham, U. K., English Language Research, Birmingham University.

Ericsson, K. A. (2002). Attaining excellence through deliberate practice: Insights from the study of expert performance. In M. Ferrari (Ed.), *The pursuit of excellence in education*. (pp. 21-55). Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum.

Flavell, J. H. (1979). Metacognition and cognitive monitoring: A new area of cognitive-developmental inquiry. *American Psychologist,* 34, 906-911.

Ghonsooly, B. (1997). *Introspection as a Method of Identifying and Describing Competence in Reading Skills*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Stirling, UK.

Ghonsooly, B. (2003). Gender and reading anxiety in IELTS and TOEFL. Paper Presented in the 25th LTRC Conference in Reading University (July, 2003)

Holmes, R. (1997). Genre analysis and the social sciences: An investigation of the structure

of research article discussion sections in three disciplines. *English for Specific Purposes,* 16, 321-337.

Kletzien, S., (1991). Strategies use by good and poor comprehenders reading expository text of differing level. *Reading Research Quarterly,* 25, 67-86.

Nwogu, K. N. (1997). The medical research paper: Structure and functions. *English for Specific Purposes*, 16, 119-138.

Paris, S., & Jacobs, J. (1984). The benefits of informed instruction for children's reading awareness and comprehension skills. *Child Development,* 55, 2083-2093

Rezaei. A., & Sayfouri, N. (2009). Iranian ISI and non-ISI medical research articles in English: A comparative ESP/EAP move analysis. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Learning* 52(212):135-160.

Samarj, B. (2000). Disciplinary variation in abstracts: the case of Wildlife Behavior and Conservation Biology. In Flowerdew, J. (Ed.). *Academic discourse*, (pp. 40-56). London: Longman.

Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Williams, I. A. (1999). Result section of medical research articles: analysis of rhetorical categories for pedagogical purposes. *English for specific Purposes*, 18, 347-366.

Yalcin, S. K., & Sengul, M. (2004). A model proposal prepared for developing reading and comprehension skills. *Journal of National Education,* 164. (http://yayim.meb.gov.tr. Date: 18.05.2007)

Title

Acquisition of Resumptive Pronouns in Interrogative Embedded Clauses by Persian Learners of English

Author

Mohammad Javad Rezai (Ph.D.)
Yazd University, Yazd, Iran

Bio data

Dr. **Mohammad Javad Rezai** is Assistant Professor of applied linguistics at Yazd University, Yazd, Iran. He received his Ph.D. from Essex University, UK, in 2006. His major area of research is in second language acquisition and psycholinguistics.

Abstract

This study investigates the acquisition of uninterpretable features by Persian learners of English. Resumptive pronouns are among the uninterpretable features which do not enjoy any semantic import. Unlike Persian, they are phonologically null in all syntactic contexts in English. The other problem addressed in this study is the effect of extraction site on the learners' judgment of embedded interrogative structures. 60 subjects in both intermediate (n=30) and advanced groups (n=30) completed a 45-item grammaticality judgment task. They were tested in 7 different contexts of subject, object and object of preposition extractions.

The analysis of the results, using ANOVA, showed that the intermediate learners showed variability in the avoidance of resumptive pronouns whereas such a variability greatly diminished at the advanced stage of proficiency. Furthermore, there was no significant difference between the subjects' performance on subject extraction context compared to other contexts. The results of the study are discussed in terms of the interpretability hypothesis.

Key words: Resumptive Pronouns, Acquisition, Persian, Interpretable Features, Relative Clauses

Introduction

The acquisition of features has recently come into vogue in SLA research within the past two decades. Within the generative paradigm, as Liceras (2009) puts it, the emphasis has chronologically shifted from parameters to functional categories to features. Features can be argued to be the building blocks of any language. They can be compared to atoms in our discussion of the physical universe. To illustrate, the determiners in English are considered as a functional category while [±definiteness] or [[±specificity] are described as functional features.

Can L2 learners acquire L2 features? This is a question which has received a lot of enthusiasm on the part of the SLA researchers. Various theories and models have been proposed to account for such acquisitional issues.

A body of research based on the generative paradigm argues that the functional features not selected in L1 cannot be active in the L2 grammatical operations after the critical period of language acquisition (Hawkins and Chan, 1997; Franceschina and Hawkins, 2003; Hawkins, 2003; Hawkins and Liszka, 2003; Tsimpli, 2003; Hawkins and Hattori, 2006; Tsimpli and Dimitrakopoulou, 2007; Hawkins and Casillas, 2008). These functional features have recently been considered in terms of the interpretability hypothesis which disaggregates the features into interpretable and uninterpretable features.

In the present study, the acquisition of resumptive pronouns (henceforth RPs) as uninterpretable features is highlighted. Such pronouns are scrutinized in terms of their extraction site, i.e. subject, object and object of preposition. Additionally, the effect of the overt and null complementiser *(that)* on the learners' judgments in the subject position will be investigated.

Resumptive pronouns in English and Persian

The distributional properties of resumptive pronouns are subject to certain variations in English and Persian**.** Resumptive strategy can be regarded as the 'overt manifestation of agreement features on T and light v' (Tsimpli & Dimitrakopoulou, 2007). Depending on their syntactic environment, they may or may not be allowed. Persian and English *wh*-interrogatives are different with respect to null subject parameter and the availability of resumptive pronouns in Persian but not in English.

English does not allow the use of resumptive pronouns in the gap position in subject (1) or object (2) wh-questions.

(1) a. The man who won the game is very happy.

b. * The man who he won the game is very happy.

(2) a. John received a letter which he was expecting for a week.

b. * John received a letter which he was expecting it for a week.

However, in Persian, resumptive clitic pronouns are obligatory in many instances. Persian obligatorily allows for a resumptive clitic pronoun coindexed with the extracted wh- phrase. It allows resumptive pronouns in the position of the gap in object (3), object of preposition (4) and genitive wh-questions (5) but only disallows resumptive pronouns in the subject position (6). In object wh-interrogatives and object of preposition wh-interrogatives, the resumptive pronoun or clitic doubles the features of the extracted object in Persian.

(3) Reza ketabi ro be man dad ke an ra khonde bood.

Reza book-a to I give-past that (it-RA) read-past was.

Reza gave me a book which he had read.

(4) Pesari ke az ou medad gharz gerefti

Boy-a that from him pencil borrow get-you

The boy you borrowed a pen from

(5) Pesari ke kolahe ou oftad.

Boy-a who hat-his fall-past

The boy whose hat fell down

*(6) Zan-i ke ou keef ro dozdid dastgir shod.

Woman-a that she purse-OM rob-past arrest get-past.

The woman who robbed the purse was arrested.

Taghvaipour (2005) offers an analysis of the resumptive pronouns in relative clauses in terms of the gap possibility. Table (1) below illustrates the point in case. As can be seen, resumptive pronouns are obligatory for objects of prepositions and genitives, but optional for direct objects.

The use of RPs are disallowed in the subject position in both English and Persian.

Table 1 Gaps and resumptive pronouns (RPs) in Persian relative clauses

	Subject	**Object of prep.**	**Genitive**	**Direct object**
Gaps allowed?	**YES**	**NO**	**NO**	**YES**
RPs allowed?	**NO**	**YES**	**YES**	**YES**

One further relevant property is the animacy feature which is grammaticalized on the pronominal system of wh-pronouns in both English and Persian. Such a distinction is realized in the *who/what* pair in English and *ki/chi* pair in Persian. Therefore, +/- animate distinction is grammaticalized in the pronominal paradigm of personal pronouns in Persian.

Additionally, in English and Persian, the animacy distinction found in *who/what* pair is missing from 'which-N' in discourse-linked wh-phrases. To illustrate, the wh-pronoun *which* can be followed by both animate and inanimate entities such as *which book* or *which student*.

Resumptive pronouns and island constraint

One of the major issues in syntactic theory is the island constraint. Islands refer to those syntactic environments in which extraction is not licensed. In other words, an element inside the island cannot be dislocated by wh-extraction in order to form an interrogative or relative clause construction. (7) is a case of extraction from a relative clause which is barred in English. As can be seen, such an extraction is unacceptable in English and forms a strong island for extraction. The letter *t* in (7) refers to the gap, the site from which extraction occurred. However, extraction out of a subordinate clause is licit in English (8) because they are not considered as islands for extraction.

*(7) Who did John meet the girl who will marry *t* ?

(8) Who does John believe Lucy will select *t* as partner?

Another relevant syntactic issue here is the *that*-trace effect. (9) is syntactically unacceptable because of the complementiser *that* whereas the complementiser in (10) is deleted rendering the sentence as syntactically acceptable. This idea is referred to as *that*-trace effect (Beletti & Rizzi, 1988).

*(9) Who do you think that will come tonight?

(10) Who do you think will come tonight?

Cross-linguistically, there are some languages such as German which allow *that*-trace effect while in some other languages such as English, such a construction is disallowed in interrogative embedded structures. Persian is a language which lies in between, i.e. it optionally allows *that*-trace effect in interrogative embedded structures (11).

(11) *Kodoom hayvan radio elam kard (ke) t az bagh-e-vahsh farar kard?*

Which animal radio announce(3rd Sg., past) (that)t from zoo escape (3rd Sg, past)

Which animal did the radio announce escaped the zoo?

Interpretability hypothesis

The interpretability hypothesis, as argued by Tsimpli & Dimitrakopoulou (2007), states that language features can be either interpretable or uninterpretable. Interpretable features refer to those features which have a semantic import and are visible at LF. The plural marker in English is an example in case where the lack of the inflectional morpheme indicates singularity while its presence denotes the plurality function. Uninterpretable features, on the other hand, do not have any semantic contribution and are not visible at LF. The inflectional morpheme on third person singular verbs is an example in case. This inflectional marker does not affect the meaning and is therefore considered as an uninterpretable feature.

The proponents of interpretability hypothesis (Hawkins and Casillas, 2008 among others) maintain that interpretable features are accessible to L2 learners whereas uninterpretable features are difficult to acquire. Their identification and analysis create persistent acquisitional problems post- maturationally.

The uninterpretable status of resumptive elements indicates that these elements are subject to maturational constraints in the process of SLA because they are not visible at LF. Indeed, uninterpretable features are subject to the critical period implying that the L1 parametric features associated with these features resist resetting whereas interpretable features are not subject to the critical period constraints.

Given the interpretability hypothesis, the cross-linguistic comparison of the features in terms of their interpretability at each interface, i.e. PF and LF can be of four different combinations as displayed in Table (2) below.

Table 2 A combination of interpretability features across English and Persian

	LF / PF Type	Example
1	LF uninterpretable / PF interpretable	Resumptive pronouns in Persian
2	LF uninterpretable / PF uninterpretable	Case and subject-verb agreement in English; Resumptive pronouns in English
3	LF interpretable / PF interpretable	Definiteness in English
4	LF interpretable / PF uninterpretable	Definiteness in Persian

Empirical studies

Yuan and Zhao (2005) conducted an empirical studies on RPs in English-Chinese and Palestinian Arabic-Chinese interlanguages. Arabic, similar to Persian, allows RPs in all positions except subject position of the matrix clause. Chinese, however, optionally allows the use of RPs in indirect object and genitive positions but not in subject and direct object positions. The researchers hypothesized that Arabic speakers would be more accurate in accepting Chinese RPs. To this end, some advanced Arabic learners of Chinese (n=5) and intermediate English learners of Chinese (n=5) participated in an acceptability judgment task containing relative embedded clauses. Nine Chinese native speakers also served as the control group.

The results of the study revealed that there was no significant difference between all the three groups on the grammatical sentences with gaps in subject, object and indirect object positions. As to the sentences with RPs, the Arabic and English L2ers had a similar performance with the control group. However, in judging ungrammatical sentences with subject and object RPs, the English subjects, unlike Arabic ones, performed native-like. It seemed that the Arabic learners had overgeneralized their acceptance of RPs in all contexts. As argued by Yuan and Zhao, Arabic L2ers' interlanguage forms a superset in relation to the Chinese target language leading to a learnability problem. Additionally, there is no informative evidence in the data indicating the

ungrammaticality of RPs in object and subject positions. This may in turn lead to the fossilization in their interlanguage.

Tsimpli and Dimitrakopoulou (2007) conducted a study on the use of resumptive strategy in wh-subject and object extraction by two Greek proficiency groups (intermediate and advanced) learning English as a second language. They hypothesized that the acceptability rate of pronouns was affected by the interpretable features of animacy and discourse-linking whereas their L1 specification of resumptive pronouns as clusters of uninterpretable feature would resist resetting in their L2 acquisition. To test the interpretability hypothesis, 21 intermediate, 27 advanced and 26 native speakers of English completed a 51-sentence bi-modal acceptability task in which they indicated their judgment through a 5-point Likert scale ranging from -2 (certainly ungrammatical) to +2 (certainly grammatical).

The results indicated that at the intermediate level, resumptive pronouns were preferred irrespective of the extraction site. Advanced learners dispreferred object pronouns more than the resumptive subject pronouns. Both proficiency groups were sensitive to the interpretable features. They disallowed resumptive pronouns in inanimate contexts. There was also a significant interaction between the animacy feature and the semantic feature of d-linking in that the learners accepted the resumptive pronouns associated with inanimate d-linked antecedents. Furthermore, the presence of a complementiser in subject *wh*-interrogatives did not seem to affect the Greek learners' judgments overall.

The overall results show that uninterpretable formal features cause learnability problems even at higher stages of acquisition. The interpretability hypothesis, as Tsimpli and Dimitrakopoulou (2007) argue, can account for the non-target use of L2 resumptive pronouns in interrogative contexts.

Resumptive pronouns may function differently depending on their extraction sites. Schachter and Yip (1990) found a significant difference between the acceptability rate of subject and object wh-extraction by native and non-native Korean and Chinese learners of English. Both L2 groups preferred object over subject wh-extractions. A similar finding was also reported by White and Juffs (1998) who found an asymmetry between object and subject wh-questions with a null complementiser.

The experiment

Research questions

The following research questions were entertained in the present empirical study.

1. Can Persian L2 learners of English acquire the uninterpretable feature of English resumptive pronouns?
2. How does the acceptability rate of resumptive pronouns interact with their extraction site?
3. Does the presence of the complementiser *that* affect the acceptability rate of resumptive pronouns?
4. Does the proficiency level affect the subjects' judgment of resumptive pronouns?

Given the interpretability hypothesis, it was predicted that the L2 learners would have problems in abandoning the resumptive strategy in L2 wh-interrogatives. Another prediction was that Persian learners would show differences in the acceptability of the resumptive pronouns depending on the extraction site. Persian learners would be more tolerant with the resumptive pronouns at the object than the subject position. They would also incorrectly accept resumptive pronouns in the gap position of object of preposition extraction contexts.

Subjects

60 subjects took part in the present study all of whom were students of English literature and TEFL at undergraduate and graduate level at the University of Yazd, Iran. The participants, divided into two proficiency groups of intermediate and advanced, were selected on the basis of Oxford Quick Placement Test (2001). None of the subjects had any residence in an English speaking country. Furthermore, none of them had been exposed to any metalinguistic information on the avoidance of resumptive pronouns in interrogative structures during their language study. The subjects' bio data is presented in Table (3).

Table 3 Participants' information

	N.	**Age range**	**Age mean**	**OQPT range**
Intermediate	30	18-25	21	36-47
Advanced	30	18-27	22	48-59

All the subjects were tested on campus. In order to tap the subjects' proficiency level, they were asked to complete the Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT) (2001) which is a timed test and should be completed in 30 minutes. The test consists of 60 items of vocabulary, grammar and cloze test. The subjects who scored between 35 up to 47 were placed at the intermediate proficiency level. Those who scored between 48 up to 60 were placed at the advanced proficiency level. The cut-off point was selected in terms of the criteria provided by the proficiency test designers.

Task

Following the proficiency test, the main test administered to the subjects was a grammaticality judgment task through which the subjects were required to indicate their degree of the acceptance or rejection of RPs in both licit and illicit contexts.

The test consisted of 45 sentences (28 experimental items and 17 fillers). The subjects indicated their responses on the basis of the five-point scale ranging from +2 which is completely acceptable to -2 which is completely unacceptable. The option 0 was also included for those items undecided by the subjects (White, et al, 1998). There was another further option namely *"I don't know"*.

The experimental sentences were divided into 7 contexts (3 grammatical and 4 ungrammatical). The given contexts along with the illustrative examples and tokens are presented in Table (4) below.

Table 4 Context types

NO.	Context Type and example	Token
1	Grammatical object extraction *Who does Peter think that Mary should meet?*	4
2	Ungrammatical object extraction **Who do you think that Susan would marry **him**?*	4
3	Grammatical object of preposition extraction *Who did you say you consulted with about your complaint?*	4
4	Ungrammatical object of preposition extraction **Which office did you say he worked in **it** last year?*	4

5	Grammatical subject extraction *What did John suggest should be announced at the meeting?*	4
6	Ungrammatical subject extraction (-that) **Which party does John think* ***it*** *was very popular?*	4
7	Ungrammatical subject extraction (+that) **Which car did you say* ***that it*** *was sold very cheap?*	4

Procedures

The grammaticality judgement task was not timed but all the participants were encouraged to read each sentence and circle their responses in the test paper. Written instructions for the completion of the task were given and once each participant had read the instructions the researcher then asked each of them if they had clearly understood what they were being asked to do. The subjects were asked not to take too long in deciding whether the sentence seemed acceptable or not. The average amount of time to complete the task was twenty five minutes.

Scoring procedures

The statistical package used to analyze the data was the SPSS software (version 11.5). To analyze the data, the researcher used the analysis of variance (ANOVA) with two factors of proficiency as the independent factor and context as the dependent one. The subjects' performance in different contexts was compared with one another.

The mean scores were gained via adding their responses in each particular context which could range from +2 to -2. In order to compute the mean scores, the participants' judgments were simply averaged.

The number of participants providing accurate responses to both grammatical and ungrammatical items are also provided by collapsing both grammatical judgments (+1 and +2) and ungrammatical ones (-1 and -2) separately. To be considered consistent, participants needed to provide 3 accurate judgments out of four tokens, i.e. 75% accuracy.

Results

The results of the study are presented in order of the extraction sites (7.1 to 7.3) followed by the within-group comparison (7.4) and individual analysis of the results (7.5).

Object extraction context

Table (5) displays the results of the subjects' performance on both grammatical and ungrammatical object extraction context across proficiency groups. Recall that RPs are optionally used in direct object position in Persian while they are disallowed in English.

Table 5 Subjects' mean performance in object extraction contexts

Context type	Intermediate	Advanced
Grammatical object extraction	0.19 (0.85)	0.29 (0.90)
Ungrammatical object extraction	0.25 (0.95)	-1.05 (0.63)

* Standard deviations are displayed in parentheses.

A mixed between-within ANOVA was conducted to measure the subjects' performance in the grammatical and ungrammatical object extraction contexts. There was a significant effect for the context variable [Wilks' Lambda=0.759, F(2,58)=18.177, p=0.0001, multivariate eta squared=.241].

The results of the independent sample t-test in both grammatical and ungrammatical object extraction context showed that there was no significant difference between the two groups in the grammatical object extraction context [t(58)=-0.440,p=0.662]; however, a significant difference was observed in the ungrammatical context [t(58)=6.286,p=0.0001]

Object of preposition extraction context

Table (6) depicts the results of the subject's performance in both grammatical and ungrammatical *wh*-extraction contexts related to the object of preposition. As can be seen from the table, there is a mean difference of 0.69 and 1.49 between the intermediate and advanced subjects in both grammatical and ungrammatical contexts respectively.

Table 6 Subjects' mean performance in object of preposition extraction context

Context type	Intermediate	Advanced
Grammatical object of preposition extraction	0.43 (0.78)	1.12 (0.86)
Ungrammatical object of preposition extraction	0.34 (1.09)	-1.15 (0.86)

* Standard deviations are displayed in parentheses.

A mixed between-within ANOVA was conducted to measure the subjects' performance in the grammatical and ungrammatical object of preposition extraction contexts. There was a significant effect for the context variable [Wilks' Lambda=0.588, F (2,58)=40.615, p=0.0001, multivariate eta squared=.412.]

The results of the independent sample t-test in both grammatical and ungrammatical object extraction contexts showed that there was a significant difference between the two groups in the grammatical object extraction [t(58)=-3.263,p=0.002] as well as ungrammatical context [t(58)=5.879,p=0.0001].

Subject extraction contexts

Table (7) displays the results of the subjects' mean acceptance or rejection of RPs in the subject extraction contexts. Comparing the results of the ungrammatical contexts, we can see that both proficiency groups are performing better on *that*-less structures.

Table 7 Subjects' mean performance in subject extraction contexts

Context type	Intermediate	Advanced
Grammatical Subject extraction	0.33 (0.81)	0.87 (0.76)
Ungrammatical subject extraction (-that)	-0.16 (1.02)	-1.32 (0.81)
Ungrammatical subject extraction (+that)	0.30 (0.89)	-1.05 (0.79)

* Standard deviations are displayed in parentheses.

A mixed between-within subject ANOVA was conducted to measure the subjects' performance in the grammatical and ungrammatical subject extraction contexts. Similar to the previous contexts, there was a significant effect for the context variable [Wilks' Lambda=0.423, F (2,58)=38.882, p=0.0001, multivariate eta squared=.577].

The results of an independent sample t-test on each of the above three constructions showed that there was a significant effect of proficiency in all three grammatical [t(58)=-2.617,p=0.011], ungrammatical (-that) [t(58)=4.906,p=0.0001], and ungrammatical (+that) [t(58)= 6.221 ,p=0.0001]. Figure (1) displays the results of the subjects' performance in the embedded subject extraction contexts.

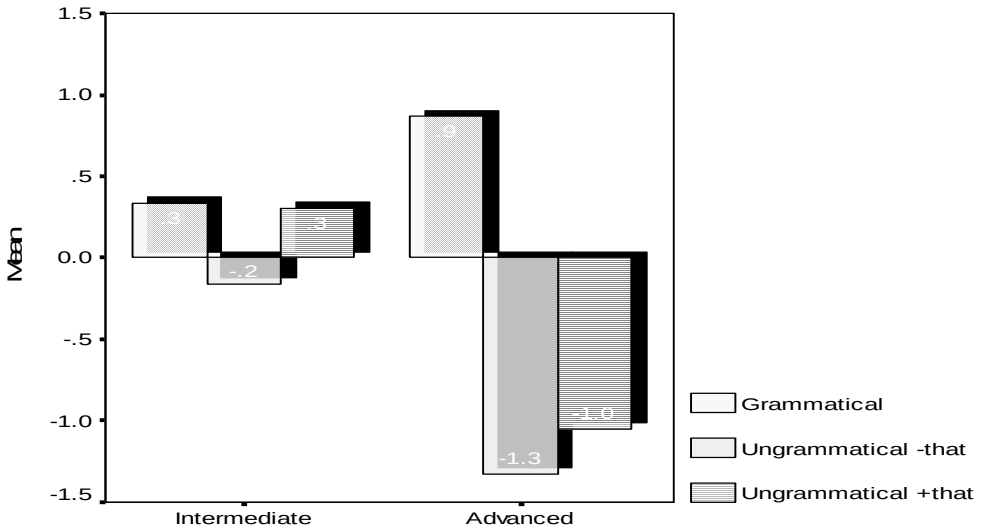


Figure 1 The subjects' mean performance in subject extraction contexts

Within-group comparisons

Turning to within-group differences, it was observed that for the intermediate group, no significant differences were observed between the object, object of preposition and subject extraction sites in the grammatical contexts [Wilks' Lambda=0.961, F (2,58)=0.569, p=0.572]. However, this was not the case with the advanced group who showed a significant difference among the three different contexts [Wilks' Lambda=0.609, F (2,58)=8.977, p=0.001, multivariate eta squared=.391]. The pair-wise comparison of the advanced group's results further showed that there was a significant difference between the object and subject extraction contexts (p=0.003) as well as object and object of preposition contexts (p=0.001); nonetheless, no statistically significant difference could be observed between the grammatical subject and object of preposition contexts (p=0.115). Figure (2) displays the results of the subjects' mean performance in the grammatical contexts across proficiency levels. Note that the mean performances given have been rounded off.

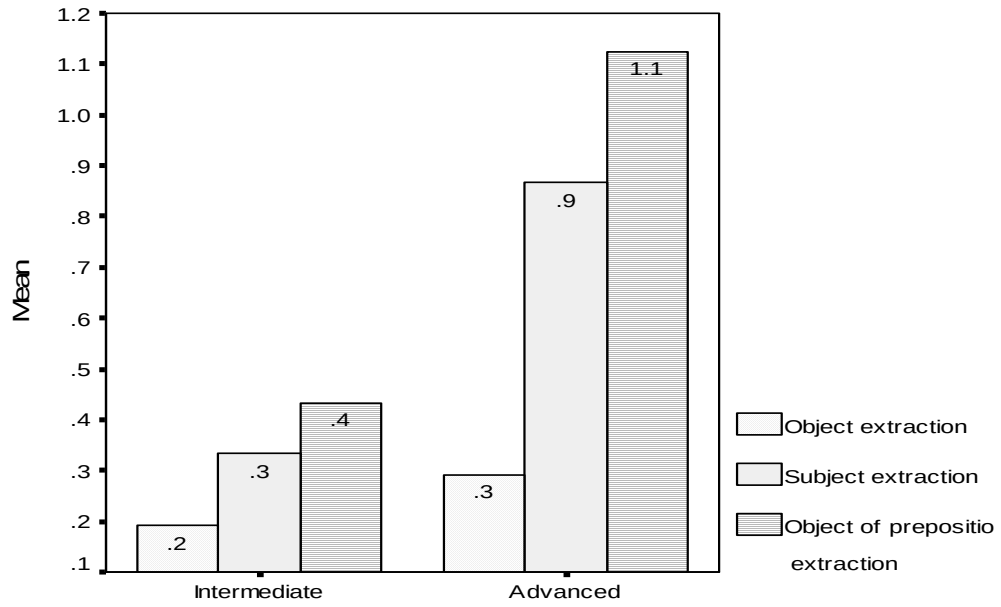


Figure 2 Mean performance in grammatical contexts across proficiency level

The within-group comparison of the subjects' performance in the ungrammatical context was further made. Regarding the intermediate learners, there was a significant difference between the ungrammatical object, object of preposition, subject (-that) and subject (+that) extraction contexts [Wilks' Lambda=0.684, F (2,58)=4.163, p=0.015, multivariate eta squared=.796]. The pair-wise comparison of the data, however, showed that there was no significant difference between the ungrammatical object and object of preposition extraction contexts (p=0.597). The comparison of the object extraction with the subject extraction context showed that there was a significant difference in the subject (-that) context (p=0.04) but not in the subject (+that) context (p=0.816). The pair-wise comparison of the data further showed that the presence of the complementiser affected the subjects' judgment (p=0.001) implying that the intermediate subjects would allow resumptive pronouns in the subject extraction sites containing the complementiser *that*.

The within-comparison of the results in the ungrammatical contexts for the advanced learners revealed that there was no significant difference between the four extraction sites [Wilks' Lambda=0.858, F (2,58)=1.485, p=0.241]. Although the advanced subjects accepted resumptive pronouns in the subject extraction site (+that) more than the (-that) context (-1.05 vs. -1.32), it

did not get statistically significant (p=0.082). Figure (3) displays the results of the subjects' performance on the ungrammatical contexts across proficiency levels.

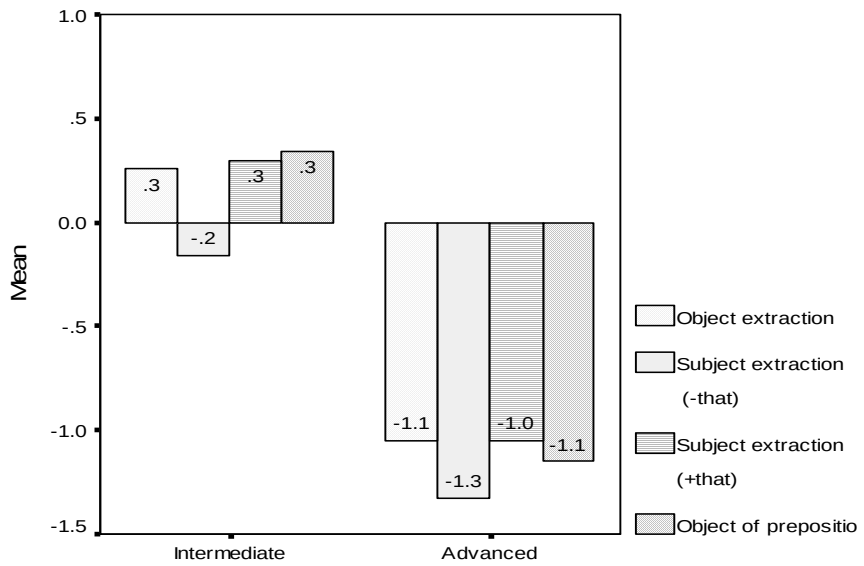


Figure 3 Mean performance in ungrammatical contexts across proficiency level

To explore the effect of proficiency on the subjects' grammaticality judgments, a one-way between-group ANOVA was carried out with the proficiency group as the between-subject factor and the context as the within-subject factor. There was a significant difference between the groups [F=6.621,p= 0.003] with a large eta value (0.189).

Overall, the intermediate subjects judged the grammatical sentences on the positive scale but the degree of their rejection was not very high. However, the advanced subjects performed more target-like on the object of preposition and subject wh-extractions, not on the object extraction context which was not significantly different from the intermediate group.

Individual results

Table 8 summarizes the number of participants multiplied by the number of tokens in each group who provided an accurate judgment on grammatical and ungrammatical extraction sites.

Table 8 Number of participants (* tokens) who provided an accurate judgment

	Grammatical		**Ungrammatical**	
	Intermediate	**Advanced**	**Intermediate**	**Advanced**
Object extraction	57/120 (%47.5)	69/120 (%57.5)	49/120 (%41)	92/120 (%77)
Subject extraction	61/120 (%51)	88/120 (%73)	56/120 (-that) (%47) 42/120 (+that) (%35)	102/12 (-that) (%85) 94/120 (+that) (%78)
Object of prep. Extraction	67/120 (%56)	97/120 (%81)	40/120 (%31)	93/120 (%77.5)

A look at the participants' accuracy rates reveals that about half of the intermediate subjects performed accurately on the grammatical contexts while their accuracy rates decreases in ungrammatical contexts. On the other hand, the advanced group outperformed the intermediate group in all contexts except the ungrammatical object extraction site.

Table (9) reports the number of participants in each group who provided at least a 75% accuracy rate.

Table 9 Consistency of the results

	Grammatical		**ungrammatical**	
	Intermediate	**Advanced**	**Intermediate**	**Advanced**
Object extraction	9/30	18/30	10/30	27/30
Subject extraction	15/30	24/30	(-that) 12/30 (+that) 7/30	(-that) 26/30 (+that) 25/30
Object of prep extraction	15/30	25/30	9/30	23/30

The results obtained showed that the intermediate subjects exhibited variability in their judgment while around two-third of the advanced subjects performed consistently in their grammaticality judgment. Although the mean performance of the advanced learners was not

significantly different between the grammatical and ungrammatical extraction sites, the results here showed that the advanced learners were nearly twice as accurate as the intermediate group.

Discussion

The present study has addressed three main issues: the acquisition of RPs as uninterpretable features, the effect of L1 on the subjects' acceptability rate in different extraction sites and the role of proficiency. Each of these issues will be discussed in this section in turn.

As mentioned earlier, the use of RPs is disallowed in English in all contexts while Persian allows such pronouns in all contexts except the subject position. The results of the study reveal that the subjects at lower proficiency level are fluctuating in their acceptance or rejection of resumptive pronouns. There was no difference in their judgment of grammatical contexts in all extraction sites. This implies that they are allowing RPs to a similar extent irrespective of the extraction site. Their grammaticality judgment in all contexts gets more categorical as they move to higher proficiency levels. However, they are performing more target-like in subject and object of preposition contexts.

The within-group comparison indicates that there is no difference between the intermediate and advanced subjects on the object extraction contexts (0.19 and 0.29 respectively). The findings are not in line with Schachter and Yip (1990) who found a significant difference in the acceptability rate of object and subject *wh*-extractions by L1 and L2 (Korean and Chinese) speakers of English who favored object over subject extraction. The question arising here is why there is an asymmetry between the object extraction site and the other contexts. The main plausible reason which can be offered can be traced to the role of L1. The use of RPs in the object extraction site, as discussed earlier, is optional in Persian. Such optionality has influenced the subjects' judgment leading them to a less categorical decision.

Turning to the ungrammatical contexts, the intermediate subjects are again fluctuating in their judgment. They are indeed acting conservatively in accepting structures containing gaps. Nonetheless, the within-context results show that they are performing better on the ungrammatical subject extraction site (-0.16) than the other contexts in which their mean performance is on the positive scale around 0.30. The advanced group, on the other hand, disallowed RPs in all contexts similarly as the differences did not reach a statistical significance.

The rejection rate among the contexts ranges from -1.05 to -1.32. The results imply that they are sensitive to the presence of RPs leading to their rejection.

The L2 learners go through a stage in which they show variations in their judgments. They do not have a discrete pattern for their preference. That's why their mean performance does not exceed beyond 0.43 in grammatical contexts and -0.16 in ungrammatical ones. Additionally, at this lower proficiency stage their interlanguage grammar is not sensitive to the ungrammaticality of the RPs in the target language. Therefore, no real acquisition has occurred at this stage.

As the subjects are exposed to more and more input, their interlanguage grammar develops and they get more and more categorical in their acceptance or rejection of the embedded *wh*-interrogative structures. The only less categorical judgment is related to the grammatical object extraction site in which their mean performance (0.29) is lower than other grammatical contexts. Overall, there is a sharp contrast between the grammatical and ungrammatical structures implying that the advanced learners have acquired the fact that unlike Persian the RPs in English may not possess a phonological spell-out. However, such a judgment is not categorical in all contexts leading to certain learnability problems.

It should be pointed out that we should not expect L2ers to have an identical performance as that of native speakers, otherwise we will run into the problem of comparative fallacy as argued by Bley-Vroman (1983). White (2003) argues that interlanguage representations of L2ers do not necessarily have to be identical to the grammar of native speakers to show that the interlanguage representation is UG-constrained. Therefore, the important point is that there is an asymmetry between the grammatical and ungrammatical extraction sites.

The question arising here is that why certain functional features are acquired later than certain other features, e.g. the plurality feature on nouns or tense features on verbs. The argument which can be proposed is related to the status of the features, i.e. whether the feature in question is an interpretable one or not. The interpretable features, unlike uninterpretable ones, pose no real acquisitional problem and can be acquired earlier as they contain a semantic load.

Given the above points, it can be stated that the findings of the study can lend support to the interpretability hypothesis. Why do the L2 learners have problems in accepting gaps in the embedded interrogative constructions in object and subject positions? The learners have experienced some problems in abandoning RPs in L2 *wh*-interrogatives particularly in object extraction contexts. Such structures are typically challenging for the L2 learners because English

RPs are syntactically uninterpretable in terms of both LF and PF. The uninterpretable features are believed to be subject to critical period constraints and are not therefore fully accessible to the L2 learner.

The other issue worth discussing is the effect of the complementiser on the learners' grammaticality judgment in the subject extraction site. As discussed earlier, English disallows the complementiser *that* in subject embedded interrogative structures whereas the presence of the complementiser is optional for such constructions in Persian. The results of the study reveal that at the lower stages of language proficiency, the Persian L2 learners significantly prefer the ungrammatical overt complementiser (0.30) more than the null complementiser (-0.16). This is consistent with their L1 pattern making the complementiser licit in such positions. Therefore, L1 transfer is active at this stage.

As their proficiency increases, they get more target-like in their judgment. However, they are not performing similarly in both contexts. Although the advanced learners' mean performance on the null complementiser context is higher than the overt complementiser context (-1.32 vs. -1.05), such a difference is not statistically significant. All in all, the results suggest that the overt complementiser is generally considered more acceptable in ungrammatical context, but such a preference decreases as the proficiency level increases.

The findings of the present study account for why certain functional features are acquired much later than others. The resumptive pronouns as uninterpretable features pose learnability problems for Persian L2 learners of English. The intermediate learners experienced variability in the acceptance or rejection of such constructions in embedded relative clauses while the advanced learners were able to make a distinction between the grammatical and ungrammatical structures. The results were discussed in terms of interpretability hypothesis which attributes the lack of full acquisition of certain functional features to their uninterpretability in the LF and PF components of language faculty. Nonetheless, the interpretable features, as Hawkins and Hattori (2006) argue, can be acquirable and pose no learnability problem. The above account can shed light on certain acquisitional deficits in the process of second language acquisition.

References

Bley-Vroman, R. (1983). The Comparative Fallacy in Interlanguage Studies: The Cast of Systematicity. *Language Learning*, 33, 1-17.

Chomsky, N. (1995). *The minimalist program*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Clahsen, H. & Muysken, P. (1986). The availability of universal grammar to adult and child learners – a study of the acquisition of German word order. *Second Language Research*, 2, 93–119.

Goad, H. & White, L. (2004). Ultimate attainment of L2 inflection: effects of L1 prosodic structure. In Foster-Cohen, S., Sharwood Smith, M., Sorace, A. and Ota M., editors, *EUROSLA Yearbook* 4. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 119–46.

Hawkins, R. & Chan, C. (1997). The partial availability of universal grammar in second language acquisition: the 'failed functional features hypothesis'. *Second Language Research*, 13, 187–226.

Hawkins, R. & Hattori, H. (2006). Interpretation of multiple *wh*-questions by Japanese speakers: a missing uninterpretable feature account. *Second Language Research*, 22, 269–301.

Lardiere, D. (1998). Dissociating syntax from morphology in a divergent L2 end-state grammar. *Second Language Research*, 14, 359–75.

Oxford Quick placement test (2001). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Pinker, S. (1984). *Language Learnability and Language Development*. Harvard, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Prévost, P. & White, L. (2000). Missing surface inflection or impairment in second language acquisition? Evidence from tense and agreement. *Second Language Research*, 16, 103–33.

Schachter, J. & Yip, V. (1990). Why does anyone object to object extraction?. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 12, 379–92.

Schwartz, B. & Sprouse, R. (1994). Word order and nominative case in nonnative language acquisition: a longitudinal study of (L1 Turkish) German interlanguage. In Hoekstra, T. and Schwartz, B.D., editors, *Language acquisition studies in generative grammar*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 317–68.

Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*,10: 209–231.

Smith, N. & Tsimpli, I.M. (1995). *The mind of a savant: language learning and modularity*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Taghvaipour, M.A. (2005). *Persian relative clauses in head-driven phrase structure grammar*. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Essex, England.

Tsimpli, I.M. & Mastropavlou, M. (2007). Feature interpretability in L2 acquisition and SLI: Greek clitics and determiners. In Liceras, J., Zobl, H. and Goodluck, H., editors, *The role of formal features in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Tsimpli, I.M. & Dimitrakopoulou, M. (2007). The interpretability hypothesis: evidence from *wh*-interrogatives in second language acquisition. *Second Language Research*, 23 (2), 215- 242.

White, L. (2003). *Second Language Acquisition and Universal Grammar*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

White, L. & Juffs, A. (1998). Constraints on wh-movement in two different contexts of nonnative language acquisition: competence and processing. In Flynn, S. Martohardjono, G. and O'Neil, W., editors, *The generative study of second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 111–29.

Yuan, B. & Zhao Y. (2005). Resumptive pronouns in English-Chinese and Arabic-Chinese Interlanguages. *IRAL*, 43, 219–237.

Title

The Impact of Background Classical Music on Teaching Reading Comprehension to Iranian EFL Learners: The Effect of Mozart Sonata on Iranian EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension Learning and Performance

Author

Farman Faham (M.A.)
Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran

Bio data

Farman Faham is M.A. student of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) at the Department of Foreign Languages and Linguistics of Shiraz University, Iran. He teaches English at the adult section of the ILI (Iran Language Institute) in Shiraz. His areas of interest are Teaching Methodology, Research Methods, and Language Testing.

Abstract

The influence of music on language learning and performance has been the subject of study for many years. The purpose of the present study was to investigate the effect of classical music (Mozart Sonata) on the reading comprehension performance of two groups of Iranian EFL learners in an English institute in Iran. To this end, the study compared two groups of Iranian EFL learners (*N*=60), the control group (CG) consisted of 15 males and 15 females so did the experimental one (EG), over a period of two months: The EG was taught and tested reading comprehension passages in a music background, and the other in no music background whatsoever. After running an independent t-test, the researcher noticed a significant difference between the reading performance of the music group and that of the non-music group. The music group outperformed the non-music group on the reading comprehension test. For further investigation, a two-way ANOVA was also run which showed no significant difference with regard to the effect of gender on the reading comprehension test.

Keywords: Reading comprehension, Music, Music background, Classical music, Mozart sonata

Introduction

The use of music as a tool by language teachers to teach foreign languages has been the center of attention to researchers for many years. That is why in the literature we can see different, but mostly positive comments concerning the effectiveness of music in language learning and performance. It has been stated that music can contribute to acquiring the linguistic skills such as reading, writing, listening and speaking (Jalongo & Bromley, 1984; Jolly, 1975; Kouri & Telander, 2008; Martin, 1983; Mc Carthey, 1985). It is interesting to notice that not only teachers but also other scholars have benefited from the effect of music in their work "Throughout time, healers, philosophers, scientists, and teachers have recognized the role of music for therapeutic and developmental functions."(Bancroft, 1985 cited in Stansell, 2005, p.2).Stansell (2005) asserts that music has a positive effect on language accent, memory and grammar as well as mood, enjoyment, and motivation. Based on his assertion we can conclude that music can have some positive influences on both cognitive and affective traits of humans.

Regarding the affective filter hypothesis (Krashen, 1982), the degree of receiving linguistic input by the learner hinges on their inner feelings to a great extent. "Krashen theorizes that in unfavorable circumstances individuals develop negative attitudes that result in an affective filter, or mental block, that prevents them from using the input to internalize language." (Chastain, 1988, p.98) . Krashen (1982) asserts that "The affective hypothesis implies that our pedagogical goals should not only include supplying comprehensible input, but also creating a situation that encourages a low filter"(p.32). Thus, if the learner is affected by negative feelings and attitude, their language internalization diminishes.

Now, the question is how the teacher can create a situation that encourages a low filter. Hallam and Price (1988 cited in Merrell, 2004) stated that particular combinations and frequencies of sounds have some positive effects on certain parts of the brain, brining calming effects to the students. They also reported that when music was playing in the classroom there were noticeable changes in body temperature, blood pressure, breathing rate, and pulse rate of the students and music helped the students to become calmer and more obliging. Merrell (2004) believes that music can reduce the level of anxiety and inhibition in learners, so he asserts that

"Music can help to keep the levels of tension and stress to a minimum" (p.4). Some researchers still talk more about the freeing influence of music, “Music therapists utilize both types of music (music to assuage and soothe, or music to arouse and energize) in clinical situations to relieve many kinds of psychological and physical stressors" (Stansell, 2005, p.5). When talking about the implications and reflections of his study, the effects of classical background music on fourth-grade silent reading comprehension, Drowns (2002) states that "During stressful moments, it (music) can help alleviate some of the pressure on both students and teachers, and serve as an outlet of expression or relaxation" (p.16).

As such, if we believe that unfavorable circumstances can create negative feelings and attitudes which in turn can develop an affective filter in language learners (Chastain, 1988, p.98; Krashen, 1982. P. 32), then music by providing a suitable situation is capable of reducing the affective filter, and bringing about better language acquisition and performance.

Referring to Desuggestopedia (a method of language teaching), Larson-Freeman (2000) states that "The reason for our inefficiency, Lozanov asserts, is that we set up psychological barriers to learning" (p.73). When Larson-freeman (2000, p.79) talks about Desuggestopedia, she states that two planes are involved in communication: on one plane the linguistic message is encoded and on the other the linguistic message is influenced by other factors. On the former plane that is conscious the learner deals with the language and on the latter one that is subconscious the music tells that learning is nice and simple, and when subconciousness and consciousness join together, learning is improved. Also, we read through Richards and Rodgers (2001,) that:

> The musical background helps to induce a relaxed attitude, which Lozanov refers to as concert pseudo-passiveness. This state is felt to be optimal for learning, in that anxieties and tension are relieved and power of concentration for new material is raised (p.102).

Students are often stressed and anxious in language classes. "Learning a second language can be a stressful and difficult process." (Merrell 2004, p.7). Hence, it can develop a kind of mental block, or affective filter (Chastain, 1988, p.98; Krashen, 1982, p. 32) which in turn can prevent students from language internalization. In such a case, music can reduce their tension and stress (Drowns, 2002; Merrell, 2004; Stansell, 2005), and, in turn bring about better language learning including reading comprehension learning. Moreover, the positive effects that music itself can have on cognitive abilities including language learning in general and reading comprehension in

particular (see, the related literature review) have often taken for granted, especially in Iranian EFL classes.

The significance of the present study can be discussed from two important points of view; firstly most studies regarding the effect of music on reading skills have just been based on exposing the participants to different musical conditions while they are taking a reading test. (see, Cooper, Cotton & Goss 2008; Drowns ,2002; Liapis, Giddens & Uhlenbrok 2008). However, the innovation with regard to this study was that the participants were both taught reading comprehension and tested on it in a music condition. To some extent the context of this study was similar to that of Desuggestopedia classes (a musical context), but with the emphasis on the reading comprehension skill. Secondly, a lot of studies have been conducted with regard to the effect of music on different cognitive abilities like language learning and performance (see, the related literature review); However, there have been very few studies, not to say almost no serious study, concerning the connection between music and language learning in Iran, especially the effect of a piece of classical music (Mozart Sonata) on the reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners. So, this research question can be posed:

Is there any significant difference between the result of reading comprehension performance of the Iranian EFL learners taught reading comprehension passages in a music condition (Mozart Sonata condition) and that of those taught them in a non-music condition?

Review of the related literature

In a study by Rauscher, Shaw and Kelly (1993) that showed the effect of music (Mozart Sonata) on the IQ of college students, the participants who had been exposed to Mozart Sonata for ten minutes scored higher on spatial-temporal reasoning tasks. It is interesting to see that Rauscher, Robinson and Jens (1998) conducted a similar study; this time not on humans but on rats, and achieved almost the same results. Rauscher (1988) reported that the Mozart work caused the rats to complete the maze faster and with fewer errors. She concluded that music effect can contribute to spatial learning of both rats and humans. It is also interesting to notice that an almost similar study was conducted on plants; Retallack (1973) claimed that the plants exposed to soothing music grew abundantly and were extremely healthy.

"Compared with sitting in silence for 10 min, listening to Mozart induces more positive moods and relatively optimal levels of arousal, which lead to higher levels of performance on

tests of spatial abilities" (Schellenberg, 2004, p.511). However, Schellenberg (2004) claims that in subsequent studies replicating the Mozart Effect have been difficult.

In another study by Schellenberg (2004), two groups of students were given two different lessons, namely, music lessons and drama lessons. Before conducting the experiment, the researcher had measured the IQ of the two groups. Having conducted the study, Schellenberg (2004) concluded that in comparison with the drama group, the music group showed greater increases in full-scale IQ, so he asserted that "The effect was relatively small, but it generalized across IQ subtests, index scores, and a standardized measure of academic achievement"(p. 511).

Hallam, Price and Katsarou (2002) reported that in comparison with non-music condition, calming-music condition had better effect on the arithmetic and memory task performance of children, and in a study on the cognitive content drawing of children, Gur (2009) stated that classical music had a positive effect on this cognitive ability in children. More studies have been carried out which indicate the impact of music on general characteristics of the brain such as brain skills, memory, IQ, etc (see also, Rauscher & Zupan, 2000; Stough, kerkin, Bates & Mangan, 1994). Although the results of such studies may have different results at times, they show us that the inevitable effect of music on brain skills and activities cannot be simply underestimated.

Apart from the general effect of music on learners' IQ, brain functions and other cognitive abilities, in the literature of music and learning, specifically language learning, we can find a few studies concerning the different effects of music on the reading comprehension skill. Some of which are mentioned as follows:

Kelly (1981) explored the effect of music on the reading and language arts performance of first graders. The participants of the study were randomly divided into three groups, namely Orff-Schulwerk music, visual arts and control. Having analyzed both quantitative and qualitative data concerning the study, she stated that the effect of music contributed to the improvement of the music group to the level of the visual arts group and the control group, which had been at a higher level than the music group, with respect to reading and related areas. Kelly (1981) concluded that "Music shows a demonstrated potential for enhancing reading and language development in the first grade"(Abstract, para. 1).

In another study by Cooper, Cotton and Goss (2008), the participants were given three different reading comprehension tests to do in three different conditions, namely non-music,

classical music, and lyrical music. The results showed a slightly better performance on the reading comprehension test in the non-music condition, but this difference was not significant (p= 0.94). Later on the researchers of the study recommended equalizing test difficulty before conducting a similar experiment.

In a similar study, Liapis, Giddens and Uhlenbrok (2008) tested the impacts of lyrical and non-lyrical music on reading comprehension. Participants were divided into two groups and each group was asked to read the same article under two different musical conditions, one while listening to a song with lyrics (lyrical condition) and the other while listening to the same song without any lyrics (non-lyrical condition). Participants in the non-lyrical condition had better scores; however, the difference was not significant (p= 0.552).

Drowns (2002) conducted a piece of research to see the effect of classical background music on silent reading comprehension. Although the results showed an improvement, the researcher doubted whether the improvement was due to the sole role of music or other factors were also involved. So, he suggested conducting more studies in this regard to shed light on other factors affecting reading comprehension as well.

Even a few studies were conducted that showed the positive effect of music on the reading skill of children who already had difficulties with their learning and were categorized as slow learners. Nicholson (1972 cited in Hodges & O'Conell, 2005) reported that after having received music instruction, the slow learners got better reading scores than the learners who had not received any music instruction, and the results of Movsesian's study (1967 cited in Hodges, et al., 2005) were in line with those of Nicholson's (1972). In an almost similar study, Register, Darrow, Standley, and Swedberg (2007) reported that music made improvement in the reading skill of the students who had already had disability in reading. However, Lu (1986 cited in Hodges, et al., 2005) who had conducted a similar study did not find any significant differences between the group who had received music instruction and the other who had received no music instruction, and also the findings of Harmon, Pelosi, Pickwick and Troester (2008) showed that there was no significant difference among the three groups (rock group, Mozart group and silence group) on their reading comprehension test.

According to Harmon, et al., (2008) different studies have been conducted regarding the effects of different kinds of music on cognitive abilities and most of them have made use of the Mozart Effect (the benefit of listening to the classical Mozart music over other sorts on learning),

that is why the present study was also based on the effect of Mozart music on reading comprehension.

As it is evident, the results of the above reported studies have not been in line with each other at times. So, it implies that further research is needed to explore the effect of music on cognitive abilities including reading comprehension.

Method

Participants

The participants of this study consisted of 60 Iranian EFL learners. In each group, the control group (CG) and experimental group (EG), there were 15 males and 15 females at the same level of proficiency (level 10) studying English in a major English institute in Iran. They ranged in age from 18 to 25 years with a mean age of 23.

Instruments

Three instruments were utilized to conduct the study. The first instrument was a reading comprehension test which was composed of five passages with 30 multiple-choice items taken from NTC's preparation for the TOEFL (1991). Using KR-21 method of estimating reliability, the researcher estimated the reliability of the test which was 0.83. Regarding the validity of the test, since it was taken from NTC'S preparation for the TOEFL, its validity was taken for granted. The second instrument was Mozart Sonata (K.448, as used by Rauscher, 1993), and the third instrument was a DVD-player (Samsung-P401) to broadcast the music (Mozart Sonata).

Procedure

The participants of the present study belonged to two different classes: one class was treated as the CG and the other as the EG. They attended their classes 3 days a week for 24 sessions (2 months), and each session lasted for 105 minutes. These two groups had the same reading comprehension passages and teacher who was teaching them grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension each session. The average time spent on each of these sections, namely grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension was approximately 30, 35 and 40 minutes respectively. The reading comprehension was being taught within 40 minutes to the end of the class. The procedure to teach reading comprehension was as follows:

1) Warming up on the passage: The teacher asks the students different questions concerning the subject of the passage to draw their attention to what they are going to read. (5 min.)
2) Silent reading: The teacher gives the students enough time to read the passage silently. (10 min.)
3) Asking general questions about the passage: The teacher asks the students general questions, concerning what they have read silently, to answer chorally, and subsequently repeats the general questions to have individual students give complete answers. (5 min.)
4) Paraphrasing the passage: The teacher reads out the passage sentence by sentence, and works on it by paraphrasing the paragraphs, asking detailed questions, and giving synonyms/ antonyms for certain words in the passage. (18 min.)
5) Assignment: The teacher wants the students to read the passage at home once more and make as many questions as they can on it. (2 min)
This five-stage procedure was followed exactly to teach reading comprehension passages to both the CG and EG. The only difference was that the EG was being exposed to music (Mozart Sonata) during teaching the reading comprehension passages.

On the 25_{th} session the two groups (CG and EG) were given the same reading comprehension test, but in different conditions. The CG took the test in a condition where no music was being played; whereas, the EG took it in a condition where music (Mozart Sonata) was being played. The time allotted to take the test was 30 minutes for each group. After the administration of the tests, all the papers were collected and corrected by the researcher.

Data analysis

The data collected in this study were subjected to the following statistical analyses. Firstly, an independent t-test was run to see if there had been any significant differences between the reading comprehension performance of the two groups (CG and EG) in different conditions (music and non- music). Secondly, a two-way ANOVA was also run to see if the music and gender as independent and mediator variables respectively had had any significant effect on the dependent variable which was the reading comprehension performance of the two groups.

Results

The first analysis indicated the difference between the CG and EG concerning the reading comprehension performance.

Table 1 t-test analysis of the non-music(CG) and music group(EG) reading comprehension test scores

Mean difference between non-music group and music group	Non-music group mean	SD	Music group mean	SD	df	t	Sig
	25.43	2.64	27.06	2.28	58	-2.556	*.013

**Significant at confidence level p< 0.05*

Regarding the mean scores of the two groups (music & non-music), we saw that the music group had a better performance on the reading comprehension test than the non-music group (27.06 > 25.43), and this difference in the mean scores was significant (t= -2.556, p< 0.05).

The EG of the study was taught reading comprehension passages in a music condition for two months, and then significantly outperformed the CG on the reading comprehension test. Therefore, the answer to the research question is positive, that is, there is a significant difference between the result of reading comprehension performance of the Iranian EFL learners taught reading comprehension passages in a music condition (Mozart Sonata condition) and that of those taught them in a non-music condition.

Since the present study investigated the effect of music (Mozart Sonata) both on teaching reading comprehension and on testing it, the results were discussed in two respects:

1) Favorable condition: The contribution of music to providing a suitable environment for enhancing language internalization in general.

2) Music effect: The positive effect of music itself on reading comprehension performance in particular.

Regarding 'favorable condition' , this improvement in the EG may relate to Krashen (1982) affective filter hypothesis in that when learners are in unfavorable situations they can develop an affective filter which in turn can reduce language internalization. So, it can be concluded that the music in this study, by reducing stress and negative emotions (Drowns 2002, Merrel 2004 and Stansell, 2005), may have created a favorable condition in which better reading comprehension learning took place.

Regarding ‘music effect’ ,the improving effect of music itself on the reading skill, the result of the present study showed consistency with Kelly's (1981) study in that music had a positive effect on the reading comprehension of the participants. Also, we saw this improving effect in the works of Nicholson and Movsesian (1972, 1967 cited in Hodges, et al., 2005), Drowns (2002) and Register, et al., (2007).

Cooper, et al., (2008) conducted almost a similar study with three different reading comprehension tests of different levels of difficulty; in the end they recommended that other researchers equalize test difficulty for further studies in the future. On their recommendation, in this study the researcher gave just one reading comprehension test from one source (NTC'S preparation for the TOEFL, 1991) to both the CG and the EG. Besides, their research results (Cooper, et al., 2008) indicated a better performance on the reading comprehension tests in a non-music condition, but this difference was not significant ($p= .94$); however, in the present research the students' performance was better in the music condition, and it was significant ($p < 0.05$). Perhaps, one reason for different results in these two studies was that despite Cooper, et al. (2008) the researcher of the present study used one test for the two groups (CG and EG).

To see the effect of the music as an independent variable and gender as a mediator variable and also the effect of the interaction between them on our dependent variable that was the reading comprehension performance of all the participants in the study (CG and EG), we took a look at Tables 2, 3 and Figure 1.

Table 2 Descriptive statistics for the reading comprehension results of the non-music (CG) and music group (EG)

Groups	Gender	Mean	SD	N
Non-music	male	25.8	1.93	15
	female	25.06	3.23	15
	Total	25.43	2.64	30
Music	male	27.33	2.63	15
	female	26.8	1.93	15
	Total	27.06	2.28	30
Total	male	26.56	2.40	30
	female	25.93	2.76	30
	Total	26.25	2.58	60

Figure 1 Males and females' reading comprehension scores in different conditions

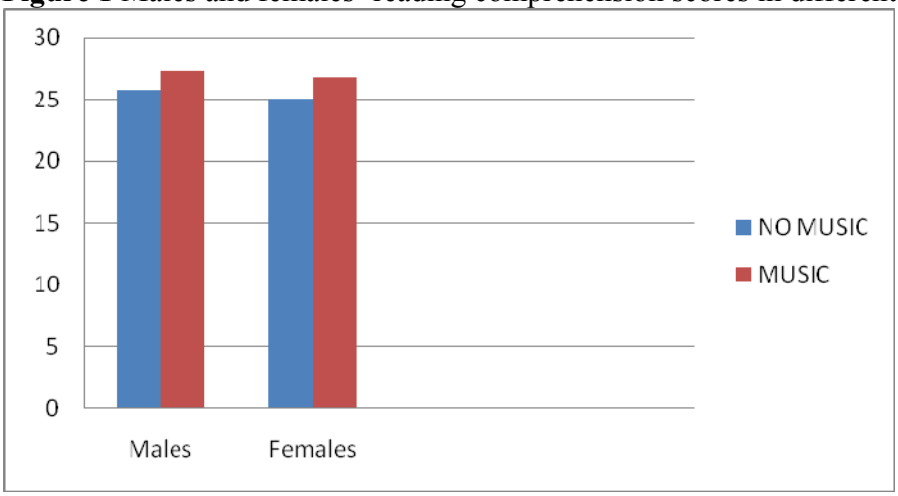


Table 3. Tests of between-subject effects (two-way ANOVA)

Source	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	46.183(a)	3	15.394	2.470	.071
Intercept	41343.750	1	41343.750	6.633E3	*.000
Music	40.014	1	40.014	6.420	*.014
Gender	6.017	1	6.017	.965	.330
Music & Gender	.150	1	.150	.024	.877
Error	349.067	56	6.233		
Total	41739.000	60			
Corrected Total	395.250	59			

a. R Squared= .117 (Adjusted R Squared= .070)

**Significant at confidence level p< 0.05*

Table 2 and Figure 1 gave us the reading comprehension scores based on the participants' gender in the CG (non-music group) as well as in the EG (music group). Seemingly males in both of the groups (CG and EG) had better scores on their reading comprehension performance (26.56>25.93); however, Table 3 showed us that gender did not have a significant effect on the males and females' reading comprehension scores in both of the groups (F=.965, p>0.05). Even the interaction between gender and music did not have any significant effect on the reading

scores (F=0.024, p>0.05), so the only independent variable which made a significant difference in the performance of all the participants of the study may have been music (F=6.420, p<0.05). The results in tables 2 and 3 confirmed the results in table 1 in that seemingly the only effective independent variable in this study was music and not gender.

However, we should bear in mind that in every experimental study researchers cannot easily underestimate the effects of extraneous variables, that is why Drown (2002) felt dubious about the results of his study concerning the effects of other extraneous factors, and suggested conducting more studies in this regard. Hence, the researcher of the present study attempted to eliminate the effects of probable extraneous variables by conducting the study on the participants who belonged to the same level of proficiency (level 10 of the same institute), and giving just the same test from one source (NTC's preparation for the TOEFL) to both the CG and EG with respect to test difficulty, as recommended by Cooper, et al., (2008).

Conclusion

Two groups of Iranian EFL learners belonging to one English institute and also the same level of proficiency were taught and tested reading comprehension under two different conditions (music and non-music) within one term (2 months). The results of the study showed a significant difference between the reading comprehension scores of the two groups regarding the effect of music, but not gender. Therefore, the answer to the research question was positive, that is, there is a significant difference between the result of reading performance of the Iranian EFL learners taught reading comprehension passages in a music condition (Mozart Sonata condition) and that of those taught them in a non-music condition. According to the result of the study, English teachers can make use of music as an effective tool to facilitate language learning and performance. Practically, applying music to all the teaching sections of a language class session may not be possible, but applying it to the reading comprehension section would be beneficial (as the results of the present study showed it), and can bring variety to the language class as well.

References

Chastain, K. (1988). *Developing second language skills: Theory and practice* (3rd ed.). New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Publishers.

Cooper, A., Cotton M., & Goss, S. (2008). The effect of music on reading comprehension. Hanover College. Retrieved August 19, 2010 from http://vault.hanover.edu/~altermattw/methods/assets/posterpics/Fall2008/Cooper_Cotton_and_Goss.pdf

Drowns, M. R. (2002). *The effect of classical background music on fourth-grade silent reading comprehension.* Unpublished M.A. Thesis, Truman State University, Division of Education,Kirksville, Missouri. Retrieved August 19, 2010 from http://www2.truman.edu/~ed27/eg_folio/mdrowns/evidence_reflection/1.2.9/internship_notes.pdf

Gur, C. (2009). Is there any positive effect of classical music on cognitive content of six year- old children in Turkey? *European Journal of Scientific Research, 36*(2), 251-259. Retrieved August 24, 2010 from http://www.eurojournals.com/ejsr_36_2_08.pdf

Hallam, Price & Katsarou (2002). The effects of background music on primary school pupils' task performance. *Educational Studies, 28*(2), 111-122. Retrieved August 24, 2010 from http://coe.georgiasouthern.edu/foundations/bwgriffin/edur7130/RR_backgroundmusic.pdf

Harmon, L., Pelosi, G., Pickwick, T., Troester, K., (2008). The effects of different types of music on cognitive abilities. *Journal of Undergraduate Psychological Research, 3*, 41-46.Retrieved August 20, 2010 from http://library.wcsu.edu/dspace/bitstream/0/456/1/harmon.pdf

Hodges, D.A., & O'Connell,D.S. (2005). The impact of music education on academic achievement. The University of North Carolina at Greensboro. Retrieved August 20, 2010 from http://www.uncg.edu/mus/SoundsOfLearning/AcdemicAchievement.pdf

Jalongo, M. & Bromley, K. (1984). Developing linguistic competence through song. *Reading Teacher, 37*(9), 840-845.

Jolly, Y. (1975). The use of songs in teaching foreign languages. *Modern Language Journal,* 59(1), 11-14.

Kelly, L. L. (1981). *A combined experimental and descriptive study of the effect of music on reading and language.* Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Pennsylvania. Retrieved August 23, 2010 from http://repository.upenn.edu/dissertations/AAI8117801/

Kouri, T. & Telander, K. (2008). Children's reading comprehension and narrative recall in sung and spoken story contexts. *Child Language Teaching and Therapy. 24*(3), 329-349. Retrieved September 2, 2010from http://clt.sagepub.com/content/24/3/329.full.pdf+html

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles & practice in second language acquisition.* Oxford: Pergamon Press. Retrieved August 19, 2010 from http://www.sdkrashen.com/Principles_and_Practice/Principles_and_Practice.pdf

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and principles in language teaching (2nd ed.).*Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Liapis, Z., Giddens, Z. & Uhlenbrock, M. (2008). Effects of lyrical music on reading comprehension. Retrieved August 20, 2010 from http://vault.hanover.edu/~altermattw/methods/assets/posterpics/Fall2008/Giddens_Liapis_and_Uhlenbrock.pdf

Martin, M. (1983). Teaching spelling with music. *Academic Therapy, 18*(4), 505-515.

McCarthy, W. (1985). Promoting language development through music. *Academic Therapy, 21*(2), 237-242.

Merrell, A. (2004). The benefit of incorporating music in the classroom. Retrieved August 19, 2010 from http://Audreymerrell.net/INTASC/INTASC6/the%20benefits%20of%20incorporating%20music.pdf

Rauscher, F. H., Robinson, K.D., & Jens, J. (1998). Improved maze learning through early music exposure in rats. *Neurological Rresearch,20,*427-432. Retrieved August 21, 2010 from http://www.uwosh.edu/psychology/rauscher/NeuroResRat.pdf

Rauscher, F.H., Shaw, G.L. , & Ky, K.N. (1993). Music and spatial task performance. *Nature ,365,* 611.Retrieved August 21, 2010 from http://www.uwosh.edu/psychology/rauscher/Nature93.pdf

Rauscher, F.H., & Zupan, M. (2000). Classroom keyboard instruction improves kindergarten children's spatial-temporal performance: A field experiment. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 15,* 215-228. Retrieved August 21, 2010 from http://www.uwosh.edu/psychology/rauscher/ECRQ.pdf

Register, D., Darrow A. A., Standly, J. & Swedberg, O. (2007). The use of music to enhance reading skills of second grade students with reading disabilities. *Spring*, *44*(1), 23-37. Retrieved September 3, 2010 from http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17419662

Retallack, D., L. (1973). *The sound of music and plants.* Retrieved August 21,2010 from http://www.dovesong.com/positive_music/plant_experiments.asp

Richards, J.C., & Rodgers, T.S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching (2nd ed.).* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Schellenberg, G. (2004). Music lessons enhance IQ. *American Psychological Society, 15*(8), 511-514. Retrieved August 19, 2010 from http://www.psychologicalscience.org/pdf/ps/musiciq.pdf

Stansell,J.W. (2005). *The Use of Music for Learning Languages.* University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. Retrieved August 20, 2010 from http://mste.illinois.edu/courses/ci407su02/students/stansell/Jon_Stansell_The_Use_of_Music_in_Learning_Languages.pdf

Stough, C., Kerkin, B., Bates, T., Mangan, G. (1994). Music and spatial IQ. *Personality Individual Differences, 17*(5), 695.

Title

The Relationship between Spelling and Fluency in EFL Writings: A study based on the AIMS six trait analytic writing rubric – official scoring guide

Author

Farimah Farrahi Moghaddam (M.A.)
Shahid Bahonar University of Kerman, Kerman, Iran

Bio data

Farimah Farrahi Moghaddam M.A. student majoring in General Linguistics at Shahid Bahonar University of Kerman, Kerman, Iran. She received her B.A. degree in 2009. Her research interests comprise a division of areas in applied linguistics: language acquisition, language learning & teaching and psycholinguistics.

Abstract

In this work using a scoring system, the correlation between the spelling score and the fluency in the EFL writings was studied. For this purpose, a dataset of writings has been created by collecting writing samples of university EFL students. The fluency score was measured using *AIMS six trait analytic writing rubric* (2005), while the spelling score was calculated objectively using the word processing software. The relation between these two scores was investigated using statistical tools. Also, the number of words, as an independent parameter was considered. Promising results have been obtained which highlight the important role of writing on the performance of the EFL learners.

Keywords: Writing fluency; EFL writing; Spelling; Evaluation measures; AIMS writing rubric

Introduction

Writing as a very crucial part of language learning has gained more and more popularity in the research tasks of the past decades, and has been mostly studied for the specific language components it is embedded with. Among these components are: cognitive style, cohesion, coherence, collocations, fluency, language use, quality, organization and mechanics of writing

each consisting of different subcategories which could yield in the individuals' varied levels of language proficiency and mastery as a result.

We can make a separation between the mechanism of writing and grammar. The *mechanics of writing* specifies the established conventions for words that a person uses in their documentation. *Grammar* reflects the forms of words and their relationships within a sentence (Read Me First! , 2003). Mechanics itself covers a variety of choices dealing with an EFL writing at hand e.g. capitalization, contractions, numerals, technical abbreviation, spelling and etc. It is normally believed as a common notion that good EFL learners are also prompted to have fairly-established correct language spelling; however, it has almost been overlooked the way one's spelling could correlate with his or her language written fluency. The focus of this study is to assess possible relationships between spelling and language fluency markers in one's writing.

In English language, there is not a one-to-one correspondence between spelling and pronunciation in most cases, for example, several letters may represent a single sound (e.g. to, too, two) or vice versa where a single letter is an indication of different sounds (e.g. call, many, father) (see Fromkin et al., 2003). This makes the learning of spelling rather a matter of dealing with language form and constant exposure to it. At the same time, the situation for the pronunciation is different. For example, in Marinova-Todd et al. (2000, p. 24), it has been stated that: "… given that adults usually have literacy skills that are greatly advanced over their knowledge of the target language from direct exposure, they are often unfamiliar with the pronunciation of words they are asked to read. This can be a particular problem for languages such as English (and French), in which the relationship between spelling and pronunciation can be rather complex".

Fluency is a high level concept which targets the performance of the writing. Fluency is defined (Binder, 1996) as a combination of accuracy plus speed of response that enables competent individuals to function efficiently and effectively in their natural environments. Fluency has also been described as a combination of quality plus pace (Haughton, 1980). As can be seen from these definitions, fluency is a subjective measure. It has been observed that spelling and handwriting practices have assessable impact on measures associated with those skills and also writing fluency (see Graham et al., 2002).

In alphabetic writing languages such as Italian and English in which the pronunciations of the words are reflected through linguistic symbols, a mechanism translates sounds within words into their graphemic forms which are actually letters or letter combinations. The translation may be

very different from one language to another. Some languages such as Italian are considered to be shallow in this translation or orthography. English can be assumed something between shallow orthography and deep orthography. The relation between spelling and pronunciation is little in English and many complex rules should apply. However, the written and spoken forms are still related in the sense of an alphabetic language.

The relation between spoken and written forms of language can be described as follows: the spoken words are broken into individual sounds which can be translated into letter combinations based on some rules. The children learn and acquire the ability of this translation over time, which enables them to see the words as a sequence of broken sounds. This ability is an important bridge between spoken and written forms, and therefore has high impact on the balanced improvement in learning skills (see Perfetti, 1997).

The goal of this paper is to prove in a methodological way that there is a correlation between spelling skills and the quality of writing (fluency). Hence, a collection of writing samples has been built.

The organization of the paper is as follows: in the next section, following research question, the methodology used to collect the data and the definition of the scores and measures are provided. The material and the procedures are discussed later on. Fluency is described afterwards. Following that, the spelling score details are provided. Later, the statistical results and discussions are presented and finally, the conclusion and suggestions for future studies are provided.

Research question

Is there a relationship between writing fluency and spelling?

Methodology

The results of a writing exam set for 40 EFL subjects in their sophomore year and 4th semester of university majoring in English Translation were studied based on two factors namely spelling and fluency. For such a study to take effect, an analytic scoring method was necessary and advantageous (see Park, 2003) for a complete description); necessary because a holistic score could barely provide needed information on the participants' command in the two aforementioned written language components, and advantageous as it revealed students' writing abilities, strengths and weaknesses and could therefore provide a detailed description of the individuals, prompting the analysis section of the study. In terms of holistic scoring, Terry stated that "Since, in holistic

scoring, the entire written text is evaluated as a whole, it is important to establish the specific criteria upon which the evaluation is to be based prior to undertaking the evaluation. This does not mean establishing a catalogue of precise individual errors that might appear, but rather deciding what impact the errors that are present have on the overall tone, structure, and comprehensibility of the writing sample" (1989, p. 49).

For the task to be done, each writing was granted two completely distinct scores; one for the writing fluency and the other for the spell-check. Not to mention, the scores differed in their quantificational quality, i.e. the former was just a mere score representing one's fluency level and it was scored on a 1-6 scale with 6 indicating the highest score and 1 as the lowest (the fluency marker criterion is attached in the appendix and as it is quite evident from this scoring guide, there is no contribution from *spelling* to the fluency score which means independency of fluency score from spelling score.) And in case of the latter, the number was totally different not showing one's spelling score, rather numbering one's wrong spellings (N = total number of wrong spellings in one's writing). In order to get the study focused, extra variables such as mechanics, punctuation and capitalization were expelled out of the study.

Materials and procedures

In the final exam of 'Essay-Writing' which the students have already mastered during the semester, they were asked to write an essay on a topic in English (subjects' native language is Persian) and a time span of one-hour was allocated for the exam. The participants were 40 undergraduate male and female students all of whom shared the same topic: 'Your education up to now'. The selected topic has some advantages and therefore contributes to the study at hand. Most importantly, it covers a general point of view and not a specific one; so, the students' intuitive and primitive sense of achievement and choice of words are triggered here in a way that what is observed is the sole concurrence of students' lexicon which shares certain characteristics like similar word selection, structural use and a regular order of events. All these help with the generality of the topic and thereupon a better and easier comparison inference can be drawn.

In contrast, a more specific topic calls for more accurate analysis of discourse as well as lexical entities both on the students' and the researcher's side serving no good for the special purpose of this study. The shared topic is a key factor for it served as a constant constituent for all subjects. This provides reliable results regarding fluency as well as spell-check and therefore the variety of

words used to describe the topic would be focused and fairly distributed, so the results would not astray that much.

Fluency

To score the written fluency, the official fluency scoring guide (AIMS Six Trait Analytic Writing Rubric – Official Scoring Guide SENTENCE FLUENCY, 2005) was adapted and each student was granted a score accordingly by a human expert. Each student was scored on a 1-6 scale (6 having the highest value). Different parameters listed in appendix were accounted for in scoring the writings.

Spelling

For the validation of the results, the writings were typed carefully as they appeared on the final exam papers. Then Microsoft office 2003 "Spelling check" was employed to distinguish the number of students' spelling errors. The software also could count and provide the total number of words for every single writing. Other statistics could also be found in the Readability Statistics box.

For those proper nouns that the software recognized as spelling errors, cautions were taken. And for misspellings with more than one occurrence, only one of them was considered. Some words having had the wrong spelling manifestation, could not be recognized due to their formal similarities to words carrying other semantic properties; for example, the word "roll" instead of "role" in the sentence "Education plays an important roll …", this malfunctioning and inefficiency was also observed and taken care of to wind up valuable results. The number of words and wrong spellings were each then analyzed against fluency marker.

A kind of spelling error occurred which resulted from disagreement of subject and the verb assigned to it. Vividly, this is a sort of syntactic failure and therefore cannot be considered as mere morphological spelling error. Such grammar errors were dealt with in the fluency scale-based scoring, hence having been expelled out from the study's spelling analysis.

Results and discussion

Each one of the writings was studies against three features: 1) the fluency score, 2) the spelling score, and 3) the number of words. These features constitute an imaginary feature space. The fluency score is given by a human expert in the scale of 1 to 6. The spelling score is actually the number of spelling errors within the writing ignoring multiple instances of the same spell error. The range for this score is from 0 to 20. As a normalization score, the number of words in each writing calculated using the word count tool in the Office software, is used as the third feature. The number of words varies from 156 to 502 across the writings. Below, the information regarding the three aforementioned features can be observed in table 1:

Students	Fluency Score	Spelling Errors	Total Number of Words
1	5	4	247
2	3	0	159
3	4	0	502
4	4	1	249
5	4	3	268
6	3	3	160
7	4	5	229
8	2	11	180
9	3	6	192
10	4	1	410
11	3	20	333
12	4	8	254
13	4	3	173
14	4	3	251
15	3	8	237
16	4	3	373
17	2	8	200
18	3	2	278
19	4	0	260
20	3	2	187
21	4	2	272
22	4	10	267
23	3	2	156
24	4	8	178
25	4	4	175
26	4	9	208
27	4	7	224
28	4	9	305
29	3	6	162
30	3	5	178

31	4	2	317
32	3	1	184
33	3	2	239
34	3	8	194
35	3	2	190
36	3	4	236
37	4	3	190
38	3	9	315
39	3	5	356
40	3	6	184

Table 1. Students' Fluency Score, Spelling Errors and Total Number of Words Used in their Writings

In Figure 1, the scatter plot graph of the three features for the whole writings is shown. As the values of the scores are integer, in order to have a better visualization, the values of the scores in the figures are shaken by adding small random values to them. As it can be seen from Figure 1, the distribution of the writings in the feature space consists of a main cluster and a few small clusters.

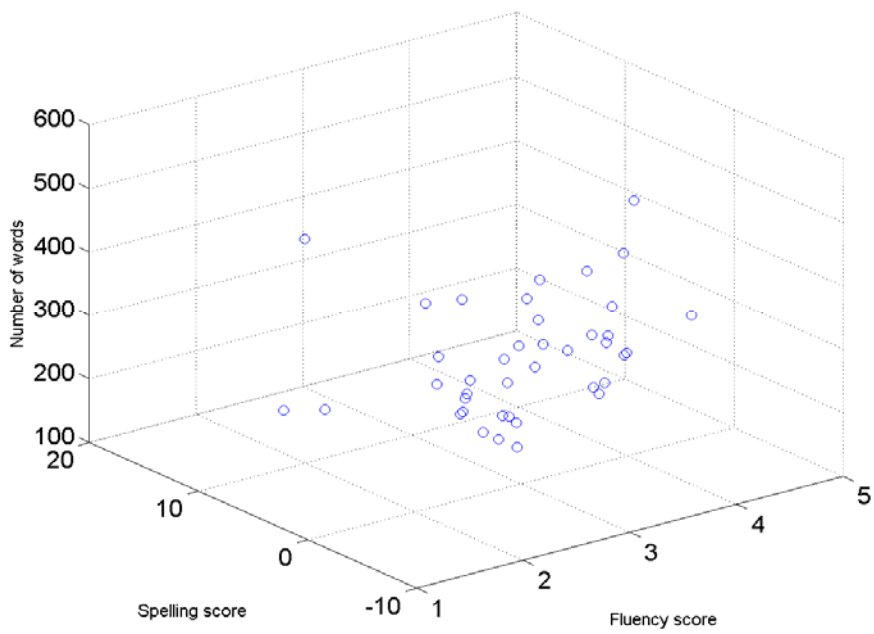


Figure 1. Comparison of Fluency and Spelling Markers against the Number of Words Graph

First, we study the relationship between the fluency score and the spelling score. Figure 2 shows the distribution of the writings with respect to these two variables. Although the points are very

scattered, a relation between the fluency score and the spelling score can be inferred. For this purpose, fitting of a polynomial function on the scattered data points in the form of regression is considered. For the sake of stability, a regression of order three (which means a polynomial of order three) is fitted on the data:

$$S = a_3 F^3 + a_2 F^2 + a_1 F + a_0$$

where S is the spelling score and F is the fluency score. The coefficients a_i, $i = 0, \cdots, 3$, are calculated in such a way that the error between fitted polynomial and the data points is minimized. If we use the regression of order three on these data using *Matlab* Software (V.7), the following relation will be obtained:

$$S = -0.5205\ F^3 + 6.5102\ F^2 - 27.1067 F + 41.8363 \qquad (1)$$

As it can be seen from the relation (1), and also from the figure, the spelling error reduces as the fluency scores increase. Also, there is a saturation effect when the fluency score becomes higher than 4, which shows when the fluency gets very high, we cannot still expect that the spelling error goes down. After a certain level, the spelling error will be almost constant.

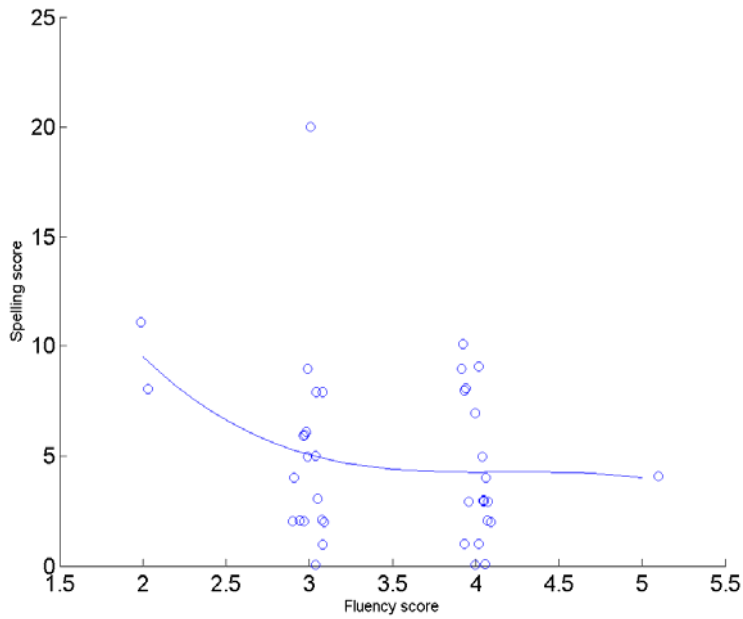


Figure 2. Fluency and Spelling Correlation Graph

The relationship between the fluency score and the number of words is studied in Figure 3. Again a relation between these two variables is evident by means of the following regression formula:

$$W = -8.0567F^2 + 94.0709F + 15.4113 \qquad (2)$$

where W is the number of words. As can be seen from figure 3, there is an increase in the number of words as fluency scores increase. It is reasonable so as a person with better fluency is more likely to write a longer writing.

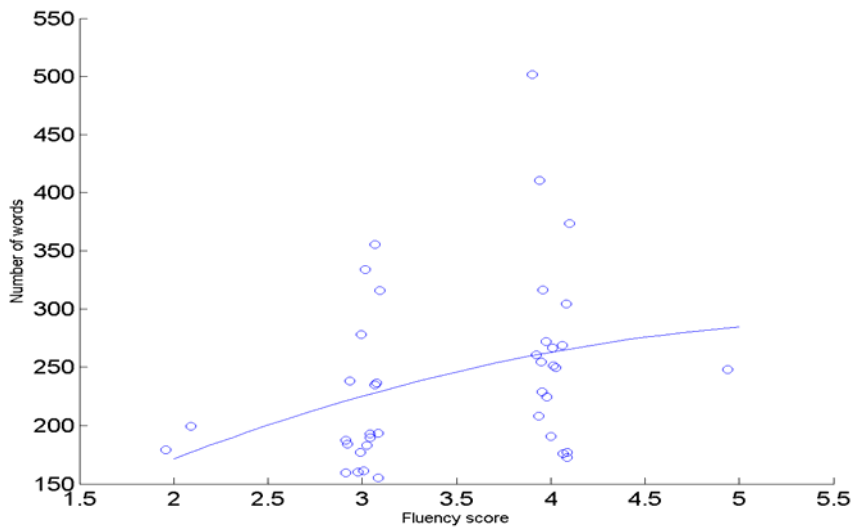


Figure 3. Fluency and Number of the Words Graph

Finally, a relationship between the spelling score and the number of words is sought. Figure 4 shows the scatter plot graph for the spelling score and the number of words. It is obvious from this figure that there is no relationship between these two variables as expected and they are completely independent. This fact is emphasized by the cross correlation value between them: -0.0238 which is very close to zero. The cross correlations between the fluency and the spelling, and the fluency and the number of words are -0.2314 and 0.3292 respectively.

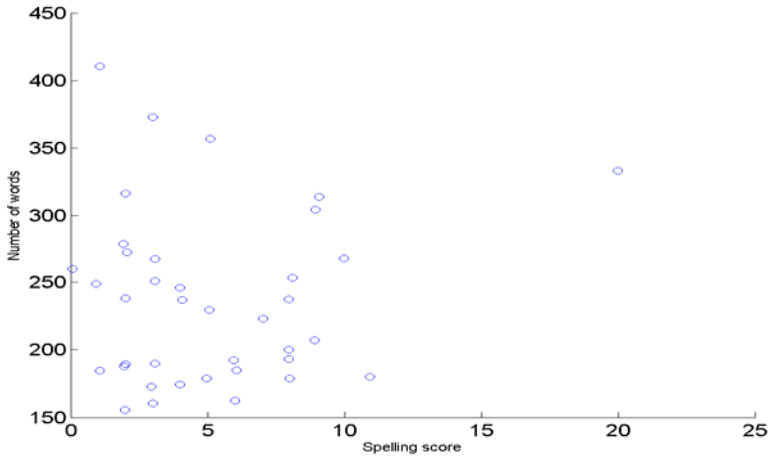


Figure 4. Spelling and Number of the Words Graph

Conclusion

Following the demonstrations and illustrations made in previous sections, these results are drawn:

1. There is a measurable relationship between writing fluency and the total number of words in a specific writing.

2. There is no observed relationship between spelling and the total number of words in a specific writing. Spelling score proved to be independent regardless of the text size.

3. There is a relationship between writing fluency and spelling, the one we sought to prove; the more fluent the writing is, the less spelling errors are reported.

As discussed, the study was done on a limited 40-subject basis centered round a limited description of what had to be written in the final exam. This further directs the studies of this kind and future endeavors to maintain this purpose in vaster studies for which a wider range of responding vocabulary could be set and a wider data set could be employed, i.e. more subjects be studied on the basis of fixed explanatory rules of the language and discourse analysis highlighting their impact on spelling mechanism and recognition in written texts (employment of correct spelling in writing). One aspect of such studies could cover the impact of gender (extending the role of different parameters by observing their relations) on sole spelling or fluency to seek deeper possible relationships.

What was done here largely dealt with what is known as fluency scoring based on AIMS scoring guide (2005) (cf. appendix). Further application of such an element in writing and its coordination with spelling following a deep analysis which would involve the average fluency

score of single sentences in writing is of importance and promising in future researches. Seeking possible interrelations of written and spoken fluency is another dimension of such studies to provide straightforward and conceivable description of the hidden mechanisms of language.

References

AIMS Six Trait Analytic **W**riting Rubric. (2005). Arizona Department of Education, 2005. Retrieved December 2009, from: http://www.tuhsd.k12.az.us/dvh/Students/research%20handbook/SentenceFluency.pdf

Binder, C. (1996). Behavioral fluency: Evolution of a new paradigm. *The Behavior Analyst,19,* 51-84.

Fromkin, V., Rodman, R., & Hyams, N. (2003). *An introduction to language (7th ed.).* Boston: Thomson.

Graham, S., Harris, K. R., & Chorzempa, B. F. (2002). Contribution of spelling instruction to the spelling, writing, and reading, or poor spellers. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 94,* 669-686.

Haughton, E.C. (1980). Practicing practices: Learning by activity. *Journal of Precision Teaching, 1(3),* 3-20.

Marinova-Todd, S. H., Marshall, D. B., & Snow, C. E. (2000). Three misconceptions about age and L2 learning. *TESOL Quarterly, 34(1),* 9-34.

Park, T. (2003). Scoring Procedures for Assessing Writing. in Commentaries on Current Issues in Second Language Assessment, *Columbia University Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics, 3(1).*

Perfetti, C.A. (1997). The psycholinguistics of spelling and reading. In C.A. Perfetti, L. Rieben, & M. Fayol (Eds.), Learning to spell. Research, theory and practice across Languages, 21-38. NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Sun Technical Publications. (2003). *Read Me First! A Style Guide for the Computer Industry (2nd ed.).* Prentice Hall PTR.

Terry, R. M. (1989). Teaching and Evaluating Writing as a Communicative Skill. *Foreign Language Annals. 22 (1),* 43-54.

AIMS Six Trait Analytic Writing Rubric – Official Scoring Guide

SENTENCE FLUENCY

6	5	4
The writing has an effective flow and rhythm. Sentences show a high degree of craftsmanship, with consistently strong and varied structure that makes expressive oral reading easy and enjoyable. The writing is characterized by • a natural, fluent sound; it glides along with one sentence flowing effortlessly into the next. • extensive variation in sentence structure, length, and beginnings that add interest to the text. • sentence structure that enhances meaning by drawing attention to key ideas or reinforcing relationships among ideas. • varied sentence patterns that create an effective combination of power and grace. • strong control over sentence structure; fragments, if used at all, work well. • stylistic control; dialogue, if used, sounds natural.	The writing has an easy flow and rhythm. Sentences are carefully crafted, with strong and varied structure that makes expressive oral reading easy and enjoyable. The writing is characterized by • a natural, fluent sound; it glides along with one sentence flowing into the next. • variation in sentence structure, length, and beginnings that add interest to the text. • sentence structure that enhances meaning. • control over sentence structure; fragments, if used at all, work well. • stylistic control; dialogue, if used sounds natural.	The writing flows; however, connections between phrases or sentences may be less than fluid. Sentence patterns are somewhat varied, contributing to ease in oral reading. The writing is characterized by • a natural sound; the reader can move easily through the piece, although it may lack a certain rhythm and grace. • some repeated patterns of sentence structure, length, and beginnings that may detract somewhat from overall impact. • strong control over simple sentence structures, but variable control over more complex sentences; fragments, if present, are usually effective. • occasional lapses in stylistic control; dialogue, if used, sounds natural for the most part, but may at times sound stilted or unnatural.
3	**2**	**1**
The writing tends to be mechanical rather than fluid. Occasional awkward constructions may force the reader to slow down or reread. The writing is characterized by • some passages that invite fluid oral reading; however, others do not. • some variety in sentences structure, length, and beginnings, although the writer falls into repetitive sentence patterns. • good control over simple sentence structures, but little control over more complex sentences; fragments, if present, may not be effective. • sentences which, although functional, lack energy. • lapses in stylistic control; dialogue, if used, may sound stilted or unnatural.	The writing tends to be either choppy or rambling. Awkward constructions often force the reader to slow down or reread. The writing is characterized by • significant portions of the text that are difficult to follow or read aloud. • sentence patterns that are monotonous (e.g., subject-verb or subject-verb-object). • a significant number of awkward, choppy, or rambling constructions.	The writing is difficult to follow or to read aloud. Sentences tend to be incomplete, rambling, or very awkward. The writing is characterized by • text that does not invite—and may not even permit—smooth oral reading. • confusing word order that is often jarring and irregular. • sentence structure that frequently obscures meaning. • sentences that are disjointed, confusing, or rambling.

©Oregon Department of Education. All rights reserved.

Title

Evaluation of "English for the Students of Management" by, Farhad Moshfeghi

Author

Zahra Fakher Ajabshir (Ph.D. candidate)
Payame Noor University, Tehran, Iran

Bio data

Zahra Fakher Ajabshir is a Ph.D candidate at the Payme Noor University, Tehran, Iran. She is a lecturer at the Payame Noor University of Bonab. She has presented several papers at conferences and translated a book. Her area of interest is language syllabus design and SL/FL teaching methodology.

Abstract

While the quality of ESP textbooks has improved dramatically in recent years, the problem of selecting an appropriate textbook has not become any easier for most teachers and administrators. There is a need for regular evaluation of ESP textbooks in order to make the best choice. This paper evaluates "English for the Students of Management" written by Moshfeghi, F. It is taught for the ESP course of the students of Management at some Payame Noor universities in Iran. The study focuses on the attitudes of the students and the teachers towards this book and the rectifications required in the light of the participants' responses. Two types of Likert style questionnaires were administered among students and instructors. Results show that from the participants' point of view the major deficiencies were in relation to the author's approach to language and methodology, lack of balance between language skills and insufficient inclusion of communicative activities. This implies a need to modify those parts of the textbook which have not received satisfactory ratings by the participants.

Keywords: ESP textbook, textbook evaluation, layout and design, subjects and content, language type

Introduction

Teaching materials are a key component in most language programs. Whether the teacher uses the textbook, institutionally prepared materials or makes use of his or her own materials, instructional materials generally serve as the basis for much of the language input learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom. Instructional materials can be used as a form of professional development for teachers and faster autonomous learning strategies for students. According to Richards and Renandya (2002), instructional materials may take the form of (a) printed materials such as textbook and worksheet (b) nonprint materials such as cassette or audio materials and materials that compose both print and nonprint materials such as materials on the internet. In this paper the concern is with textbooks in the field of ESP.

The importance of textbook is incontrovertible for it determines the main path for classroom teaching and student learning. Although choosing a textbook is daunting, it has a significant influence on the ability of students to meet their language learning objectives and affects both the process of learning and outcomes. It seems that no learning/teaching situation is complete until it has its relevant textbook. Yet, the feeling is that most textbooks used in the ESP context are in various ways deficient. The utility of most ESP/ELT textbooks has been questioned because approach and methodology are overemphasized at the expense of more essential factors like content validity, the accuracy of the given examples and explanations, and the coverage of the provided exercises (Robinson, 1980). Despite the importance of textbook, there has been little research in terms of how and why textbooks are selected and it continues to be a contentious issue for many teachers and researchers. In order to make the best use of a textbook, it is necessary to investigate its different aspects, examine its strengths and weaknesses and compare it against an assessment tool. According to instructors and expert comments, evaluation and revision of the books should be done regularly in order to remove the potential flaws.

The present ESP textbooks used in Iran are published by the Center for Studying and Compiling University Books in Humanities (SAMT) . Although the contents of these textbooks are compiled by professional experts and TEFL professors, they are criticized widely by researchers and curriculum writers. A careful evaluation of textbooks is strongly needed in order to pinpoint the flaws and deficiencies in the books and correct them. The present study evaluates an ESP textbook for the students of Management in undergraduate programs at Iranian

universities. The main motif is not to criticize the textbook but to assist the teachers in removing the faults and providing them with some suggestions for modifications.

In an attempt to provide comments on ESP textbook amendments, this study has been conducted to answer the following question:

Research question:

To what degree different sections of "English for the Students of Management" are acceptable or need rectifications?

Literature review

The role of textbooks in ELT classrooms

There are many different components in ELT classrooms, but one of the essential constituents of many ELT classrooms are textbooks in general and ESP textbooks in particular. Yet, there appears to be very little published research on the exact role of textbooks in language teaching and learning. Allwright (1981) suggested two key positions in this area: the first is the "deficiency view" which suggests that the role of the textbook is to compensate for the deficiencies of the teachers and ensure that the syllabus is covered. The basic assumption underlying this view is that "good" teachers know what materials to use and can create them; hence, they do not need published materials. The second view is "difference view" which sees the role of textbook as carriers of decisions made by someone other than teacher. Huthinson and Torres (1994) see the textbook as the "possible agent for change". However, there are some conditions for this to be achieved. First, the textbook should be a vehicle for teacher and learner training and should also include learning how to learn suggestions. Second, the textbook should provide the teacher with help and support for classroom management. Third, it should give the teacher an overall view of what the change will look like and how to implement it. Fourth, when the textbook adopted by school, it can result in shared responsibility and commitment for the change. The other function of the textbook is its role as a structuring tool. Most of the classes in general and communicative language classes in particular are inherently unpredictable and threatening to the participants. According to Richards and Renandya (2002), textbooks can play a key role in "social routinization", the process by which classroom interaction becomes increasingly stereotyped to reduce the unpredictability and the stress. In fact, textbooks provide the structure that the teaching/learning system requires.

Some advantages and disadvantages of textbooks

Proponents of textbooks argue that it is the most convenient form of presenting materials and offer considerable advantages for both the student and the teacher when the textbooks are used in the EFL classrooms. According to Haycroft (1998), one of the primary advantages of using textbooks is that the students' achievement can be measured. It gives learners a sense of cohesion, system and progress. It helps teachers to prepare and the learners to revise. Sheldon (1988) argued that since the textbook is regularly subject to revision by experts, it has more credibility then teacher-made materials. O'Neil (1982) asserted that even if the textbook is not specifically designed for the students' needs , it is sensitive to most of the learners' requirements. He pointed out that the textbook is efficient in terms of time and money because it involves low lesson preparation time, whereas teacher-generated materials may be time, cost and quality defective. The other advantage suggested by Cunningworth (1995) is that textbook may serve some additional roles in classrooms. It can be a source of ideas and activities, a syllabus for systematizing the teaching/learning process and support for less experienced teachers. Huthinson and Torres (1994) identified that the textbook can play an essential role in innovation. It can provide the teachers with new methodologies, introduce change gradually and assist the teachers to build a creative methodology of their own.

Crowford (1990) discussed the advantages of using textbooks: (a) textbooks provide the structure and a central core for the process of teaching and learning; (b) they can standardize instruction. By the use of the same textbook in different classes we can get sure that all the students get the same content and can be tested in the same way; (c) since the textbooks are written on the basis of sound criteria and principles, they can maintain quality; (d) they provide the learners with a variety of resources. Most of the textbooks are accompanied by a CD, cassette and video; (e) they can provide language models and input and are especially useful for inexperienced teachers and the teachers who are not native speakers of English. Thus, they can be a primary source of training teachers (f) they are visually appealing. Most textbooks have high standards of design and production and hence are appealing to students.

While the above-mentioned researchers pointed out the extensive benefits of using textbooks, some resaerchers criticize textbooks. These criticisms may arise from the fact that the very visibility of the textbook makes it publicly accountable than the teacher-generated materials.

Allwright (1981), for instance, suggested that textbooks are too inflexible and reflect the psychological and linguistic preferences of their authors. Therefore, the classroom setting may be influenced by external objectives and viewpoints of the author. In this fashion, textbooks determine and control the methods, processes and procedures of language teaching and learning. Moreover, there is a threat that the pedagogic principles of the textbook may be conflicting or contradictory to the objectives of the course. More recent authors have criticized textbooks for their inherent social and cultural biases. They demonstrated that there are some examples of gender bias, sexism and stereotyping (Porreca, 1984; Florent and Walter, 1989; Clarke and Clarke, 1999).They described some gender inequalities like the relative invisibility of the female characters, stereotyping including social roles, occupations, relationships and action as well as linguistic biases such as sexist language. Such inequalities may reflect the unequal power relationships that are prevalent in many cultures.

Crawford (1990) identified the negative effects of the textbooks. He asserted that textbooks (a) may distort the content because they often present an idealized, white and middle class view of the world and avoid the controversial issues; (b) since most of textbooks are written for global market, they may not reflect the specific needs of the learners in a particular setting; (c) they can deskill the teachers. When the textbooks make the major instructional decisions in the classroom, the teacher may be marginilized and his role may be reduced to that of a technician whose primary function is to present materials prepared by others. Along similar lines, Tomlinson (2001) argued that a textbook is inevitably superficial and reductionist in its coverage of language points and in its provision of language experience, it cannot cater for the diverse needs of all its users, it imposes uniformity of syllabus and approach, and it removes initiative and power from teachers.

Textbook evaluation

There is no denying the fact that textbooks maintain enormous popularity and are most definitely here to stay. Since 1970, there has been a trend toward learner-centered instruction and textbooks have become the most important resources for achieving the aims and objectives and meeting the learner needs. Moreover, textbooks should not determine the objectives or become the aims, but they should be at the service of teachers or learners (Brown, 1995). Furthermore, for any given set of materials especially ESP textbooks , the choice is not between using or rejecting the

textbooks, but adaptation as a third alternative is effective (Allwright,1981). In order to adopt a textbook we should evaluate it and examine the ways in which textbook is sensitive to learning–teaching process. Textbook adopters should make every effort to establish and apply a wide variety of relevant and contextually appropriate criteria for the evaluation of textbooks that are going to be used. According to Cunnigworth (1984), there is a need to ensure that the textbook is selected carefully and it reflects the needs of the learners and the aims, methods and values of the teaching program. Attention should be given to principles and procedures for developing criteria for specific situation in which the textbook is used.

There are several reasons for textbook evaluation. Sheldon (1988) suggested that the selection of ESP textbooks is an important administrative and educational decision in which there is considerable professional, financial and political investment. A careful evaluation enables the teaching staff of a specific institution or organization to discriminate between all of the available textbooks in the market and choose the best one. Indeed,, it provides a sense of familiarity with the content of the books and assists the educators in identifying the particular strengths and weaknesses of textbooks. The other reason for textbook evaluation is that it can be very useful in teacher development and professional growth. Cunningworth (1995) asserted that textbook helps teachers go beyond the impressionistic assessments and assists them to get useful, accurate and systematic insights into the overall nature of the textbook. It can be a means of conducting action research and formal professional empowerment and improvement.

It should be noted that textbook evaluation is a subjective activity and there is no general list of criteria that can be applied to all teaching-learning contexts without considerable modifications. Checklists used for evaluation should be on the basis of sound principles. Brown (1995) stated that evaluation checklists should have some criteria related to physical characteristics of textbooks such as layout, organizational and logistical characteristics. Other additional criteria that should be incorporated are those that take into account the methodology of the textbook, its aims and approaches and the extent to which it is not only teachable but also fits the individual teachers' approach as well as the overall curriculum of the organization. Furthermore, criteria should analyze the language, content, grammar and functions that are covered by the textbook. Finally, textbook evaluation should assess the degree to which the cultural components are represented and the linguistic items, subjects and topics fit the personalities, interests and needs of the learners, teachers and the institution.

Methodology

This study reports on a survey conducted at the Payame Noor university of Bonab, East Azerbaijan, Iran for the purpose of evaluating and analyzing an ESP textbook (English for the Students of Management by Moshfeghi, 2008). This book is being used for the ESP course of undergraduate students of Management in some universities. The book was published by the Organization for Researching and Composing University Textbooks in Humanities (SAMT Publications).

While the decision to use and evaluate a particular textbook is sometimes left up to individual teachers, some researchers have pointed out that this activity is more effective if it is done collectively undertaken by everyone involved in the process of learning or teaching. For instance, Chambers (1997) suggested that when instructional materials are to be used by a large group of teachers or learners, it is sensible to evaluate these kinds of materials by all or most of the people who are involved. As such, this study relied on the active participation of all eight of the ESP course instructors as well as eighty-three students majoring in Management. The students were both male and female ranging in age from 19 to 33 and they had passed their General English course. The instructors were both male and female with the age range of twenty-six to fifty-nine.

For the purpose of this study two types of questionnaires for students and teachers were administered (see appendix IV). They were previously used by Litz,(1995).The student questionnaire consisted of twenty-five items in four categories: **(a) practical considerations** which consisted of some questions on the cost, accessibility, publication , supplementary audio materials and the author's view on language and pedagogy; **(b) layout and design**, which contained some questions on the overall organization and structure of the textbook, clarity of the objectives and guidelines in the book, adequacy of vocabulary lists, grammar exercises, evaluation questions and review sections; **(c) activities** that questioned the nature of exercises and tasks in terms of how they get use of meaningful practice, group work, realistic contexts and promote independent response; **(d) skills** which elicited students' opinions on the extent to which the textbook focuses on four language skills and their sub skills hence providing a balance of them. On the other hand, the teacher questionnaire was composed of forty items in seven categories. Apart from four categories mentioned in the student questionnaire, it consisted of the

following sections**(e) language type** which was concerned with the nature of the language used in the textbook, authenticity of the language, the level of the language, progression of different items, use of adequate examples and explanations and diversity of the language; **(f) subject and content** that elicited the participants" responses on the degree to which the content is realistic, motivating, challenging and culturally unbiased; **(g) other considerations** which consisted of some questions on the amount of appropriateness of the textbook for the aims of the specific institution and the students.

To ensure the reliability of the questionnaires, the researcher made use of test-retest method of estimating reliability. Following the first administration, the same questionnaires were re-administered to the same participants after a week. The reliability index obtained was .8325 for student questionnaire and .9136 for the teacher questionnaire implying higher degree of reliability.

The questionnaires consisted of Likert scale items that required participants to choose from among ten options ranging from highly disagree to highly agree. The overall averages obtained were fairly indicative of participants' perspectives on different parts of the textbook. In the next section the items in the checklists will be discussed in detail. After administering the questionnaires, the raw data was analyzed by computer using SPSS software, version 11.

Discussion

The present study aims to evaluate an ESP textbook, namely "English for the Students of Management" by Moshfeghi, (2008). The researcher intended to answer the following question:
To what degree different sections of "English for the Students of Management" are acceptable or need rectifications?

To gather data, questionnaires were employed and on the basis of the students' and teachers' responses to different categories in the checklist the results were interpreted. Figure 1 shows the overall average of participants' responses per question (see appendix I). For convenience of interpretation, the results were represented in charts (see Appendix II & III).With regard to each category in the checklist, the results are as follows:

A. Practical considerations

One of the most important starting points in any textbook evaluation is the analysis of the authors' credentials. The author of "English for the Students of Management" is Farhad Moshfeghi. There is no information about the author's formal education or amounts or types of teaching, curriculum/syllabus and materials development experience. This makes it difficult to get sure that whether or not the author has a recognized standing in the field of ESP.

Another important point that is relevant to choosing a textbook is its cost. The data shows that both the students and the teachers did not find the textbook too costly. An additional concern is the accessibility of the textbook. It should be currently in print and readily available in the market. Most of the books published by SAMT Publications are easily available in the market. The responses suggest the same thing. Most of the students and the teachers rated the book as being relatively accessible. Another point worth mentioning is that it is the last edition of the book, 2008.

The book contains no supplementary materials like teacher guide or audio tapes. This is one of the negative features of the book. Like most of the books written for ESP in Iran, it does not contain the accessories' package.

An additional criterion is the author's approach to teaching. The simplest and quickest way to be informed about this issue is to examine the back cover of the book. But in the book under study there are no notations on the author's ideology toward language leaning and methodology. A careful examination of the book shows that it is mostly adhered to grammatical approaches to language teaching, for particular emphasis is placed on grammatical structures, lexical development and reading skills. The focus is not on establishing communicative competence. Most of the activities are presented and practiced through the use of bottom-up processing strategies. The responses imply that most of the students did not prefer the approach employed by the author. However, it is interesting to note that more than half of the teachers regarded the methodology highly. This may suggest that many of the author's views about language learning and teaching were fairly comparable with beliefs and opinions of the teachers.

B. Layout and design

The layout and design of the textbook reflects its organization and presentation of language items and activities. In the book under study, the leaning objectives are not presented clearly. There is

no detailed outline of the items presented in the book. It seems that the author has sufficed to table of contents at the beginning of the book and the book does not provide the students with an overview of the topic, functions, structures and the vocabulary covered in the book. Responses imply that most teachers and students agreed that the layout and design were appropriate and clear. We see coherence and systematicity in sequencing and presenting materials in each unit.

A brief overview of the organization of different sections in each unit may be demonstrative. The items are organized as follows: (1) a reading comprehension text followed by some comprehension exercises such as true/false items, multiple choice questions and answering the questions orally; (2) language production which is consisted of some questions about the specific meanings of some highlighted words in passage as well as some exercises that elicit the appropriate form of the words from the students. This section is followed by a cloze test; (3) another passage which was designed for improving reading comprehension skills followed by some comprehension exercises; (4) finally, a passage provided for translation and requires the students to find the meaning of some words and expressions highlighted in the passage.

Less than half of the students and teachers agreed that there was not an adequate list or glossary of vocabulary. Moreover, no review unit was included in the students' books and it is a problem with the book. An additional drawback is that there are no evaluation quizzes or testing suggestions in the book. Including these kinds of tests is of importance, for it gives the students some hints or guidelines about how the sample tests may be. Furthermore, no answer key of the exercises was included in the book. It might be somewhat problematic for some students who wish to use the book for independent and/or additional study. This problem may be more serious in Payame Noor universities in which there is not an adequate amount of sessions allocated for covering the book. An additional problem with this book is the lack of teacher book which might hamper the execution of lesson preparation by inexperienced teachers who wish to rely on the teacher manual for most of their teaching ideas, strategies and lesson planning.

C. Activities

As it was mentioned earlier, the book under study is deficient in terms of the amount of activities that encourage communicative practice. Grammar Translation Method is highly reflected in Iranian educational system. Most of Iranian classrooms are teacher-centered and learning is the result of drills and memorization. Most textbooks reflect this idea and meaning-focused

activities, student-centeredness and fluency are deemphasized. These types of deficiencies are typical of most ESP textbooks. The students' responses confirm this issue, for most of them asserted that the book was lacking in communicative and meaningful practice. Furthermore, most of the activities are done individually and there is no room for group work. Most of students and half of the teachers agreed that the grammatical points and lexical items are not introduced in a motivating way. This may be due to the fact that the organization, sequence and the nature of the activities and exercises of every unit are identical to the next unit. This tends to make the book seem redundant and boring after a few lessons. This may also reduce the creativity and originality of the responses produced by the students. It is interesting that more than half of the students and teachers agreed that any deficiencies in the textbook could be overcome through adaptation and supplementation.

D. Skills

As it was demonstrated by the students' responses, "English for the Students of Management" is not a multi-skill syllabus and it does not integrate productive and receptive skills equally. It puts emphasis on reading and to less extent writing. There is little or no emphasis on speaking or listening skills. The results show that the students are unhappy with the representation of the skills that they felt deserved attention. Most of EFL students in Iran have spent years learning grammar in schools; but after some years of study they cannot converse in English. Thus, they subsequently preoccupy with the desire to make some conversations in English and they wish to focus on speaking and listening skills in the classrooms. However, in actual experience most of the class time is devoted to reading and writing. Moreover, with regard to sub skills, there is no emphasis on speaking and listening sub skills and reading and writing sub skills are rarely focused on. This is one of the weak points of the book. With respect to prosodic skills, the results demonstrated that units contained no exercises devoted to the teaching of stress and intonation. Lack of emphasis on pronunciation is a typical problem of most ELT textbooks which is also apparent in this book. Levis (1999) suggested that pronunciation problems are typical in both traditional and modern ELT textbooks. The educators can compensate for these shortcomings by thinking differently about the uses of prosodic patterns and the needs and abilities of learners. Shortcomings of this book in the skills area might be lessened if the teachers supplement the

book with some techniques and principles that are designed to foster both receptive and productive skills and provide an appropriate balance of them.

E. Language type

The teachers' responses imply that the language used in the textbook is not realistic and representative of real life language use. However, with regard to language level used in the book, it appears that more than half of the teachers are happy with it. In terms of grammatical points and vocabulary, there is an emphasis on repetition and recycling. This is more apparent about vocabulary, for most of the vocabulary introduced are repeated and recycled in the controlled practice activities in the following units. However, grammar is not presented with adequate examples and explanations and the results revealed that most respondents were disappointed with it.

One of the major weak points of the book is that there is very little emphasis on language functions. Although language functions are essential aspects of linguistic knowledge, they are undervalued and the focus is on usage rather than use. There are no functions that exemplify the language that the students are likely to use. It may be problematic for the students who wish to use language as a requirement for their career. Furthermore, there is no diversity in terms of register and accent. The language used in the book is being used in formal situations and there are no samples of language that may be used in informal situations.

F. Subject and content

About half of the teachers asserted that the textbook was relevant to the students' needs. Some teachers stated that the subject and content of the textbook was realistic and that there was relevance between the content of the book and the students' real life needs. Most of them were satisfied with the variety of subjects and topics included in the book as well as the extent to which the book is challenging and motivating. Also, it appears that the author sought to avoid stereotypes and biases of race, gender and cultural biases in the book.

G. Other considerations

Despite some shortcomings with this book, the teachers felt that it was suitable for the aims of their institution. They believed that the book was suitable for small, medium, homogenous and

co-ed classes of university. It was found that the textbook raised the students' interest in further study and encouraged their voluntary learning. The responses imply that the teachers are relatively satisfied with the book and they were likely to choose it again for teaching purposes.

Conclusion

While program developers, educators and teachers are often under pressure to choose a textbook, most of them are not trained or qualified for this purpose. The task of textbook selection is more demanding with regard to ESP textbooks, for the number of ESP textbooks to choose from, is less compared with general ELT textbooks. So, there is a need for regular evaluation of ESP textbooks in order to make some modifications and adapt them for particular needs and aims. The aim of this study was to identify the perceived flaws of "English for the Students of Management" in order to make it compatible with the current needs of the students. It should be asserted that the purpose of this study was not to criticize the book, but to analyze it and provide some suggestions and comments in order to make some adaptations and use it more efficiently.

The results indicated that despite its strengths, the book still has some shortcomings. The organization of this book reflects a grammar-based syllabus and its major focus is on form. There are a few activities in relation to the communicative use of language and linguistic functions. Controlled language practice tends to predominate free language activities and it is one of the major problems with the book. This finding corroborates the findings of a similar study who suggested that the majority of exercises or activities in ESP textbooks of Humanities in Iran are text-based and structural, hardly involving students in developing language skills and communicative ideas (Zangani,2009) . Moreover, there is not an integrated balance of the skills. It puts emphasis on improving reading skills and to less extent writing skills, overlooking speaking and listening and their sub skills. Nowhere in the book there are any tasks where pronunciation is covered. An additional problem is that no supplementary materials are accompanied by the textbook. It makes the book relatively difficult for autonomous study. Furthermore, there are no evaluation quizzes or review sections included in the book. Also, no answer keys for the exercises are provided. This may be problematic for the students who want to use the book for independent and additional study. Another point is that no teacher manual is available for this book. Thus, the execution of lessons may be problematic for the teachers

especially the inexperienced ones. Finally, the language of the book is formal and there is no diversity in terms of register and accent.

References

Allwright, R.W. (1981). What do we want teaching materials for*? ELT Journal*, 36(1), 56-93.

Brown, J. (1995). *The elements of language curriculum.* Heinle and Heinle Publishers.

Chambers, F. (1997). Seeking consensus in course book evaluation. *ELT Journal*. 51(1), 67-76.

Clarke, J. and Clarke, M.(1990). *Stereotyping in TESOL materials.* Modern English Publications.

Crawford,J. (1990).How authentic is the language in our classrooms? *Prospect*, 6(1), 47- 54.

Cunningsworth, A. (1995). *Choosing your course book*. Heinemann.

Cunningsworth, A. (1984). *Evaluating and selecting EFL teaching materials*. London: Heinemann ,Educational Books.

Florent, J. and C. Walter. (1989). A Better Role for Women in TEFL. *ELT Journal,* 43(3), 45-78.

Haycroft, J. (1998). *An introduction to English language teaching*. Longman.

Hutchinson, T. and E. Torres. (1994). The Textbook as agent of Change*. ELT Journal*, 48(4), 104-123.

Levis, J. (1999). Intonation in theory and practice revisited. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33(1), 67-90.

Moshfeghi, F. (2008). *English for the students of Management*. SAMT Publications

O'Neill, R. (1982). Why use textbooks? *ELT Journal*, 36(2), 206-223.

Porecca, K. 1984. Sexism in current ESL textbooks. *TESOL Quarterly*. 18(4), 23-43.

Richards,J. & Renandya,W.(2002).*Methodology in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Robinson, P. (1980). *ESP (English for Specific Purposes): the present position*. Oxford:Pergamon

Sheldon, L. (1988). Evaluating ELT textbooks and materials. *ELT Journal,* 42(2), 78-90.

Tomlinson, B. (2001). *Materials Development*. In Carter, R and D. Nunan eds, "The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages". Cambridge, C.U.P.

Zangani, E. (2009).The ESP textbooks problem: the evaluation of ESP textbooks in Humanities in the undergraduate program of Iranian universities. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 5(2), 93-106

Appendices

Appendix I

Figure 1. Textbook Evaluation Form Analysis-overall Average per Question

Question	Students' Average	Teachers' Average
1	9	7
2	9	8
3	8	6
4	5	3
5	4	5
6	5	4
7	8	7
8	7	5
9	5	3
10	3	1
11	3	1
12	2	0
13	5	4
14	4	3
15	4	3
16	3	4
17	4	5
18	4	4
19	4	5
20	6	7
21	7	4
22	4	3
23	3	3
24	4	3
25	4	4

26	5	4
27		7
28		5
29		5
30		3
31		2
32		5
33		6
34		8
35		8
36		9
37		7
38		7
39		6
40		8

Appendix II

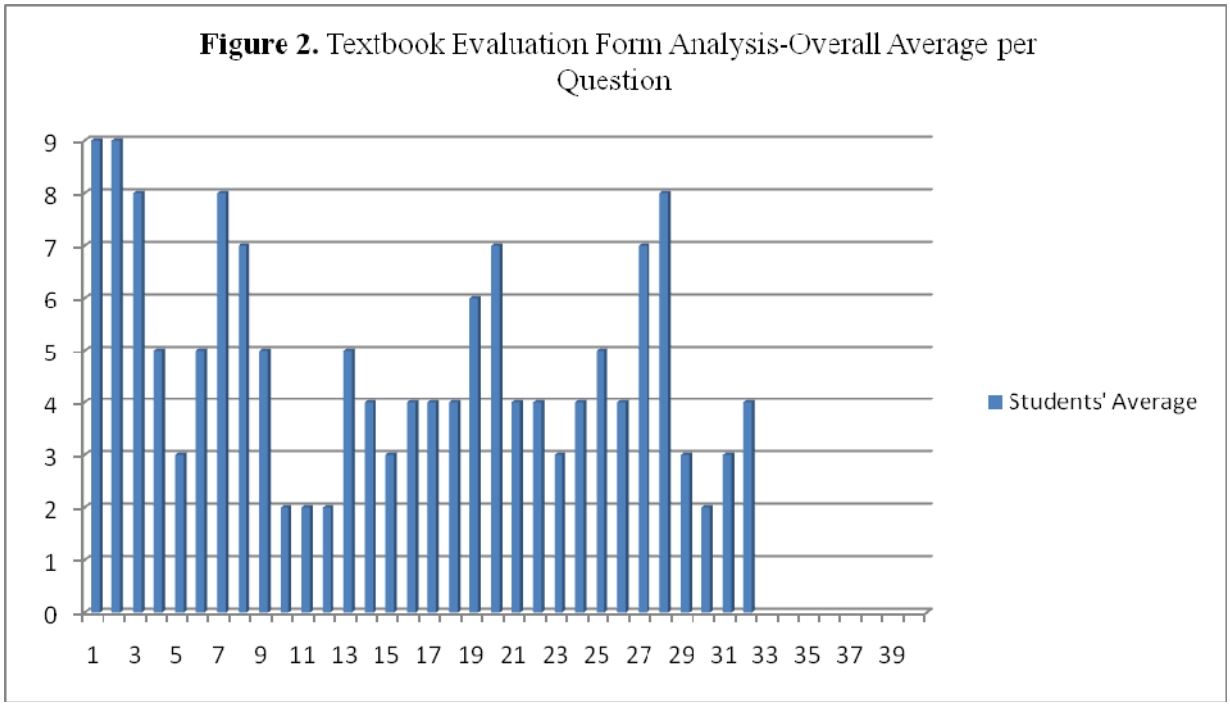


Figure 2. Textbook Evaluation Form Analysis-Overall Average per Question

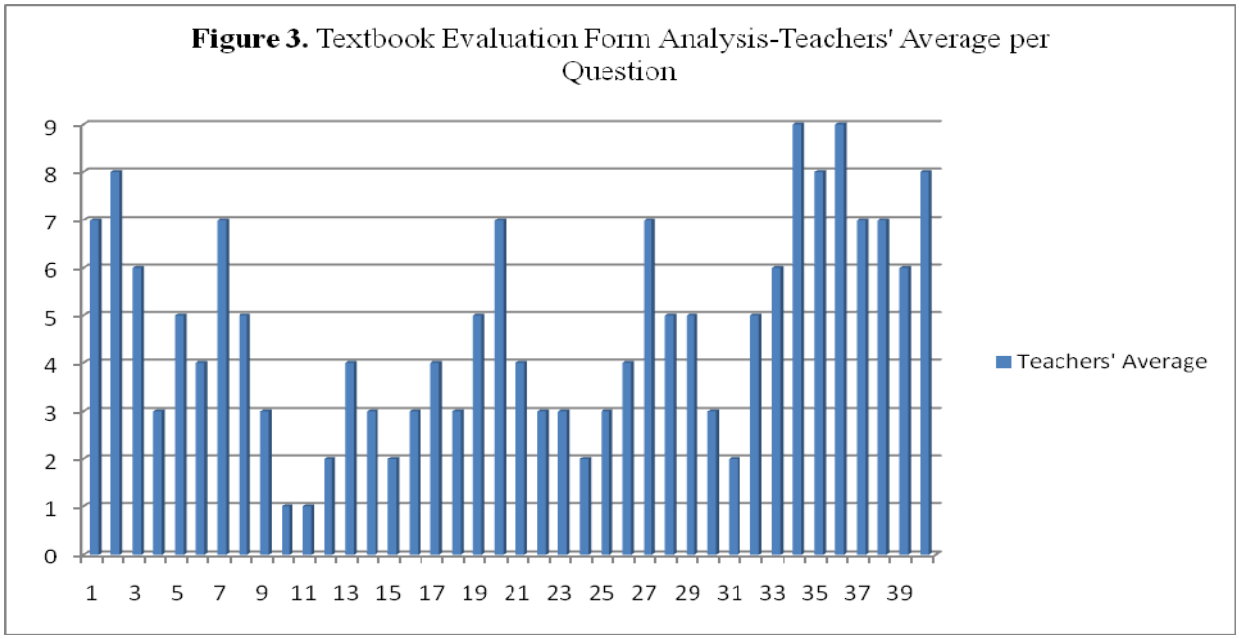
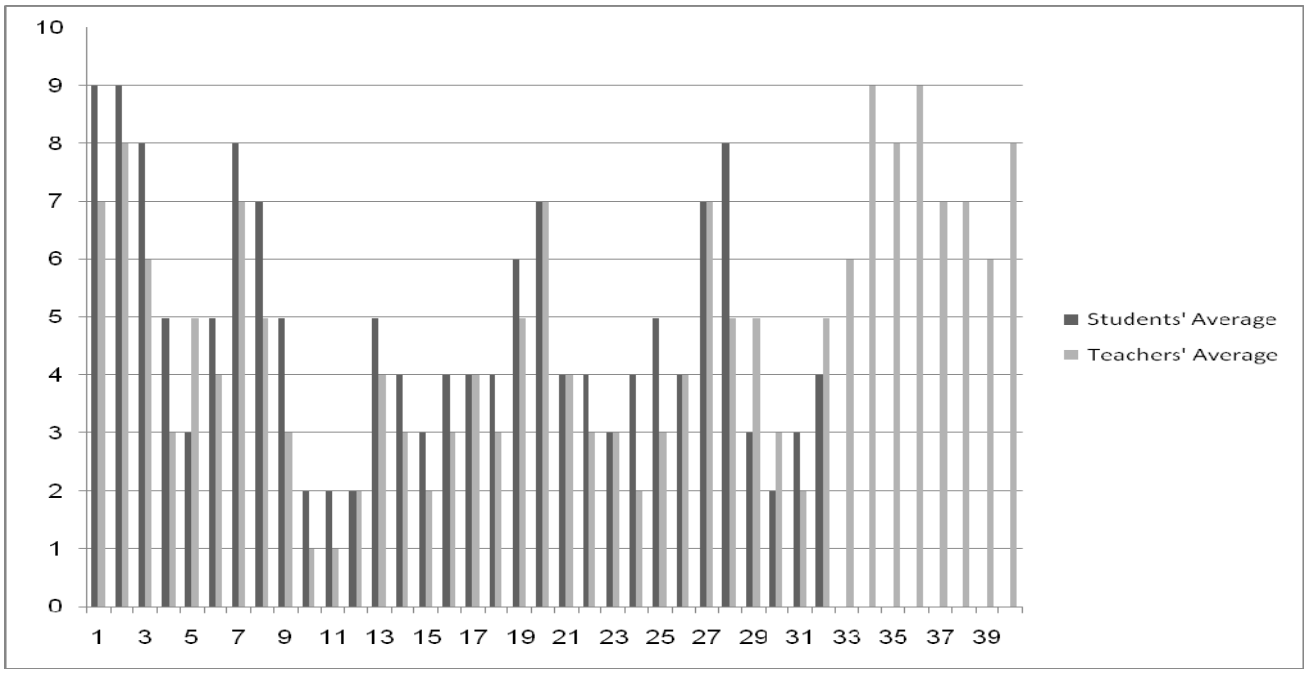


Figure 3. Textbook Evaluation Form Analysis-Teachers' Average per Question

Appendix III

Figure4. Students' and Teachers' Overall Average per Response



Appendix IV

TEXTBOOK EVALUATION FORM

***** PLEASE NOTE: 1 = HIGHLY DISAGREE 10 = HIGHLY AGREE *****

A/ Practical Considerations:

1. The price of the textbook is reasonable.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2. The textbook is easily accessible.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

3. The textbook is a recent publication.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

4. A teacher's guide, workbook, and audio-tapes accompany the textbook.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

5. The author's views on language and methodology are comparable to mine (Note: Refer to the 'blurb' on the back of the textbook).

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

B/ Layout and Design:

6. The textbook includes a detailed overview of the functions, structures and vocabulary that will be taught in each unit.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

7. The layout and design is appropriate and clear.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

8. The textbook is organised effectively.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

9. An adequate vocabulary list or glossary is included.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

10. Adequate review sections and exercises are included.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

11. An adequate set of evaluation quizzes or testing suggestions is included.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

12. The teacher's book contains guidance about how the textbook can be used to the utmost advantage.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

13. The materials objectives are apparent to both the teacher and student.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

C/ Activities:

14. The textbook provides a balance of activities (Ex. There is an even distribution of free vs. controlled exercises and tasks that focus on both fluent and accurate production).

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

15. The activities encourage sufficient communicative and meaningful practice.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

16. The activities incorporate individual, pair and group work.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

17. The grammar points and vocabulary items are introduced in motivating and realistic contexts.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

18. The activities promote creative, original and independent responses.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

19. The tasks are conducive to the internalization of newly introduced language.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

20. The textbook's activities can be modified or supplemented easily.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

D/ Skills:
21. The materials include and focus on the skills that I/my students need to practice.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

22. The materials provide an appropriate balance of the four language skills.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

23. The textbook pays attention to sub-skills - i.e. listening for gist, note-taking, skimming for information, etc.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

24. The textbook highlights and practices natural pronunciation (i.e. - stress and intonation).
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

25. The practice of individual skills is integrated into the practice of other skills.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

E/ Language Type:
26. The language used in the textbook is authentic - i.e. like real-life English.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

27. The language used is at the right level for my (students') current English ability.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

28. The progression of grammar points and vocabulary items is appropriate.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

29. The grammar points are presented with brief and easy examples and explanations.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

30. The language functions exemplify English that I/my students will be likely to use.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

31. The language represents a diverse range of registers and accents.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

F/ Subject and Content:
32. The subject and content of the textbook is relevant to my (students') needs as an English language learner(s).
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

33. The subject and content of the textbook is generally realistic.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

34. The subject and content of the textbook is interesting, challenging and motivating.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

35. There is sufficient variety in the subject and content of the textbook.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

36. The materials are not culturally biased and they do not portray any negative stereotypes.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

G/ Other considerations:
37. The textbook is appropriate for the language-learning aims of my institution.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

38. The textbook is suitable for small-medium, homogeneous, co-ed. Classes of university students.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

39. The textbook raises my (students') interest in further English language study.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

40. I would choose to study/teach this textbook again.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Title

Relationship between Emotional Intelligence, Motivation and the Vocabulary Size of EFL Students

Authors

Anita Vali Mohammadi (M.A.)
Islamic Azad University, Shiraz Branch, Shiraz, Iran

Mohammad Sadegh Bagheri (Ph.D.)
Islamic Azad University, Shiraz Branch, Shiraz, Iran

Bio data

Anita Vali Mohammadi holds an M.A. in TEFL. Her research areas of interest include learning strategies and language teaching. She is currently teaching at a language institute in Shiraz, Iran.

Mohammad Sadegh Bagheri is currently an assistant professor at Islamic Azad University, Shiraz Branch. He teaches at graduate and post graduate schools and has published a number of books and articles. His main areas of interest are learning strategies, motivation, autonomy and international exams.

Abstract

This study examines the relationship between EFL students' emotional intelligence (EI), motivation and their vocabulary size at the Islamic Azad University, Shiraz Branch. For this purpose, 100 EFL senior students majoring in English translation at the Islamic Azad University were chosen. They were asked to complete Vocabulary Size Test (VST) (Nation, 2007); the Schutte Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) (Schutte et al., 1998) and the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) (Pintrich et al., 1991). The statistical procedures employed in this study were regression and correlational analyses. The findings of the study revealed no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and vocabulary size or motivation and vocabulary size. But there existed some relationship between them when the students were divided into three groups of high, mid and low based on the scores of the vocabulary size test. In this case, Managing Emotions in the Self (MES) and Utilizing Emotions

(UE) as two components of EI correlated with the vocabulary size in the mid group. Moreover, in the low group, only one component of motivation - - test anxiety- - showed a negative and significant correlation with vocabulary size. Another goal of the study was to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and motivation. Significant and positive relationships were found among some of the components of EI and motivation in the whole sample and the three groups of vocabulary size.
Keywords: Emotional Intelligence, Motivation, Vocabulary Size, VST, SSEIT, MSLQ.

Introduction

In the past decade or so, growing interest has been attached to affective factors and emotional intelligence in foreign language learning. Affective factors are emotional traits which influence learning and can have a negative or positive effect on it. Affective factors may be as important for successful language learning, if not more so, than ability to learn. Teachers can reduce negative factors and develop positive ones by making use of tasks and activities that build a positive group dynamic, include students in deciding aspects of the course and enhance their motivation and interests.

The role of motivation in SLA has been the subject of extensive scholarship, closely influenced by work in motivational psychology. Motivation is internally complex, and Dörnyei (2001: 1) begins his work by stating that *"strictly speaking, there is no such thing as motivation."* Dörnyei (2001) has shown that motivation correlates strongly with proficiency, indicating both that successful learners are motivated and that success improves motivation. Thus, motivation is not fixed, but is strongly affected by feedback from the environment. Accordingly, the study of motivation in SLA has also examined many of the external factors such as the effect of instructional techniques on motivation.

In their research on "*Willingness to communicate"*, MacIntyre *et al.* (1998) have shown that motivation is not the final construct before learners engage in communication. In fact, learners may be highly motivated yet remain unwilling to communicate. Moreover, some people are more capable of learning a second language and others are rather poor at it. Language learners come from different backgrounds and have different needs and goals; they also have different styles of learning. "Some immigrants become fluent, while others from the same background and living in the same circumstances for the same amount of time speak the language rather poorly. Given

that their ages, motivations and so on are the same, why are there such differences?" (Fahim & Pishghadam, 2007: 240). One important reason can be that they possess different language aptitudes or rather, different levels of linguistic intelligence. Therefore, "emotional intelligence provides the bedrock for the development of a large number of competencies that help learners perform more effectively" (Fahim & Pishghadam, 2007: 241). Thus, it could be emotional intelligence among the many factors that plays a critical role in contributing to second language learning and teaching. Moreover, Fahim & Pishghadam (2007: 241) stated that:

> The role and meanings of the term intelligence as it has been used in second language acquisition are significantly different for virtually all aspects of SLA. If only those individuals with what is called exceptionally high innate abilities are able to become highly proficient in a second language, then it may be sensible to arrange academic programs based on this fact. If on the other hand, it turns out that intellectual abilities are not predictive of success with a second language, the pedagogical choices are clearly quite different. For example, it is probable that an enriched understanding of innate capacity will result both in modifications of theories about how second languages are learned as well as more effective ways of teaching them. If it turns out that learners exhibit certain patterns of intellectual ability, it may be possible to devise a pedagogy that caters to these patterns and may result in more effective teaching.

Emotional intelligence (EI) describes the ability, capacity, skill or, in the case of the trait EI model, a self-perceived grand ability to identify, assess, manage and control the emotions of one's self, of others, and of groups (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Different models have been proposed for the definition of EI and disagreement exists as how the term should be used (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2008). Despite these disagreements, which are often highly technical, the ability EI and trait EI models (but not the mixed models) enjoy support in the literature and have successful applications in different domains.

Emotional intelligence (EI), a concept rooted in the theory of social intelligence (Rehfeld, 2002) is defined in a number of ways. One definition denotes EI as a combination of factors that allow a person to feel, be motivated, regulate mood, control impulse, persist in the face of frustration, and thereby succeed in day-to-day living (Goleman, 1995). EI is a different way of being smart (Goleman, 1995). It has also been identified as the “ability to monitor one’s own and

others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990: 433). In a concise definition, EI is the collection of a person's success-oriented traits.

Many researchers and people have become dissatisfied with a traditional, 'narrow' conceptualization of intelligence, which emphasizes verbal and performance IQ and other more academic abilities (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Recently, researchers have promoted the idea that our notion of intelligence should be expanded to include emotional intelligence (EI), which has generally been designed as the ability to perceive, understand, and manage one's emotions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Purpose of the study

This study intends to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence, motivation and the vocabulary size of EFL students majoring in English Translation. In fact, the study purported to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a relationship between EI and vocabulary size of students majoring in English?
2. Is there a relationship between motivation and vocabulary size of students majoring in English?
3. Is there a relationship between motivation and EI?
4. Does the relationship between EI and motivation on the one hand and vocabulary size on the other hand differ at different levels of vocabulary size?

Method

Participants

The participants in this study were 100 EFL senior students, 18 males and 82 females, majoring in English translation at the Islamic Azad University, Shiraz Branch. Since the students were required to have a good vocabulary size so that they would be able to sit for the vocabulary size test (VST), seniors who had passed all the reading comprehension courses were selected for this study.

Instruments

The Schutte Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT)

To evaluate students' EI, the Schutte Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) (Schutte *et al*., 1998) was utilized. The self-report test includes 33 items in the form of short sentences and takes nearly 10 minutes to complete. It employs a five-point response scale with a textual response format ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. Each item has a value in the range of 1 to 5. In this study, the total reliability of the test, estimated via Cronbach's alpha, was 0.91. Moreover, the reliability indices for each subscale were calculated and presented in Table 1. **Table 1** Reliability Indices for SSREI Subscales and Total EI

Dimensions	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
1. **PE:** Perception of Emotions	**5, 9, 15, 18, 19, 22, 25, 29, 32, 33**	**0.69**
2. **MES:** Managing Emotions in the Self	**2, 3, 10, 12, 14, 21, 23, 28, 31**	**0.81**
3. **MOE:** Managing Others' Emotions	**1, 4, 11, 13, 16, 24, 26, 30**	**0.74**
4. **UE:** Utilizing Emotions	**6, 7, 8, 17, 20, 27**	**0.76**
Total EI		**0.91**

The Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ)

To evaluate the students' motivation, the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) developed by Pintrich *et al.* (1991) was utilized which consists of 81, Likert type items. This questionnaire is divided into two parts. The first is the Motivation section and the second one is the Learning strategies section. In this study, only the motivation section was employed which consists of 31 items that assess students' goals and value beliefs for a course, their beliefs about their skill to succeed in a course, and their anxiety about tests in a course. The present study found a reliability index of 0.75 for MSLQ. The following Table presents the motivation subscales and their reliability indices.

Table 2 Reliability indices for SSREI subscales

Components	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Intrinsic Goal Orientation	**1, 16, 22, 24**	**0.63**
Extrinsic Goal Orientation	**7, 11, 13, 30**	**0.31**
Task Value	**4, 10, 17, 23, 26, 27**	**0.54**
Control of Learning Beliefs (CLB)	**2, 9, 18, 25**	**0.50**
Self-Efficacy for Learning & Performance (SELP)	**5, 6, 12, 15, 20, 21, 29, 31**	**0.83**
Test Anxiety	**3, 8, 14, 19, 28**	**0.67**
Total MSLQ		**0.75**

Vocabulary Size Test (VST)

The Vocabulary Size Test was developed by Nation (2007) to measure EFL learners' written receptive vocabulary size from the first 1000 to the fourteenth 1000-word families of English words. It was written in the form of multiple choice tests. Test-takers must have a fairly well-developed idea of the meaning of the word to correctly answer the items because the correct answer and the distractors frequently share elements of meaning. This makes the Vocabulary Size Test a more demanding test.

Procedure

Data Collection

The tests and the questionnaire were administered to the seniors of three classes majoring in English translation at the end of their classroom time in the presence of their teacher in March 2010. There were 43, 14, 43 in the first, second and third class respectively. For the convenience of the students and in order not to take too much of the class time, the tests were given in one session and the questionnaire in another. Any points which seemed to be vague for the students were clearly explained. Also the participants were informed how to respond to the Likert type tests.

Data analysis

At first, those items which were negatively stated in the SSEIT were reversed. Those were items 5, 28, and 33 (Gignac, Palmer, Manocha & Stough, 2005). Then, all the items were added up to find the participants' total scores on Emotional Intelligence Test, MSLQ, and on the Vocabulary Size Test. Also, the sum of different items relating to different components of emotional intelligence (PE, MES, MOE, and UE) and motivation (Intrinsic Goal Orientation, Extrinsic Goal Orientation, Task Value, Control of Learning Beliefs (CLB), Self-Efficacy for Learning & Performance (SELP) and Test Anxiety) were calculated. Then, the scores of each component of EI and motivation were divided by the number of their relevant items.

Moreover, the correlation coefficient was calculated to figure out if there existed any relationships between the independent variables, EI and motivation, and the dependent variable, vocabulary size. Then, regression analysis was run to check the prediction power of those components of EI that showed positive correlations with vocabulary size. At the end, the students were divided into three levels of high, mid and low based on the scores of their vocabulary size Correlational analysis was calculated again between independent and dependent variables.

Results

Table 3 summarizes the descriptive results of the three instruments—EI test, MSLQ as well as all their subscales, and the Vocabulary Size test —used in this study. In order to know what kind of data we have in the area of EI, we added up the scores of each component and divided the sum by the number of items in each component. Then descriptive statistics was run for each subscale. Also, the descriptive statistics were calculated for motivation and its components. The mean scores for each component were found. The results are presented in the following Table3.

Table 3 Descriptive Statistics on Vocabulary Size Total Score, Motivation and EI and their components

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Perception of Emotions	100	2.10	5.00	3.7550	.50380
Managing Emotions in the Self	100	1.67	5.00	3.9800	.58760
Managing Others' Emotions	100	2.00	5.00	3.9413	.55233
Utilizing Emotions	100	1.67	5.00	4.0783	.61749
Total Emotional Intelligence	100	8.35	19.60	15.7546	1.93129
Intrinsic Goal Orientation	100	1.25	5.00	3.4825	.79157
Extrinsic Goal Orientation	100	1.25	14.50	3.9800	1.33791
Task Value	100	1.50	8.67	3.8117	.84143
Control of Learning Beliefs	100	1.50	5.00	3.6550	.66075
Self-Efficacy for Learning & Performance	100	1.88	5.00	3.7550	.66475
Test Anxiety	100	1.00	4.60	2.6760	.86165
Total Motivation	100	9.58	30.13	21.3602	2.98279
Vocabulary Size	100	14.00	39.00	29.6900	5.68659

As Table 3 showed, "utilizing emotions" has received the highest mean among the other components of EI and the extrinsic goal orientation has the highest mean amongst the subscales of motivation. Moreover, the mean of vocabulary size is moderate.

Emotional intelligence and motivation

To examine whether there is any significant correlation between total EI and motivation, Pearson product-moment correlation was employed. The results revealed that there is a significant correlation between EI and motivation ($r = 0.315$, $p < 0.01$) (see Table 4).

Table 4 Correlation between Total EI and Total Motivation

		M Total
EI total	Pearson Correlation	**.315**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**.001**
	N	**100**

It was also found that the correlation coefficients between Intrinsic Goal Orientation and Managing Emotions in the Self (MES) ($r = 0.24$, $p < 0.05$), Intrinsic Goal Orientation and

Utilizing Emotions (UE) ($r = 0.20$, $p < 0.05$), Extrinsic Goal Orientation and Managing Others' Emotions (MOE) ($r = 0.30$, $p < 0.01$), Control of Learning Beliefs (CLB) and MOE ($r = 0.21$, $p < 0.01$), CLB and UE ($r = 0.27$, $p < 0.01$), Self-Efficacy for Learning & Performance (SELP) and Perception of Emotions (PE) ($r = 0.33$, $p < 0.01$), SELP and MES ($r = 0.32$, $p < 0.01$), SELP and UE ($r = 0.27$, $p < 0.01$), SELP and MOE ($r = 0.21$, $p < 0.05$) are significant (see Table 5).

Table 5 Correlations among Different Components of EI and Motivation

		Intrinsic Goal Orientation	**Extrinsic Goal Orientation**	**Task Value**	**CLB**	**SELP**	**Test Anxiety**
PE	Pearson Correlation	.149	.192	.091	.127	**.335**	-.083
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.138	.056	.366	.207	.001	.413
	N	100	100	100	100	100	100
MES	Pearson Correlation	**.249**	.159	.127	.155	**.326**	-.147
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.012	.115	.207	.124	.001	.145
	N	100	100	100	100	100	100
MOE	Pearson Correlation	.143	**.306**	.074	**.215**	**.212**	-.009
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.157	.002	.463	.031	.034	.928
	N	100	100	100	100	100	100
UE	Pearson Correlation	**.209**	.152	.192	**.277**	**.272**	.003
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.037	.131	.056	.005	.006	.974
	N	100	100	100	100	100	100

Therefore, it was found that, among the 5 components which compose the total motivation test, Self-Efficacy for Learning & Performance (SELP) had a positive and significant correlation with the all subscales of EI. Thus, to analyze the data further, regression analysis was conducted to see which component best predicted the variance in SELP. The results are presented in the following parts.

Table 6 Model Summary for SELP and the Components of EI

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.396	.16	.121	.62321

Predictors: (Constant), UE, PE, MEO, MES

Table 7 ANOVA (b) for SELP and the Components of EI

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6.850	4	1.713	4.410	.003(a)
	Residual	36.897	95	.388		
	Total	43.748	99			

Table 8

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.847	.527		3.508	.001
	PE	.376	.174	.285	2.164	.033
	MES	.274	.180	.242	1.520	.132
	MEO	-.279	.190	-.232	-1.471	.145
	UE	.124	.1	.115	.870	.387

Coefficients (a) for SELP and the Components of EI

What the above tables illustrated is that the index of R square was 0.16 which means that the model containing the total components of the EI can predict 16 percent of the self-efficacy for learning & performance. In other words, about 16 percent of the variation in SELP may be explained by the combination of the components of EI. This prediction power is meaningful at the 0.05 level of significance. As the coefficients table shows, only the component of perception of emotions (PE) had a significant prediction power. This means that the whole 16% prediction shown in Table 5 belongs to the Perception of Emotions (PE) alone.

To investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and motivation, the students were divided into three groups of high, mid, and low based on their scores of vocabulary size. Those who got scores 34 or higher were put in the high group, those whose scores were between 26 and

34 were considered as the mid group and the students with the scores of 26 or lower were put in the low group. Again, the correlational analyses were run for all these three groups. The results are shown in the following tables.

Table 9 Correlations among Different Components of EI and Motivation in the High Group

		Intrinsic Goal Orientation	Extrinsic Goal Orientation	Task Value	Control of Learning Beliefs	Self-Efficacy for Learning & Performance	Test Anxiety
PE	Correlation	.273	.089	.212	-.066	**.418**	-.269
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.124	.621	.236	.714	.016	.130
	N	33	33	33	33	33	33
MES	Correlation	**.511**	-.008	.237	-.020	**.465**	-.225
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.967	.185	.911	.006	.207
	N	33	33	33	33	33	33
MOE	Correlation	.224	.106	.344	-.026	.307	-.155
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.209	.556	.050	.886	.083	.391
	N	33	33	33	33	33	33
UE	Correlation	.300	.183	.226	.186	**.460**	-.045
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.090	.307	.207	.301	.007	.804
	N	33	33	33	33	33	33

PE: Perception of Emotions MOE: Managing Others' Emotions

MES: Managing Emotions in the Self UE: Utilizing Emotions

The findings of the above table indicate that in the high group, the correlation between Intrinsic Goal Orientation and Managing Emotions in the Self (MES) (r = 0.51) and between Self-Efficacy for Learning & Performance (SELP) and MES (r= 0.46), SELP and UE (r = 0.46) are moderate and significant at the 0.01 level. Also, there exists a moderate correlation between SELP and Perception of Emotions (PE) (r = 0.41) which is significant at the 0.05 level. As Table 8 shows, Self-Efficacy for Learning & Performance (SELP) correlates with 3 components of EI which are PE, MES and UE. Thus, regression analysis was run to see which component best predicted the variance in SELP. The results are presented in the following parts.

Table 10 Model Summary for SELP and Three Components of EI in the High Group

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.546	.30	.226	.60842

Predictors: (Constant), PE, MES, UE

Table 11 ANOVA (b) for SELP and Three Components of EI in the High Group

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.561	3	1.520	4.107	.015(a)
	Residual	10.735	29	.370		
	Total	15.295	32			

Table 12 Coefficients (a) for SELP and Three Components of EI in the High Group

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-.182	1.203		-.152	.881
	PE	.358	.284	.225	1.262	.217
	MES	.282	.281	.213	1.003	.324
	UE	.386	.349	.229	1.107	.277

Table 10 illustrates that the index of R square is 0.30 which means that 30 percent of the variance in SELP can be explained by the combination of three components of EI. As Table 11, the ANOVA table, shows, this prediction is meaningful at the 0.05 level of significance. The coefficients table shows that none of the three components of EI has a significant prediction power on their own. It means that the combination of these three components has 30 percent prediction power, but not each of these three components on their own.

The results of the correlational analyses in the mid group are shown in Table 13. As Table 13 shows, in the mid group there exist moderate and significant correlations between Intrinsic Goal Orientation and UE (r = 0.36), Extrinsic Goal Orientation and Managing Others' Emotions (MOE) (r = 0.43), Control of Learning Beliefs (CLB) and UE (r = 0.41), SELP and PE (r = 0.40),

SELP and UE (r = 0.39) and CLB and MOE (r = 0.43) at the 0.05 level. Therefore, regression analysis was computed between PE, UE as independent variables and SELP as a dependent variable and also between MOE, UE and CLB. The results are reported in the following parts.

Table 13 Correlations among Different Components of EI and Motivation in the Mid Group

		Intrinsic Goal Orientation	Extrinsic Goal Orientation	Task Value	Control of Learning Beliefs	Self-Efficacy for Learning & Performance	Test Anxiety
PE	Correlation	.202	.206	.186	.258	**.400**	-.037
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.252	.243	.292	.140	.019	.838
	N	34	34	34	34	34	34
MES	Correlation	.229	.212	.046	.321	.278	-.122
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.192	.228	.796	.064	.111	.493
	N	34	34	34	34	34	34
MOE	Correlation	.206	**.432**	.108	**.439**	.197	.083
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.242	.011	.541	.009	.265	.640
	N	34	34	34	34	34	34
UE	Correlation	**.367**	.061	.290	**.419**	**.396**	-.118
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.033	.733	.097	.014	.021	.506
	N	34	34	34	34	34	34

Table 14 Model Summary for SELP and Two Components of EI in the Mid Group

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.497(a)	.25	.199	.59869

Predictors: (Constant), PE, UE

Table 15 ANOVA (b) for SELP and Two Components of EI in the Mid Group

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.650	2	1.825	5.092	.012(a)
	Residual	11.111	31	.358		
	Total	14.761	33			

a Predictors: (Constant), UE, PE

b Dependent Variable: SELP

Table 16 Coefficients (a) for SELP and Two Components of EI in the Mid Group

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.564	1.011		.558	.581
	PE	.466	.241	.314	1.932	.062
	UE	.339	.179	.308	1.897	.067

a Dependent Variable: SELP

What can be inferred from Tables 14, 15, and 16 is that 25 percent of the variance in SELP can be explained by the combination of two components of EI. This prediction power is significant at the 0.05 level. But, each component is not capable of predicting the variation in SELP.

Table 17 Model Summary for CLB and Two Components of EI in the Mid Group

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.502(a)	.25	.204	.64517

Predictors: (Constant), MOE, UE

Table 18 ANOVA (b) for CLB and Two Components of EI in the Mid Group

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.348	2	2.174	5.223	.011(a)
	Residual	12.903	31	.416		
	Total	17.252	33			

a Predictors: (Constant), MOE, UE

b Dependent Variable: CLB

Table 19 Coefficients (a) for CLB and Two Components of EI in the Mid Group

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.554	.949		.584	.563
	MOE	.326	.209	.274	1.563	.128
	UE	.428	.240	.312	1.781	.085

As the above tables show, 25 percent of the variation in CLB may be predicted by the two components of EI which are MOE and UE. The prediction power is significant at the 0.05 level. The coefficients table shows that only the combination of these two components is capable of predicting the variance of CLB not each of them alone.

In the low group, a somewhat different picture was observed. Table 20 shows the results. The correlations between Extrinsic Goal Orientation and PE (r = 0.35), Extrinsic Goal Orientation and Managing Others' Emotions (MOE) (r = 0.37), Extrinsic Goal Orientation and UE (r = 0.46) are significant at the 0.05 level. As Extrinsic Goal Orientation correlates with three

components of EI, the regression analysis was conducted to check the prediction power of these components.

Table 20 Correlations among Different Components of EI and Motivation in the Low Group

		Intrinsic Goal Orientation	Extrinsic Goal Orientation	Task Value	Control of Learning Beliefs	Self-Efficacy for Learning & Performance	Test Anxiety
PE	Correlation	.011	**.353**	.010	.215	.254	.030
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.952	.044	.955	.230	.155	.867
	N	33	33	33	33	33	33
MES	Correlation	.081	.310	.136	.213	.281	-.107
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.654	.079	.451	.234	.113	.554
	N	33	33	33	33	33	33
MOE	Correlation	.009	**.377**	-.030	.261	.141	.058
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.958	.031	.870	.143	.434	.748
	N	33	33	33	33	33	33
UE	Correlation	.025	**.462**	.145	.262	.083	.158
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.892	.007	.422	.140	.647	.381
	N	33	33	33	33	33	33

Table 21 Model Summary for Extrinsic Goal Orientation and three Components of EI in the Low Group

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.469(a)	.220	.140	.63509

Predictors: (Constant), PE, MOE, UE

Table 22 ANOVA (b) for Extrinsic Goal Orientation and Three Components of EI in the Low group

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.307	3	1.102	2.733	.062(a)
	Residual	11.697	29	.403		
	Total	15.004	32			

a Predictors: (Constant), PE, MOE, UE

b Dependent Variable: Extrinsic Goal Orientation

Table 23 Coefficients (a) for Extrinsic Goal Orientation and Three Components of EI in the Low Group

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.106	.731		2.880	.007
	PE	.329	.210	.380	1.567	.128
	MOE	.041	.293	.039	.139	.890
	UE	.095	.277	.085	.343	.734

a Dependent Variable: Extrinsic Goal Orientation

The above tables show that 22 percent of the variation in Extrinsic Goal Orientation may be predicted by the three components of EI but the prediction power is not significant at the 0.05 level.

The correlational analysis between total EI and total motivation in the three groups was also run. The results can be seen in Table 24.

Table 24 Correlation between total EI and total Motivation in the three groups

			Total Motivation
High Group	**Total Emotional Intelligence**	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	**.344** .050 33
Mid Group	**Total Emotional Intelligence**	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	**.442** .009 34
Low Group	**Total Emotional Intelligence**	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.239 .180 33

The findings reveal that the total EI scores of the students in the mid and high groups correlate significantly with the total motivation scores, but no relationship can be seen between the said variables in the low group.

Emotional intelligence and vocabulary size

To investigate the relationship between EI components and the vocabulary size, Pearson product-moment correlation was calculated. The outcomes of correlational analyses show that there are not significant correlation coefficients between total scores on Vocabulary Size Test and any components of EI. Besides, total EI and vocabulary size reveal no significant correlation coefficient. It means that the students' vocabulary size cannot be related to their emotional intelligence. (See Table 25)

Table 25 Correlations among components of EI and Total Vocabulary Size

		Vocabulary Size
Perception of Emotions	Pearson Correlation	-.060
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.556
	N	100
Managing Emotions in the Self	Pearson Correlation	-.011
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.911
	N	100
Managing Others' Emotions	Pearson Correlation	.027
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.792
	N	100
Utilizing Emotions	Pearson Correlation	.047
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.644
	N	100
Total Emotional Intelligence	Pearson Correlation	-.004
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.966
	N	100

Emotional intelligence and vocabulary size in different groups

Table 26 Correlations between components of EI and Vocabulary Size in the Mid Groups

			Vocabulary Size
Mid Group	**Perception of Emotions**	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.193 .274 34
	Managing Emotions in the Self	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	**.495** .003 34
	Managing Others' Emotions	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.186 .291 34
	Utilizing Emotions	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	**.394** .021 34

The results show that there exist no significant correlations between the components of EI and vocabulary size in the high and low groups. But there exist moderate and significant correlations among vocabulary size scores and Managing Emotions in the Self (MES) (r = 0.49) and vocabulary size and Utilizing Emotions (UE) (r = 0.39) at the 0.05 level. Therefore, regression analysis was run between vocabulary size on the on hand and MES and UE on the other hand. As the results show, the index of R square is 28. It means that 28 percent of the variation in vocabulary size may be predicted by the combination of two components of EI which are Managing Emotions in the Self (MES) and Utilizing Emotions (UE). The ANOVA table reveals that the prediction power of the components of EI is meaningful and significant at the 0.05 level. Then, it can be seen in coefficients table that only the component of Managing Emotions in the Self (MES) had a significant prediction power. The results are presented in the following parts.

Table 27 Model Summary for Vocabulary Size and Two Components of EI in the Mid Group

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.521(a)	.28	.224	3.14012

Predictors: (Constant), MES, UE

Table 28 ANOVA (b) for Vocabulary Size and Two Components of EI in the Mid Group

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	113.889	2	56.944	5.775	.007(a)
	Residual	305.670	31	9.860		
	Total	419.559	33			

Table 29 Coefficients (a) for Vocabulary Size and Two Components of EI in the Mid Group

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	6.608	4.913		1.345	.188
	MES	2.983	1.343	.398	2.222	.034
	UE	1.109	1.051	.189	1.055	.300

Motivation and Vocabulary Size

To analyze the relationships between the components of motivation and the vocabulary size, the correlational analysis was conducted. The results indicated that the correlation coefficients between the vocabulary size and the components of motivation are not statistically significant. Also, no significant correlation can be seen between the vocabulary size and total motivation. (See Table 30)

Table 30 Correlations among components of Motivation and Total Vocabulary Size

		VS Total
Intrinsic Goal Orientation	Pearson Correlation	-.011
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.911
	N	100
Extrinsic Goal Orientation	Pearson Correlation	-.194
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.054
	N	100
Task Value	Pearson Correlation	.017
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.870
	N	100
CLB	Pearson Correlation	-.024
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.812
	N	100
SELP	Pearson Correlation	.099
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.327
	N	100
Test Anxiety	Pearson Correlation	-.081
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.421
	N	100
M Total	Pearson Correlation	-.059
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.561
	N	100

Motivation and Vocabulary Size in Different Groups

Table 31 Correlations between Components of Motivation and Vocabulary Size in the Low Group

			Vocabulary Size
Low Group	**Intrinsic Goal Orientation**	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	-.034 .853 33
	Extrinsic Goal Orientation	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	-.156 .387 33
	Task Value	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.063 .729 33
	Control of Learning Beliefs (CLB)	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	-.075 .678 33
	Self-Efficacy for Learning & Performance (SELP)	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.116 .522 33
	Test Anxiety	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	**-.366** .036 33

There exist no correlations between the components of motivation and vocabulary size in the high and mid groups rather there is a negative significant correlation between test anxiety and the vocabulary size in the low group (r = -0.36).

Discussion

As stated earlier, the present study attempted to investigate relationship among EI, motivation and vocabulary size. In the following parts, the research questions are answered one by one.

1. Is there a relationship between EI and vocabulary size of students majoring in English?

The first objective of the study was to investigate the relationship between the students' EI and vocabulary size. With regard to the correlational analysis between EI and vocabulary size, no component of emotional intelligence can predict the variance in the vocabulary size of the students. Besides, there exists no significant correlation between scores on Vocabulary Size Test and total EI.

2. Is there a relationship between motivation and vocabulary size of students majoring in English?

The investigation of the relationship between the students' motivation and vocabulary size was the second objective of this study. The results indicate that the correlation between the vocabulary size scores and the components of motivation are not statistically significant. The figures reveal that motivation of the students is not capable of predicting the function and improvement of their vocabulary size.

Similarly, significant correlation did not exist between the vocabulary size scores and total motivation. It means that the vocabulary size of the participants in this study was not related to their motivation.

3. Is there a relationship between motivation and EI?

As it was indicated, the third objective of the study was to find out if there was any significant correlation between motivation and EI. To this end, correlational analysis was computed between the components of EI and motivation. The findings reveal that there exists a significant correlation coefficient between total EI and motivation. Moreover, regression analysis was calculated to predict the variance in SELP from the variance in the components of EI. Then, what can be inferred from the findings is reported as follows:

1) There are low and significant correlations between Intrinsic Goal Orientation and Managing Emotions in the Self (MES) and between Intrinsic Goal Orientation and Utilizing Emotions (UE) at the 0.05 level. It means that those students who are intrinsically motivated have more control over themselves and their motivations and have greater power of managing their own emotions and utilizing their emotions in such a way to be able to facilitate their own learning and expand their knowledge.

2) There is a low significant correlation coefficient between Extrinsic Goal Orientation and Managing Others' Emotions (MOE). It means that those students, who are extrinsically motivated and are categorized as extroverts, are more sociable and learned more social skills. They know how and when to build rapport with others. The interpersonal emotion-management techniques will produce positive emotions and help the students know the ripe time of getting on with other people, their teacher, classmates, parents to ask their questions and expand their knowledge.

3) There are low and significant correlation coefficients between Control of Learning Beliefs (CLB) and Managing Other's Emotions (MOE) and between CLB and UE. It means that those students who gain control over their learning and are self-confident are more task-focused and protect the self when they encounter failures, they emphasize on achievement and seize the challenge. All these help them to learn the social skills more and it helps them to get on successfully with other people. Moreover, these kinds of students with great control of their learning are more powerful at utilizing their emotions to solve their problems.

4) There are low significant correlation coefficients among Self-Efficacy for Learning & Performance (SELP) and Perception of Emotions (PE), SELP and MES, SELP and UE and SELP and MOE. Self-Efficacy is commonly defined as the belief in one's capabilities to achieve a goal or an outcome. It helps students to believe in themselves. It means that students with a strong sense of efficacy are more likely to challenge themselves with difficult tasks and be intrinsically motivated. These students will put forth a high degree of effort in order to meet their commitments, and attribute failure to things which are in their control, rather than blaming external factors. Self-efficacious students also recover quickly from setbacks, and are likely to achieve their personal goals in the end. Therefore, these kinds of students have the power of managing their own and others' emotions. They have a good understanding of their emotions and know how to use their emotions to help them to learn and add to their knowledge.

5) The results of regression analysis showed that total components of the EI can predict 16 percent of the self-efficacy for learning & performance. Among all components of EI, only Perception of Emotion (PE) had a significant prediction power. This means that the more the students are capable of understanding and utilizing their emotions, the more they believe in their capabilities to achieve a goal or an outcome.

6) There was a low and significant correlation between total motivation and total EI ($r = 0.31$). It means that motivation and emotional intelligence are complementary to each other and students who can make use of both of them can achieve their goals.

7) In the high group, there were moderate and significant correlations among Intrinsic Goal Orientation and Managing Emotions in the Self (MES), Self-Efficacy for Learning & Performance (SELP) and MES, SELP and UE, and between SELP and Perception of Emotions (PE). Therefore, the regression analysis was run to see which component best predicted the variance in SELP. The results showed that none of the three components of EI had a significant

prediction power on their own. It means that the combination of these three components had 30 percent prediction power.

8) In the mid group, there existed moderate and significant correlations between Intrinsic Goal Orientation and UE, Extrinsic Goal Orientation and Managing Others' Emotions (MOE), Control of Learning Beliefs (CLB) and UE, SELP and PE, SELP and UE and CLB and MOE. Thus, the regression analysis was computed between PE, UE and SELP and also between MOE, UE and CLB. The findings showed that 25 percent of the variation in SELP could be explained by the combination of two components of EI, PE and UE. Also, the combination of the two components of EI, MOE and UE, was capable of predicting 25 percent of the variation in CLB.

9) In the low group, there were significant correlations among Extrinsic Goal Orientation and PE, Extrinsic Goal Orientation and Managing Others' Emotions (MOE), Extrinsic Goal Orientation and UE. So, the regression analysis was conducted to check the prediction power of these components of EI. The outcomes revealed that prediction power of the three components of EI was not significant at the 0.05 level.

10) There were significant correlations between total EI and total motivation scores of the students in the mid and high groups but no relationship could be seen between the said variables in the low group.

4. Does the relationship between EI and motivation on the one hand and vocabulary size on the other hand differ at different levels of vocabulary size?

The study aimed at finding out the relationships between the components of EI, motivation and vocabulary size at three levels. Therefore, the correlational analysis was run between the components of EI and vocabulary size on the one hand and components of motivation and vocabulary size on the other hand. The outcomes showed that there existed significant correlations between vocabulary size and Managing Emotions in the Self (MES) ($r = 0.49$) and vocabulary size and Utilizing Emotions (UE) ($r = 0.39$) in the mid group. The regression analysis showed that the components of EI could predict 28 percent of the vocabulary size. Out of these two components of EI, only Managing Emotions in the Self (MES) had a significant prediction power. Moreover, vocabulary size correlated negatively with test anxiety ($r = 0.36$) in the low group.

Conclusion

The results of this study indicate that the EFL students' emotional intelligence and motivation do not play any significant role in the students' vocabulary size. But there existed some relation between them when students were divided into three groups of high, mid and low based on the scores of the vocabulary size test. That is, the correlational analyses between the students' motivation, EI and vocabulary size show some relationships between motivation, EI and vocabulary size when three levels are considered for the vocabulary size of the students. This claims that the seniors of the Islamic Azad University at Shiraz employ neither their EI nor their motivation to expand and their vocabulary size.

Another finding of this study was that the students' motivation and emotional intelligence correlate with each other. Among all factors of motivation, it is the Control of Learning Beliefs (CLB) which has the highest contribution. This may be due to the fact that those students, who inherit a greater control over themselves and their learning, benefit from a higher degree of motivation. They can easily motivate themselves to learn new materials. Moreover, those students with a greater ability of managing their emotions have greater power of learning.

Therefore, students of the Islamic Azad University have enjoyed high motivation and EI. This is an advantage to pave the way for them to continue their studies at the upper levels. But contrary to what was mentioned, this advantage does not help them to expand their vocabulary size.

References

Bar-On, R. (1997). *The Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i): A test of emotional intelligence*. Toronto: Multi-Health Systems.

Bradberry, T. & Greaves, J. (2009). *Emotional intelligence 2.0*. San Francisco: Publishers Group West.

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). New themes and approaches in second language motivation research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *21*, 43-59.

Eyckmans, J. (2004). *Measuring receptive vocabulary size: Reliability and validity of the Yes/No vocabulary test for French-speaking learners of Dutch.* Netherlands: LOT.

Fahim, M. & Pishghadam, R. (2007). On the role of emotional, psychometric, and verbal intelligences in the academic achievement of university students majoring in English language. *Asian EFL Journal, 9*(4), 240-253.

Gignac, G. E., Palmer, B. R., Manocha, R. & Stough, C. (2005). An examination of the factor structure of the Schutte self-report emotional intelligence (SSREI) scale via confirmatory factor analysis. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *39*(6), 1029-1042.

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.

MacIntyre, P.D., Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K.A. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in an L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *The Modern Language Journal, 82*(4), 545-562.

Mayer, J.D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional Development and Emotional Intelligence: Implications for Educators* (pp. 3-31). New York: Basic Books.

Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P. & Caruso, D.R. (2008). Emotional intelligence: New ability or eclectic traits? *American Psychologist, 63*(6), 503-517.

Nation I.S.P. (2007). *Vocabulary size test (monolingual version)*. Victoria University of Wellington. Retrieved February 24, 2010, from http://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/staff/paul-nation.aspx.

Pintrich, P. R., Smith, D.A.F., Garcia,T., & McKeachie, W.J., (1991). *A manual for the use of the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ).* University of Michigan.

Rehfeld, R.E. (2002). *Organizational trust and emotional intelligence: An appreciative inquiry into the language of the twenty-first century leader.* Dissertation Abstracts International, 62, 11-A.

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality, 9*(3), 185-211.

Schutte, N.S., Malouff, J.M., Hall, L.E., Haggerty, D.J., Cooper, J.T. & Golden, C.J. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *25*, 167-177.

Title

The Relationship between Reid's Learning Styles and Oxford's Language Learning Strategies in Adult EFL Learners of Iran Language Institute

Authors

Maryam Salehi (M.A.)
Islamic Azad University, Bandar Abbas branch, Bandar Abaas, Iran

Mohamad Sadegh Bagheri (Ph.D.)
Islamic Azad University, Shiraz Branch, Shiraz, Iran

Bio data

Maryam Salehi holds an M.A. in TEFL from the Department of Foreign Languages and Linguistics of Islamic Azad University, Bandar Abbas branch, Iran. She teaches English courses at Islamic Azad University, Roudan Branch, Iran, and she is an instructor in Iran Language Institute. Her research interests are mainly focused on teaching as well as psycholinguistics.

Mohamad Sadegh Bageri holds a Ph.D. in Teaching English as a Second Language. He is currently an Associate Professor in the Department of Foreign Languages and Linguistics of Islamic Azad University, Shiraz Branch, Shiraz, Iran. Moreover, he has published several books and articles in the field of TEFL. His research interests concern FL/SL language teaching methodology, second language acquisition, and EFL speaking.

Abstract

This study aims to identify the learning styles and strategies of students, to check the relationship between students' learning styles and strategies. 110 Elementary level students of ILI were asked to complete two questionnaires, one to identify students' learning styles and the other to identify students' learning strategies. Think aloud protocols were also held to determine the strategies students used while reading. The data analysis of the questionnaires revealed that students' major learning styles were auditory and group learning styles and memory strategies were favored the most. Also significant relationships were found between the visual styles and memory strategies, the auditory styles and metacognitive and social strategies, the kinesthetic styles and the

cognitive and the compensation strategies, the group learning styles and the metaconitive strategies. The think aloud protocols revealed that students used various strategies.
Keywords: Language learning strategies, Learning styles, Auditory learner, Visual learner, Tactile learner, Kinesthetic learner, Group learning, Individual learning

Introduction

Nowadays language learning is one of the most important needs of people and it has become an essential component of their lives. Because of various reasons such as living in a foreign country or studying English as a foreign language in an institute, many people are trying to learn a second language. Therefore, from the early 1970s, some researchers in the field of learning and teaching have been trying to find out teaching methods, classroom techniques, and instructional materials that will promote better language instruction. However, in spite of all the efforts there has been noticed that learners have not progressed as much as it was expected, because there are individual differences in language learning such as gender, age, social status, motivation, attitude, aptitude, culture, etc.; what works for one learner might not work for another. Therefore, none of the methods and techniques has proved that they can work all the time, in all classes, with all students. As a result, based on Grenfell and Harris' (1999) statement "Methodology alone can never be a solution to language learning. Rather it is an aid and suggestion" (p. 10).

After reaching this conclusion, some other people in the field changed the focus from the language teaching methodology to the language learner and the variables that affect language learning. This shift has led to an increase in the number of studies regarding learner characteristics and foreign or second language learning. Language Learning Strategies (LLS) have been one of the most popular aspects researchers have focused on. Especially variables such as gender, achievement, motivation, career orientation, national origin, aptitude, learning styles, etc. have been taken into consideration to find out the relationship between the LLS choice and variables. Learning styles is one of the variables that based on Oxford (1989) "little research has been dedicated to the relationship between learning strategy use and learning style" (p. 241). Furthermore, based on Willing's (1988) survey which was conducted with respect to the learning styles in adult migrant education, this recommendation was proposed:

It is hoped that classroom practice will become geared to the developing of good and appropriate learning strategies (to a much greater degree than at present). This means:

a) Exploration of strategies which learners are already making use of, which derive from their previous education and their own cognitive individuality; this exploration can be done through questionnaire and discussion.
b) Exploration of the relation between individual learning style and the person's existing strategies (Willing, 1988, p. 172).

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to investigate both the individual learning styles of the adult EFL Learners of Iran Language Institute and the language learning strategies they use. Moreover, to reveal whether there is a relationship between language learning strategies and learning styles of the adult EFL Learners of Iran Language Institute of Bandar Abbas.

This study might be useful to both language teachers and learners because it might raise teachers' awareness concerning their own learning and teaching styles. It is known that most teachers tend to teach in the way they were taught or in the way they preferred to learn. Sometimes because of the difference between the teachers' teaching style and learners' learning styles some conflicts may arise, which might have negative effects both on the learner and on the teacher. That's why teachers should know about the general learning style preferences of the whole class, in order to organize and employ more effective instructional materials.

Raising students' awareness regarding their learning styles and strategies might make them not only more prepared for learning but also more analytic about their learning styles and the strategies they use. Reid (1995) states that developing an understanding of learning environments and styles "will enable students to take control of their learning and to maximize their potential for learning".

This study might also prove useful to the curriculum developers and material producers of Iran Language Institute, as knowing students' general preference tendencies might enable material developers to produce materials that would match students' learning styles and would also help students to manipulate beneficial strategies. Based on the mentioned discussions, the following research hypotheses stand out:

1. The adult learners of Iran Language Institute of Bandar Abbas have no language learning style preferences.

2. The adult EFL Learners of Iran Language Institute of Bandar Abbas use no language learning strategies.

3. There is no relationship between learning styles and language learning strategies of the adult EFL Learners of Iran Language Institute.

Literature review

As it was stated earlier, Oxford (1989) claims "it is likely that a strong relationship exists between the individual's use of learning strategies and the individual's learning style… Sadly little research has been dedicated to the relationship between learning strategy use and learning style" (p. 241).

One of the studies conducted on learning styles was conducted by Rossi-Le (1989), who "found a significant relationship between sensory preference (visual, auditory, tactile, and kinesthetic) and overall strategy use on the ESL/EFL SILL, and she also found significant predictive relationships through multiple regression". The results Rossi Le (1989) obtained indicated that the visual learners used visualization strategies and that auditory learners used memory strategies more frequently than did the other learners. Tactile learners showed significant use of strategies for searching for communicating and meaning and self-management/metacognititive strategies. Kinesthetic learners did not use general study strategies or self-management/metacognititive strategies as frequently as the others did.

Another study which is similar to the one mentioned above was conducted by Oxford et al. (1991 as cited in Swanson, 1995). Its results also indicated strong relationship between LLS use and the sensory preferences of the learners, which are regarded as a dimension of learning styles. Their findings indicate that visual learners had the tendency to use strategies involving reading alone, in a quiet place or paying attention to blackboards, movies, computer screens, and other forms of visual stimulation. The auditory learners were found to be at ease without visual input and often manipulated strategies that encouraged conversation in a noisy, social environment with numerous sources of aural stimulation. The kinesthetic students were found to be in need of movement strategies and the tactile ones needed strategies that required the manipulation of real objects in the learning environment. Yet, both kinesthetic and tactile learners were found to need to use the strategy of taking frequent breaks.

Shih and Gamon (2003) also conducted a research to reveal the relationship among student learning styles, motivation, learning strategies, and achievement in Web-based courses. The participants of the study were the 99 students taking two Web-based courses. They were asked to respond to the on-line questionnaire prepared by the researchers. Besides the items with respect to motivation, learning styles, and learning strategies, there were some demographic variables such as gender, Web-based courses they were taking, types of students as off-campus, on-campus, or adult students were also taken into account in the analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaire. The results showed that the learning styles of the students and their demographic characteristics did not influence their achievement in the Web-based courses. Furthermore, the field-independent students were similar to the field-dependent students with respect to their motivation, learning strategies, and achievement in Web-based courses. At the end of the research the researchers draw two important conclusions. The first one is that the achievement of student with different learning styles and backgrounds in Web-based courses was equally well. The other conclusion was that learning styles did not have an impact on student motivation and use of learning strategies.

Li Jie and Qin Xiaoqing (2006) did a research on the relationship between learning styles and language learning strategies in the EFL context in China. The study presented two kinds of data: quantitative and qualitative. In the quantitative study, the subjects consisted of 187 second-year undergraduates. Two self-reported inventories, the Chinese version of MBTI-G and a questionnaire on the use of learning strategies adapted from O'Malley and Chamot's classification system, were used to examine the students' learning styles and learning strategies respectively. The researchers' interviews had been performed among the six high and low achievers in the qualitative aspect of the study. The analyses showed that learning styles have a significant influence on learners' learning strategy choices. The Judging scale correlated positively with seven sets of learning strategies. Thus it turned out to be the most influential learning style variable affecting learners' learning strategy choices. Compared with low achievers, high achievers were more capable of exercising strategies that were associated with their non-preferred styles.

Threeton and Walter (2009) sought to identify the learning styles of postsecondary automotive technology students, in order to meet the educational needs of the learners. They used Kolb's Learning Style Inventory (LSI) (Kolb & Kolb, 2005) as an instrument to assess

individual learning styles for learning. The target population for this study was postsecondary automotive technology students in the central region of Pennsylvania (i.e., from New York to Maryland). The data collection phase of this study was conducted during the spring of 2008 at the three public postsecondary institutions in central Pennsylvania offering automotive technology as a program of study. These faculty members selected specific automotive technology classes to participate in this study for a total of 189 potential research participants. Faculty members allotted 90 minutes of class time for data collection. The Learning Style Inventory (LSI) revealed that the Accommodating style was most highly represented (39.8%), and the Assimilating classification the least preferred style (16.5%).

Theoretical framework

Language learning styles

The definition of learning styles is a major concern among the scholars in the field. According to Kirby (1979, as cited in Swanson, 1995) "the term learning styles came into use when researchers began looking for ways to combine course presentation and materials to match the needs of each learner". Dunn and Dunn (1979, as cited in Reid, 1987) define learning styles as "a term that describes the variations among learners in using one or more senses to understand, organize, and retain experience" (p. 89). Reid (1995) asserts that learning styles have some fundamental characteristics, on which they are based. These are:

• Every person, student and teacher alike, has a learning style and learning strengths and weaknesses;
• Learning styles exist on wide continuums; although they are described as opposites;
• Learning styles are value-neutral; that is, no one style is better than others (although clearly some students with some learning styles function better in a US school system that values some learning styles over others);
• Students must be encouraged to "stretch" their learning styles so that they will be more empowered in a variety of learning situations;
• Often, students' strategies are linked to their learning styles;
• Teachers should allow their students to become aware of their learning strengths and weaknesses.

(Reid, 1995)

Many different dimensions of learning styles have been identified so far. Table 1 provides a summary of the various dimensions identified so far by Reid with their brief definitions.

Table 1: Reid's Perceptual Learning Styles

	Perceptual Learning Styles
Visual	Learns more effectively through the eyes (seeing)
Auditory	Learns more effectively through the ear (hearing)
Tactile	Learns more effectively through touch (hands-on)
Kinesthetic	Learns more effectively through complete body experience
Group	Learns more effectively through working with others
Individual	Learns more effectively through working alone

Language learning strategies (LLS)

Within the field of foreign/second language teaching, the term language learning strategies has been defined by key researchers in the field, such as Rubin (1987), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Stern (1992), and Oxford (1990). But the definition of learning strategies of Oxford (1990) is more expanded and it defines them as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations." Oxford (1990) summarizes her view of LLS by listing twelve key features below as they:

• Contribute to the main goal, communicative competence;
• Allow learners to become more self-directed;
• Expand the role of teachers;
• Are problem oriented;
• Are specific actions taken by the learner;
• Involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive;
• Support learning both directly and indirectly;
• Are not always observable;
• Are often conscious;
• Can be taught;

• Are flexible;

• Are influenced by a variety of factors.

(Oxford, 1990)

Also among all the existing learning strategy taxonomies Oxford (1990) provides the most extensive classification of LLS developed so far, as it can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2: Oxford's Strategy Classification System

Oxford's Strategy Classification System			
Direct Strategies	Memory Strategies	A. Creating mental Linkages	1. Grouping 2. Associating/elaborating 3. Placing new words into a context
		B. Reviewing well	1. Structured reviewing
		C. Employing action	1. Using physical response or sensation 2. Using mechanical techniques
	Cognitive Strategies	A. Practicing	1. Repeating 2. Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems 3. Recognizing and using formula And patterns 4. Recombining 5. Practicing naturalistically
		B. Receiving and sending messages	1. Getting the idea quickly 2. Using resources for receiving and sending messages
		C. Analysing and Reasoning	1. Reasoning deductively 2. Analyzing expressions 3. Analyzing contrastively 4. Translating 5. Transferring
		D. Creating structure for input and output	1. Taking notes 2. Summarizing 3. Highlighting
	Compensation Strategies	A. Guessing Intelligently	1. Using linguistic clues 2. Using other clues
		B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing	1. Switching to the mother tongue 2. Getting help 3. Using mime or gesture 4. Avoid communication partially or totally 5. Selecting the topic 6. Adjusting or approximating the message 7. Coining words 8. Using a circumlocution or synonym

Indirect Strategies	Metacognitive Strategies	A. Centering your Learning	1. Overviewing and linking with already known material 2. Paying attention 3. Delaying speech production to focus on listening
		B. Arranging and planning your learning	1. Finding out about language learning 2. organizing 3. Setting goals and objectives 4. Identifying the purpose of a language task (purposeful listening /reading/speaking/writing) 5. Planning for a language task 6. Seeking practice opportunities
		C. Evaluating your learning	1. Self-monitoring 2. Self-evaluating
	Affective Strategies	A. Lowering your anxiety	1. Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing or meditation 2. Using music 3. Using laughter
		B. Encouraging yourself	1. Making positive statements 2. Taking risks wisely 3. Rewarding yourself
		C. Taking your emotional temperature	1. Listening to your body 2. Using a checklist 3. Writing a language learning diary 4. Discussing your feelings with someone else
	Social Strategies	A. Asking questions	1. Asking for clarification and verification 2. Asking for correction
		B. Cooperating with others	1. Cooperating with others 2. Cooperating with proficient users of the new language
		C. Empathizing with others	1. Developing cultural understanding 2. Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings

Methodology

Subjects

The subjects in this study were the Elementary level students studying English at the ILI of Bandar Abbas. There were a total of 209 Elementary level students in 3 levels that 110 learners (6 classes) participated in this research (82 female learners, and 69 male learners). The age of the learners ranged between 14 and 30 (there were also 4 female students with the age of above 45 in

EL 1 as exceptions). Students had different educational backgrounds. Majority of them were high school students and a few of them were university learners. Some of them were private school students, others were public school students. Also some were in the ILI from the Basic levels and some were their first time in the ILI.

Instruments and data collection

In this study, two instruments were used with the purpose of collecting quantitative data. The first instrument that was used in the current study is the *Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire* (PLSPQ) developed by Reid (1987). It is a self-reporting questionnaire developed on the basis of existing learning style instruments with some changes suggested by non-native speaker scholars and US consultants in the field of linguistics. Reid (1987) stated that the validation of the questionnaire was done by the split half method. The questionnaire, which was designed and validated for non-native speakers, consists of five statements on each of the six learning styles to be measured: visual, auditory, kinesthetic, tactile, group learning, and individual learning. The first four categories are in the perceptual learning style categories and the remaining two are in the social category. The participants responded on the basis of a five point Likert-scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. In this study the Persian translation of the questionnaire was used. The translation was done by the researcher, edited by a translator, proofread by two teachers of the ILI. It was piloted with 29 students in EL1 that had not participated in the study before it was administered to the real participants. The students were able to complete the questionnaire in 15 minutes. Based on the students' responses to the questionnaire, the reliability coefficient, Cronbach alpha of the questionnaire was found to be .75.

The second instrument used in this study is the *Strategy Inventory for Language Learning* developed by Oxford (1990). It is a self-report, paper and pencil survey. The SILL was originally designed to assess the frequency of use of language learning strategies by students at the Defence Language Institute in California. Two versions of the SILL are available in Oxford's (1990) language learning strategy book for language teachers. The first one is used with language learners whose native language is English and it is consists of 80 items. The second one is used with learners of English as a second or foreign language. It contains 50 items. The latter version was used in this study. Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) assert that the results of the studies

regarding the reliability of the ESL/EFL SILL have shown that it is a highly reliable instrument. They also add that when the instrument is administered in its English version, though slightly lower, the reliabilities were still acceptable. Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) report the results of various studies with respect to this; for example, Oxford et al (1989) reported a reliability of .86 with 156 students. Concerning the content validity of the questionnaire, Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) state that the content validity of the instrument was determined by professional judgments and it was found to be very high. "Two strategy experts matched the SILL items with agreement at .99 against entries in a comprehensive language learning strategy taxonomy, which itself was built from a detailed blueprint of a range of over 200 possible strategy types" (p. 7).

The SILL (Version 7.0) consists of six subsections and each section represents one of the six categories of LLS, which the learners do not know at the time of taking the questionnaire. The 50 statements in the questionnaire follow the general format 'I do such and such' and students respond on 5 point Likert- scale ranging from 1 'Never or almost never true of me' to 5 'Always or almost always true of me'. The participants are required to write the answers on a separate answer sheet. After all the answers are completed, the values assigned to each item in each section are added and then divided into the number of items in each section. The same procedures are repeated for each section and values ranging between 1and 5 are obtained. These values show the profile of a learner, in other words, the strategy groups employed by the learner and their frequency.

The SILL has been translated into many languages such as Chinese, Japanese, and Spanish (Oxford 1995). A Persian translation of the instrument was used with Elementary level students in order to obtain more reliable results. The SILL was translated by the researcher, edited by a translator, and proofread by two ILI instructors. Before it was used with the participants of the study, the questionnaire was piloted with the previously mentioned 25 students in EL1 in order to find out any potential problems with the questionnaire that may arise during the data collection. It took students around 20 minutes to respond to the questionnaire. A reliability analysis was conducted to determine the reliability of the translated version of the questionnaire. The reliability coefficient Cronbach alpha was found to be .90, which showed that it was highly reliable.

The think aloud protocols were used to gather qualitative data with respect to the actual strategies student used while reading. For the think aloud protocols some six volunteer students

were chosen (3 boys and 3 girls). They were almost of the same age and each was the student of one level in the Elementary levels (EL 1, 2, and 3). They were asked to complete a certain reading task, which were similar to the ones dealt with in class, chosen by the researcher from the Elementary Magazine of the ILI, as confirmed by the Elementary level teachers. The length of the text was almost a page. While performing the task they were asked to report the strategies they were using while reading and understanding the passage. Some training sessions were held with students to train them with regard to how to provide effective verbal report. When it was decided that they were capable of reporting effectively, the actual protocols were conducted. The students were given the same reading text for the actual protocols. The participants were allowed to produce the think aloud protocols in Persian. Their responses were audio recorded for analysis and they were transcribed word for word. After that, the protocols were coded using an adapted version of the coding index developed by Chamot and El-Dinary (1999). After the protocols were transcribed and coded the reliability of the assignment of strategies to the various categories was investigated by asking one coder other than the researcher to identify the reported strategies based on the coding index. Then, the codes were compared to the ones identified by the researcher and the percentage of interrater reliability was calculated to be 83%.

Data analysis

The statistical analyses were conducted by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The Pearson correlation was used to reveal whether there was a significant relationship between the learning styles and the language learning strategies. The data obtained from the think aloud protocols were analyzed by making use of a content analysis. The strategies the students actually made use of in a reading task were identified by using a coding index developed by Chamot and El-Dinary (1999).

Results & Findings

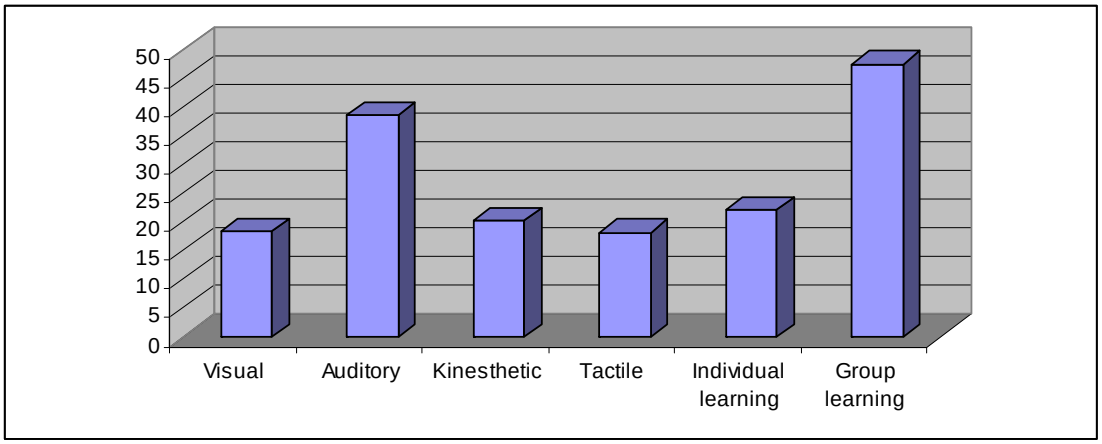
As it was stated earlier this study was an attempt to find evidence to accept or reject the five hypotheses presented earlier. This section investigates the hypotheses empirically one by one and reports the findings.

Hypotheses 1: language learning styles of the ILI's adult EFL learners

The Perceptual Learning Style Questionnaire was used to assess the students' learning styles. The questionnaire consisted of 30 questions designed to diagnose the major, minor, and negligible learning styles of students. When the responses that the participants gave to the questionnaire mentioned above were analyzed, it seemed that the mean scores of two learning styles, auditory, and group learning, being 38.48, and 47.43 respectively fall into the major learning styles category, and the remaining four styles which are tactile, visual, kinesthetic, and individual learning fall into the negligible learning styles category (see Table 3).

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics Concerning Learning Styles (N = 110)

Learning styles	**min**	**max**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
Visual	12.00	25.00	18.26	2.58
Auditory	28.00	50.00	**38.48**	4.30
Kinesthetic	8.00	51.00	20.13	6.16
Tactile	9.00	24.00	18.13	3.51
Individual learning	13.00	31.00	22.15	5.02
Group learning	5.00	83.00	**47.43**	24.09



Bar Graph 1: Graphical representation of ILI's adult EFL learners' language learning styles

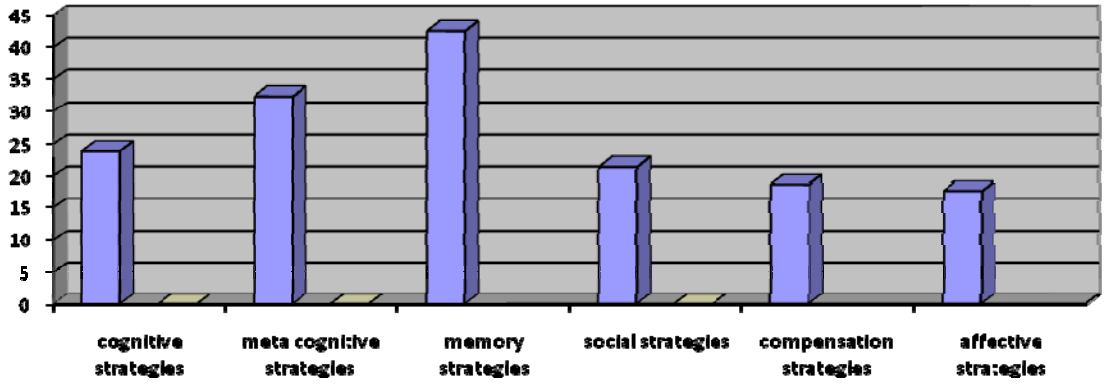
Hypotheses 2: Language learning strategies of ILI's Adult EFL learners

The purpose of using the Strategy Inventory for Learning Strategies was to identify the language learning strategy preferences of the students who participated in this study. The questionnaire consisted of 50 items, which identified the strategies of the respondents. The strategies were grouped under the main six categories: cognitive, memory, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies.

The results of the descriptive statistics conducted to identify the strategies of the participants in this study, indicated that the most preferred strategy category of all, with a mean score of 42.47 was the one related to memory strategies. Metacognitive strategies ranked the second with an average of 32.30. The third place in the ranking order was taken by the cognitive strategies with a mean score 23.86. Social strategies are ranked in the fourth place with an average of 21.41, and although the mean scores of the compensation and the affective strategies are very close to each other, 18.64 and 17.69 respectively, the latter category ranked the fifth and the former the sixth, the least preferred strategies (see Table 4).

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics Concerning Language Learning Strategies Preferences (N = 110)

Language learning strategies	**min**	**max**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
Cognitive strategies	10.00	38.00	23.86	5.51
Meta cognitive strategies	13.00	45.00	32.39	6.49
Memory strategies	18.00	64.00	42.47	8.95
Social strategies	9.00	30.00	21.41	4.97
Compensation strategies	8.00	28.00	18.64	4.23
Affective strategies	8.00	29.00	17.69	4.60



Bar Graph 2: Graphical representation of adult EFL learners' language learning strategies

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between learning styles and language learning strategies of the adult EFL Learners of Iran Language Institute

In order to determine whether there was a statistically meaningful relationship between the learning styles and the language learning strategies of the students, the Pearson correlation was computed (see Table 5).

The results revealed that the visual learning styles significantly correlated with memory strategies at $p < .05$ significance value with Pearson correlation being 0.083 and $p= 0.03$ (see Table 4.5). This implies that visual learners with respect to vocabulary learning, for example, can successfully arrange words in order make associations and review them in order to facilitate their retrieval.

The auditory learning styles significantly correlated with metacognitive and social strategies at $p < .05$ significance value with correlation coefficient being .26 ($p= 0.005$) and 0.19 ($p=0.03$) respectively (see Table 4.5). This implies that auditory learners are capable of thinking about their learning process, planning for learning, monitoring their learning task, and evaluating how well they have learned. The auditory learners can also ask questions without any hesitation. They are also good at cooperating with others. What is more, it can be added that they can empathize with others.

It was found that there was a significant relationship between the kinesthetic and group learning style categories and the cognitive strategies at $p < .05$ significance level, the correlation coefficient r was found 0.201 (p= 0.035) and 0.28 (p=0.003) respectively (Table 4.5). Therefore the results show that kinesthetic and group learners know how to manipulate and transform the target language well. That is, they are aware of what practicing strategies they need, how much practice they need, and what practicing strategies they need to make use of. Furthermore, these learners know how to analyze input logically and to make meaning out of it.

It was also found that there was a significant relationship between the kinesthetic learning style category and the compensation strategies at $p < .05$ significance level, the correlation coefficient r was found 0.219 and p=0.02. As it was stated earlier, compensation strategies equip students with the necessary techniques to comprehend and produce the language in spite of their limitations in their knowledge of the language. This means that, kinesthetic learners are able to guess intelligently by making use of either linguistic or non-linguistic clues. They can effectively make use of strategies such as using mimes and gestures, using a synonym, switching to mother tongue, or getting help from others.

The results also indicated that none of the learning styles had a statistically significant relationship with the affective strategies. This means that the students who participated in this study had difficulty in using affective strategies together with the other strategies.

Table 5: the results of Pearson Correlation Matrix to reveal the relationship between EFL learners' language learning styles and language learning strategies

		Cognitive strategies	Meta cognitive strategies	Memory strategies	Social strategies	Compensation strategies	Affective strategies
Visual	Pearson Correlation	-0.009	0.004	**0.083**	-0.046	-0.134	-0.005
	P	0.9	0.9	**0.03**	0.6	0.1	0.9
Auditory	Pearson Correlation	0.027	**0.264**	0.068	**0.199**	0.154	0.141
	P	0.7	**0.005**	0.4	**0.03**	0.1	0.1
Kinesthetic	Pearson Correlation	**0.201**	0.174	0.126	0.184	**0.219**	0.17
	P	**0.035**	0.07	0.1	0.05	**0.02**	0.07

Tactile	Pearson Correlation	0.479	0.564	0.824	0.513	0.53	0.383
	P	0.06	0.07	0.09	0.072	0.071	0.05
Group learning	Pearson Correlation	0.154	**0.28**	0.099	0.175	0.106	0.097
	P	0.1	**0.003**	0.3	0.06	0.2	0.3
Individual learning	Pearson Correlation	-0.228	-0.211	-0.102	-0.118	-0.239	-0.021
	P	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.8

The analysis of the think aloud protocols

The purpose of conducting the think aloud protocols was to gather qualitative data with respect to the strategies students make use of while reading a text. In this study, the think aloud protocols were used to collect data with respect to the cognitive and metacognitive strategies students employed while reading a text.

The protocols were conducted with the students separately and the number of the training sessions differed according to the performance and the level of readiness of the students. During the final protocol all the students were asked to read the same text in order to be able to see what strategies students used while reading the same piece of reading. After the protocols were finished, the records were transcribed. The data were coded by a coder other than the researcher. The coder was provided with the coding index and a list of the definitions of the strategies. The definition list was adapted from Chamot and Kupper (1989).

Concerning the analysis of the cognitive strategies identified in the transcripts, it was found that the students mixed L1 and L2 and went back and forth from L2 and L1 that is they read in English and spoke in Persian.

Another very important characteristic revealed by the analysis of the transcripts was that students guessed the meaning or usage of an unfamiliar word by using the context or by dividing it into familiar meaningful parts. They were quite successful in making use of this. This was also parallel to the responses students gave to item 24, which states “To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses”.

The results also revealed that students did not frequently attempt to translate the text word for word into their own native language. Rather, they preferred to give the overall meaning of a sentence or group of sentences. This was also parallel to the points students assigned to item 22, which states "I try not to translate word for word", because they assigned 3 points for this item which means "somewhat true of me" rather than 5, which means "always or almost always true of me". However, when they reached unknown words or structures, in order to facilitate their comprehension of the text, they had the tendency to decode the sentences word by word.

Also they used synonyms and antonyms when they reached a newly known word that is they used specific language knowledge that they have acquired previously to facilitate the learning process.

Concerning the metacognitive strategies employed while reading a text, it was found that the students employed selective attention categories. They particularly, showed selective attention to the title of the text, and some made predictions based on the title.

Also, they employed selective attention to pronunciation that is they tried so much to sound native and even when they didn't know the exact pronunciation they tried to sound natural. This also indicated some kind of a parallelism between what students claimed to do and what they actually did. For instance, students' responses to item 11, which is "I try to talk like native speakers." were parallel to what they actually did in the protocols. Furthermore, they employed selective attention to grammatical rules.

It was also observed that in general the students were consistent with item 31 in the questionnaire "I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better', which focuses on monitoring strategies. The students stated that the item was always or almost always true of them, while two of them stated that it was usually true of them. Actually, students were found to be making use of a lot of monitoring strategies.

Another important finding was that students did not simply read the text and used their L2 and L1 knowledge to comprehend it. They made use of their own personal elaborations and judgments, and whenever they reached a question in the text they answered it based on their own experiences.

As it can be seen from the examples presented above, students expressed freely their opinions with respect to the text. While some of them disagreed with the author, some others agreed. A final, but most important finding that was observed in the think aloud protocols was

that when students were asked to read the texts, they either whispered or read the text loudly, which parallels to the result obtained from the analysis of the learning styles questionnaire that the major learning style preference of the students is the auditory learning styles category. In relation to this, another very frequently used strategy was the auditory recall. When students had some doubts about the meaning of a given word, they were reading it aloud so that they could retrieve it and they were quite successful in doing this. .

Conclusion

This was a descriptive study based on a survey research. The study aimed to identify students' perceptual learning styles and language learning strategies, to find out whether there were any differences between male and female students with respect to their learning styles and learning strategies, and most importantly to investigate the relationship between the learning style and language learning strategies of the Elementary students of Iran Language Institute. Two kinds of instruments were used for data collection. The quantitative data were collected through two questionnaires, the Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning. The qualitative data were collected through the think aloud protocols.

The data obtained from the learning styles questionnaire mentioned above were analyzed. Based on the cut off points stated in the scoring sheet of the questionnaire, it was found that only the mean scores of two learning style preference categories, auditory and group learning, being 38.48, and 47.43 respectively, fitted into the major learning style preferences category. Since the mean scores of the remaining four categories were below 25, the cut off point for minor learning style preferences category, they fitted the negligible learning style preferences category. The fact that the students were mainly group learning learners was surprising because the participants' language instructors stated that they were individual learning learners and they employed teaching techniques that cared for the needs of the individual learners mostly, which indicated a mismatch between the teaching styles of the instructors and the learning styles of the participants.

Also no statistically significant gender difference in the styles category was found between females and males. The most preferred strategy category of all, with a mean score of 42.47 was the one related to memory strategies. Metacognitive strategies ranked the second with an average

of 32.30. The third place in the ranking order was taken by the cognitive strategies with a mean score of 23.86. Social strategies are ranked in the fourth place with an average of 21.41. The compensation strategies ranked the fifth with an average of 18.64 and the affective strategies with an average of 17.69 were the least preferred strategies. Again no statistically significant difference between the strategy preferences of the two genders was found.

Regarding the results obtained from the think aloud protocols, it was found that students made use of many cognitive and metacognitive strategies in order to understand the text and to cope with the problems they faced while reading it. The result of the perceptual learning style questionnaire that the auditory learning was the major learning style was confirmed as well since students either whispered while reading the texts or they read it loudly.

The Pearson correlation was used to find whether there was a statistically meaningful relationship between the learning styles and the language learning strategies of the students. The results revealed that the visual learning styles significantly correlated with memory strategies ($r= 0.083$ and $p= 0.03$). This implies that visual learners with respect to vocabulary learning, for example, can successfully arrange words in order to make associations and review them in order to facilitate their retrieval. The auditory learning styles significantly correlated with metacognitive ($r=0.26$, $p= 0.005$) and social strategies ($r= 0.19$, $p=0.03$). This implies that auditory learners are capable of thinking about their learning process, planning for learning, monitoring their learning task, and evaluating how well they have learned. The auditory learners can also ask questions without any hesitation. They are also good at cooperating with others and they can empathize with others. It was found that there was a significant relationship between the kinesthetic ($r=0.201$, $p= 0.035$) and group learning style (0.28, $p=0.003$) categories and the cognitive strategies. Therefore, the results show that kinesthetic and group learners know how to manipulate and transform the target language well. That is, they are aware of what practicing strategies they need, how much practice they need, and what practicing strategies they need to make use of. Furthermore, these learners know how to analyze input logically and to make meaning out of it. It was also found that there was a significant relationship between the kinesthetic learning style category and the compensation strategies (0.219 and $p=0.02$). This means that, kinesthetic learners are able to guess intelligently by making use of either linguistic or non-linguistic clues. They can effectively make use of strategies such as using mimes and gestures, using a synonym, switching to mother tongue, or getting help from others. The results

also indicated that none of the learning styles had a statistically significant relationship with the affective strategies. This means that the students who participated in this study have difficulty in using affective strategies together with the other strategies. This supports the results obtained from the analysis of the SILL questionnaire that the least preferred strategies were the affective strategies among the learners.

Discussion

The findings of this study revealed that a relationship exists between learning styles and language learning strategies. This conclusion has some implications. First of all, besides being a teacher in the classroom, teachers should take over the responsibility of a researcher as well in order to identify not only their students' individual differences, but also know how to respond to the needs of their learners. Besides using instruments, teachers should constantly observe students very closely so that s/he can diagnose any changes in the learning profiles of the students. Of course, adopting teaching techniques that will match the needs of all the students might be difficult and it needs teachers' extra attempt.

Concerning the curriculum developers and material producers it can be stated that they should definitely work in cooperation with both teachers and students. Together with teachers, they should decide what aspect of learning styles they need to identify, what learning style instrument will be used to identify students' language learning strategies.

With respect to material producers, they should produce materials that teachers will use throughout their class research. What is more, the materials they produce should be in relationship with students' learning styles and they should be appealing to students' needs and interests. For this reason, curriculum developers and material producers should collect feedback from teachers and students in order to identify the weaknesses and strengths of their products. This will enable them not only to produce better materials but also to develop them. In conclusion, curriculum developers and material producers should work cooperatively with teachers and students so that they can design a better program, appropriate materials and tasks that will promote a more efficient and a more effective language learning atmosphere.

References

Anderson, N. (1991). Individual differences in strategy use in second language reading

and testing. *The Modern Language Journal*, 75, 461-472.

Chamot, A. U., & El-Dinary, P. B. (1999). Children's learning strategies in language immersion classrooms. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83, 319-338.

Cohen, A. D., & Scott, K. (1996). *A synthesis of approaches to assessing language learning strategies*. In R. L. Oxford (Ed.), Language learning strategies around the world: Cross cultural perspectives. (pp. 89-102) US: Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center Unv. of Hawaii at Manoa.

Curry, L. (1683). An Organization of Learning Styles, Theory, and Constructions. *ERIC Document Reproduction Service* No. ED235185.

Ehrman, M., & Oxford, R. (1990). Adult language learning styles and strategies in an intensive training setting. *The Modern Language Journal*, 74, 311-327.

Ehrman, M., & Oxford, R. (1989). Effects of sex differences, career choice and psychological type on adult language learning strategies. *The Modern Language Journal*, 73, 1-13.

Ehrman, M., & Oxford, R. (1995). Cognition plus: correlates of language learning success. *The Modern Language Journal*, 79, 67-89.

Green, J. M., & Oxford, R. (1995). A closer look at learning strategies, L2 proficiency, and gender. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29 (2), 261-297.

Swanson, L., (1995). Learning Styles: A Review of the Literature. *ERIC Document Reproduction Service* No. ED387067.

Jie, L.,& Xiaoqing, Q. (2006). Language Learning Styles and Learning Strategies of Tertiary-Level English Learners in China. *SAGE Publications*, 37(1) 67-90.

Kaylani, C. (1996). *The influence of gender and motivation on EFL learning strategy use in Jordan*. In R. Oxford (Ed.). Language learning strategies around the world: Cross-cultural perspectives. (pp. 75-88). Honolulu: University of Hawai, Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center.

Liu, M.,& Reed, W. M.(1994). The Relationship between the Learning Strategies and Learning Styles in a Hypermedia Environment. *ERIC Document Reproduction Service* No.ED372727.

O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., Stewner-Manzanares, G., Russo, R., & L. Küpper. (1985) Learning strategy applications with students of English as a second language.

TESOL Quarterly, 19 (3), 557-584.

Oxford. R., & Crookall, D. (1989). Research on language learning strategies: methods, findings, and instructional issues. *The Modern Language Journal*, 73, 404-419.

Oxford, R., & Nyikos, M. (1989). Variables affecting choice of language learning strategies by university students. *The Modern Language Journal*, 73, 291-300.

Riazi, A., & Riasati, J. (2007). Language Learning Style Preferences: A Students Case Study of Shiraz EFL Institutes. *Asian EFL Journal*, 9. Issue 1, Article 6.

Reid, J. M. (1987). The learning style preferences of ESL students. *TESOL Quarterly*,21 (1), 87-111.

Rossi-Le, L. (1995). *Learning styles and strategies in adult immigrant ESL students*. In J. M. Reid (Ed.) Learning styles in the ESL/EFL classroom. (pp. 118-125).

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

Tabanlioğlu, S., (2003) Language Learning Styles and Learning Strategies of Turkish University Students. *TESL Quarterly*, Vol. VI, No. 8.

Threeton, M. D., & Walter, R. A., (2009). Automotive Technology Student Learning Styles and Their Implications for Faculty. *Journal Of Industrial Teacher Education*, Volume 46, Number 3.

Vann, R. J., & Abraham, R. G. (1990). Strategies of unsuccessful language learners. *TESOL Quarterly*, 24 (2), 177-198.

Title

Comparative Genre Analysis of Newspaper Editorials Across English and Persian

Authors

Hamid Allami (Ph.D.)
Yazd University, Yazd, Iran

Zohreh Shiamizadeh (M.A.)
Yazd University, Yazd, Iran

Bio data

Dr. Hamid Allami is Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics at Yazd University, Yazd, Iran. He has published articles on various topics in Applied Linguistics in several international journals. He has also presented papers in international conferences. His research interest includes sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, critical discourse analysis and genre analysis.

Zohreh Shiamizadeh holds an M.A in TEFL from Yazd University, Yazd, Iran. She has presented articles at national and international conferences. She has extensive experience of teaching English as a foreign language. Her research interest includes discourse analysis and genre analysis.

Abstract

The present research was conducted to describe generic structure potential (GSP) of American English, Iranian Persian and Iranian English newspaper editorials within systemic functional linguistics. It also aimed to investigate whether there were statistically significant differences among GSP of these newspaper editorials. Analyzing schematic structure of the corpus showed that Iranian English and Persian newspaper editorials follow the same developmental pattern (GSP) which is distinct from GSP of American English newspaper editorials. The analysis of data revealed that statistically significant differences dominated the relation between Iranian Persian and American newspaper editorials, in terms of all structural elements. Regarding American English and Iranian English newspaper editorials, there were statistically significant differences between all structural elements of their GSP except for three elements, PBI (.377), DE (.154) and S (.115). On the

other hand, no statistically significant differences existed between GSP of Iranian English and Iranian Persian newspaper editorials except for one structural element-PBI (0.43).
Keywords: Genre analysis, Generic structure potential (GSP), Systemic functional linguistics, Newspaper editorials.

Introduction

One of the issues that have come under the spotlight of many involved in the field of language teaching is contrastive rhetoric. Contrastive rhetoric developed out of the pedagogical concerns related to writing in English as a second language (ESL) (Connor, 1996). Kaplan (1966) in his first article that initiated the cross-linguistic comparison of rhetorical styles claimed that each language and culture has a paragraph organization that is unique to it. This argument formed the foundation of contrastive rhetoric hypothesis, which has influenced the research on writing. Later, in 1978, Kaplan expanded his theory from paragraph level to text level and posited that "rhetorical patterns of texts might vary widely with languages" (p. 66).

To test Kaplan's (1978) claim, many researchers conducted studies on texts written in different languages. Most of these pioneering studies focused on students' school essays. To explore the validity of application of Kaplan's (1978) claim to other modes and domains, researchers require a criterion according to which they can decide on the comparability of texts written in different languages (Connor, 1996). According to Connor (1996), they adapt genre theory as the criterion, the fundamental concept of which is "genre." The working definition of genre was proposed by Swales (1990). Swales (1990) defined genre as a set of communicative events whose members share the same purpose. This purpose constitutes the rationale for the genre, which in turn shapes schematic structure of genre. In this definition, text types are defined by the communicative purpose. In other words, it is the communicative purpose of texts that determines their comparability.

Applying the concept of genre as the comparability criterion and drawing on Kaplan's (1978) claim that there might be differences in the rhetorical pattern or what Swales (1990, p. 44) called "schematic structure" of the same text written in different languages, researchers have conducted comparative studies on rhetorical patterning of the same genre written in different languages. Not surprisingly, most of these studies have focused on academic genres such as research articles (Najjar, 1990; Martin, 2003; Kwan, 2006; Amirian, Kassaian & Tavakoli, 2008). Some other comparative inquiries have

concentrated on less public genres, such as recommendation letters (Bouton, 1995), research reports (Riazi and Fiangol, 2002), and editorial letters (Flowerdew & Dudley-Evans, 2002; Esther Vasquez del Arbol, 2005).

However, very few comparative studies have focused on the similarities/ distinctions between rhetorical structures of such pervasive everyday texts as newspaper editorials (Connor, 1996). In fact, from a comparative genre analytic perspective, editorial is a neglected genre. The purpose of editorial, as a text type or genre, is to persuade the reader (Connor, 1996). It presents the public opinion and plays a definitive role in the formation and altering public opinion (Van Dijk, 1995). Its function is to comment on a recent event and gain the reader's agreement or corroborate a pre-existing consensus through a series of textual strategies (Alsono, 2008). As its definition shows, editorial is a too public genre to be disregarded in comparative genre studies. In this light, the present research is an attempt to present a contribution to the field of comparative genre analysis of newspaper editorials in different languages.

Purpose of the study

As mentioned previously, the purpose of this study is to explore generic structure of American English, Iranian English and Iranian Persian newspaper editorials within systemic functional linguistics and determine whether there are statistically significant differences between schematic structure of these editorials. To achieve these purposes the following research questions are formulated:

1) What is the GSP of American English, Iranian English and Persian newspaper editorials?

2) Are there statically significant differences between the schematic structures of these editorials?

Review of Literature

Systemic Functional Linguistics

Systemic functional linguistics views language as a strategic meaning creating source (Eggings, 2004) and not as a set of rules (Paltridge, 1993). Therefore, this theory is predominantly functional rather than formal, which focuses on the function of language in real life contexts (Paltridge, 1993). In other words, it adopts a functional semantic approach to language that explores not only how people use language but also how language is structured for use as a semiotic system (Eggings, 2004).

According to Paltridge, this theory is called systemic because its practitioners believe that grammar describes language as "being made up of systems, each having a set of features which are in contrast with one another"(Morley, 1985, p.42). In addition, it "interprets language as being a system network of

meaning potentials" (ibid). The functional dimension of SFL derives from the view that grammar delineates the role that language plays in the specific social activity, of which it is constitutive (Paltridge, 1993). SFL, thus, accounts for both paradigmatic relations of system as well as syntagmatic relations of structure and sequence (Morley, 1985).

Moreover, Halliday (1999) believed that systemic functional linguistics can be efficiently employed to help us analyze different types of texts and relate them to the original context in which they were produced as well as their general background- whom it is written for, what its angle is on the subject matter, and so on.

Eggings (2004) posited that, this approach to language has two characteristics that distinguish it from other theories of language. It develops a theory of language as a social process and devises an analytical methodology that provides detailed systemic description of language patterns. These distinguishing features imply that systemic functional linguistics permits a detailed description of schematic structure and realizational features of genres. In addition, it has the potential to specify possibility of variations of a single genre across cultures and describe different genres in a single culture.

The principal unit of analysis in SFL is text, which is defined as any kind of passage, whether spoken or written that makes a unified whole. The term "unified whole" is described as texture which is claimed to be the distinguishing feature of texts (Eggings, 2004). Halliday and Hassan (1976) supposed texture to be the interaction of two concepts, namely cohesion and coherence. Cohesion is the way elements within a text are hold together and coherence refers to the way group of clauses and sentences relate to the context. This context is of two types, context of situation and context of culture. The binary feature of context (situation and culture) produces two types of coherence, registral coherence (context of situation) and generic coherence (context of culture). To establish registral coherence of a text three features of context of situation-field, tenor and mode- should be taken into account. Field is topic or focus of an activity, tenor is the role relationship of power and solidarity between participants and mode is the amount of feedback and role of language. A text has registral coherence on the condition that these features can be identified for it.

Generic coherence is maintained when a unified purpose can be diagnosed that motivate production of a text. This unified purpose is usually expressed through a predictable generic or schematic structure (generic structure potential) (Halliday and Hassan, 1976). As Martin (1984) puts it:

"Genre is a staged-goal-oriented purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of our cultures."

Hence, the defining characteristic of a genre in SFL is its purpose, which is uttered through a predictable organization of text. In other words, it is the purpose of the text, which determines whether it belongs to a particular type of genre. However, there may be variations in the schematic structure of a single genre across cultures. In other words, different cultures may use different ways of expressing the same purpose via language.

To delineate schematic structure of a genre in SFL, two fundamental concepts should be considered: constituency and labeling (Eggings, 2004).

Constituency: Genre is made up of constituents, which are derived when schematic structure of a genre is described. These constituents or stages may be optional (may or may not occur in a genre) or obligatory (must occur in a genre). Optional elements or in Hasan's (1984) terms, elaborative elements contribute to the development of a more elaborated text for the particular genre but are not, in fact, essential to the creation of the texts. This obligatory/optional distinction characterizes what constitutes a particular genre. Hence, a genre is defined in terms of the obligatory elements of its schematic structure and variants of a genre are those in which the obligatory elements as well as some of the optional ones appear. This helps to recognize the difference between generic structure potential and actual generic structure of a particular text.

Hasan (1984: p. 79) describes the *generic structure potential* of a particular genre as "a statement of the structural resources available within a given genre". It is therefore an abstract category and is "descriptive of the total range of textual structures available within a genre" (ibid). Furthermore, according to Paltridge (1993), generic structure potential must specify those elements whose presence is obligatory to the particular genre and those elements, which are optional for the particular genre, as well as the ordering of the elements in relation to each other, including the possibility of recursion .The analysis should, thus, demonstrate:

(1) *What* elements *must* occur

(2) *What* elements *can* occur

(3) *Where* they *must* occur

(4) *Where* they *can* occur

(5) How *often* they can occur (Hasan, 1989)

Labeling: Labeling is the criterion according to which two parts of a text are determined to establish separate stages. There exist two criteria for labeling, a formal criterion and a functional one. In formal criterion, the form of constituents distinguishes separate stages of a schematic structure of a genre. This

approach emphasizes similarity. On the contrary, functional criterion is based on difference. The yardstick utilized by functional criterion to discern different constituents of a genre is the function of each stage.

Formal approach determines the class of linguistic items that appear within a genre. It does not provide us with the answer to the functionally oriented question "how does each stage in the genre contribute to accomplish overall purpose of the text?" which forms the basis of analyzing schematic structure of a genre. The second approach, thus, is taken to generic analysis of the text in which functional constituents are recognized as the sentence or sentences, which fulfill a function relative to overall purpose of the genre.

Previous empirical research

Sinclair (1995) defined editorial as a newspaper article that gives the editor or publisher's opinion on a topic. According to Connor (1996), currently little cross-cultural knowledge is available on the genre of editorial as a type of writing that sets standards for written persuasion and presents the best exemplar of persuasive writing in every country.

Sugiura (1966) utilized Winter's (1977) problem-solution model and Hoey's (1983) general-to-particular vs. particular-to-general patterns of text organization to conduct a contrastive study on the linguistic quality of five English editorials published in The Asahi Evening News (a Japanese newspaper) and The Times (a British newspaper) at micro and macro-structural levels. At a micro-structural level, he assessed quantitative features of texts such as passivization and lexical cohesion and at macro-structural level, he focused on qualitative rhetorical features such as clause-relation and information structure.

Tirkkonen-Condit and Lieflander-Koistinen (1989) did a study on the placement and strength of argument in Finnish, German and English editorials. Their observation showed that what distinguished Finnish editorials from German and English ones was the lack of argument statement. In fact, Finnish editorials informed a point of view rather than arguing it. As to the place of argument statement, it had more occurrences at the beginning of German editorials than English ones.

Employing Biber's system, Dantas-Whitney and Grabe (1989) investigated the possibility of variation in the use of fifteen linguistic variables such as third-person singular pronoun, nominalization and preposition across twenty Brazilian, Portuguese and English newspaper editorials. They maintained that English editorials were characterized by more use of nominalization, preposition and a language

that was more formal. On the contrary, Portuguese editorials used less formal language and more personal aspects of texts, such as third person singular pronoun.

Maintaining Stub's (1981) view that exchange is the minimal interactive unit most amenable to linguistic structural analysis, Bolivar (1994) assumed that it is possible to use exchange in the analysis of written text. Thus, he considered newspaper editorial as an instance of interaction through written text and analyzed it based on a unit called triad. He stated that triad is similar to exchange in that it consisted of up to three structural elements and constituted the minimal unit of interaction in written text. He studied macro-structure of Guardian newspaper editorials and classified its triadic structure into three components- Lead (L), Follow (F) and Valuate (V), which were realized through sentences and were combined to construct higher units called Movement.

Van Dijk (1995) examined the British newspaper editorials on the topic of 1985 disorders. His study suggested that editorials were organized into three major categories: Definition, Evaluation of the events, and Recommendations or a Moral about the steps to be taken to avoid future riots.

Analyzing campus newspaper editorials written by Korean and American students, Kim (1995) compared rhetorical style of Korean and American university students' writing. He investigated the placement of a thesis summary and the topical structures of 30 editorials (10 editorials written by Korean university students, 10 editorials written in English by Korean university students, and 10 editorials written in English by American university students). The result revealed differences between rhetorical styles of Korean and American newspaper editorials. In addition, he argued that Korean ESL students transferred their L1 rhetorical style into their L2 writing to some degree.

Reynolds (2000) elaborated on the generic discourse texture of a number of editorials adopted from the London Times and Guardian. Theme of all editorials was about British General Election of May 1997. He claimed that it was possible to account for the texture of the editorial in terms of just three representational textural modes of narrative, description and argument. He showed that while editorials were a blending of textural modes by means of linear and layered blending; its genre was dominated by the argumentative mode, which was realized through hypotheses, predictions, evaluations and assertions.

Riazi and Assar (2001) drew on the model proposed by Bolivar's (1994) for British newspaper editorials to study schematic structure of Persian editorials. Fifty Persian editorials comprise the corpus of his study. He suggested that corresponding with schematic structure of English editorials, rhetorical

structure of Persian editorials was a triadic one which includes Lead (L), Follow (F) and Valuate (V). Lead has the function of presenting

the actual event. Follow develops the statement of the event and evaluates the preceding piece of discourse. And valuate performs the function of evaluator. It ends the movement and evaluates lead and follow.

Ansary and Babaii (2004) considered newspaper editorial as an important public "Cinderella Genre", and applied Systemic Functional Linguistics to the analysis of English newspaper editorials written by English natives. Exploring 30 editorials electronically culled from Washington Times, they described generic structure potential of editorial as Run on Headline (RH), Providing Background Information (BI), Addressing the Issue (AI), Argumentation (A), articulating a Position (AP).

RH^[(BI)**.**AI]^{(IA)^A1^A2^A…^(CA) }n ^{AP1^AP2^AP…}

Heli Katajamäki and Merja Koskela (2006) examined rhetorical structure of editorials in English, Swedish and Finnish business newspapers. They selected their corpus from Financial Times (7 editorials), Dagens Industri (7 editorials), and Taloussanomat (8 editorials) newspapers. Their analysis suggested that the typical rhetorical structure for the editorials included:

1) The introduction section, which describes an event

2) The intermediate section, which elaborates on the consequences of the event, and analyses them. This section can be divided into two stages a) intermediate stage, which can include reasons, evidence or examples and b) solution;

3) Coda, which consists of conclusion that closes the text. Sometimes the closing contains another element, which is moral.

However, they found some variation concerning the two stages of the solution and moral.

The Study

Theoretical framework of the study

The principal framework adapted for the purpose of this study has its origins in two models, namely, Van Dijk's (1995) model for British newspaper editorials, and Katajamäki and Koskela's (2006) model for business newspaper editorials.

Van Dijk's (1995) model for rhetorical structure of British newspaper editorials consists of three major categories: Definition, Evaluation of the events, and Recommendations or a Moral about the steps

to be taken to avoid future problems. And, Katajamäki and Koskela (2006) describe rhetorical structure of English, Swedish and Finnish business newspaper editorials as:

1) The introduction section which describes an event

2) The intermediate section that elaborates on the consequences of the event, and analyses them. They divide this section into two stages a) intermediate stage, which can include reasons, evidence or examples and b) solution;

3) Coda, which consists of a) conclusion that closes the text. Sometimes the closing contains another element, which is moral.

The central assumption on which this study is based is that to determine generic structure potential of a genre two basic concepts should be taken into account, constituency and labeling. Constituency is the fact that genre is made up of optional as well as obligatory elements which are derived when schematic structure of a genre is described. The second concept is labeling which emphasizes that each constituent is determined to establish a separate stage of the schematic structure of a genre according to the contribution it makes to the overall purpose of the genre (Eggings, 2004).

Data

A large portion of American English, Iranian Persian and Iranian English newspaper editorials culled from the electronic version of New York Times, Tehran Times and Keyhan newspapers (Nytimes.com, Tehrantimes.com and Keyhnnews.ir), all of which include the original content from their daily printed version. All three newspapers are representative of the newspapers of the countries where they are published.

In order to avoid the possible effect of diachronic changes on the schematic structure of this genre, only editorials published in 2009 were included in the sample. Out of this large corpus, a total of seventy-five editorials (25 from each newspaper) were selected randomly. (Title and the date of publication of each editorial are available in Appendix I, II and III).

Coding procedure

To determine and compare the generic structure potential of American English, Iranian Persian and Iranian English newspaper editorials, the researcher went through the following steps:

i) identifying and labeling the structural elements of the American English , Iranian Persian and Iranian English newspaper editorials in terms of their meaning and function.

ii) identifying the *generic structure* of each editorial individually, accounting for sequencing and recursion of structural elements.

iii) identifying a *generic structure potential (GSP)* for the genre (American English, Iranian English and Iranian Persian editorials) as a whole, including obligatory and optional structural elements, sequencing and recursion.

iv) evaluating reliability and validity of the study.

v) computing statistical significance of the distinction among American English, Iranian English and Iranian Persian editorials.

Results

GSP of American English editorials

The first step was to identify the generic structure of each American newspaper editorial individually. Utilizing the generic structure of individual newspaper editorials, the researcher describes generic structure potential of American editorials as:

H^(PBI)^SE^(DE)^CE^[GS.[(ESCS)^(ESCIS)^(ESDS)^(S)]]

in which parentheses show optional element, caret sign presents fixed order sequence, dot indicates optional sequence and brackets show restraint on sequence. So, in this model, Headline (H), Stating the Event (SE), Giving Causes of the Event (CE) and Giving Solution (GS) are obligatory elements, whereas Providing Background Information (PBI), Describing the Event (DE), Emphasizing Solution by Claiming Contribution of Solution (ESCS), Emphasizing Solution by Stating Consequences of Ignoring Solution (ESCIS), Emphasizing Solution by De-emphasizing other Solutions (ESDS) and Summarizing (S) are optional elements. Regarding sequence of elements, all elements follow a fixed order sequence except for Giving Solution (GS). This element can come either before [(ESCS)^(ESCIS)^(ESDS)^(S)]or after it.

Table1. Frequency of structural elements in American English editorials

	New York Times	
Element	F	%
Headline (H)	25	100%
Providing Background Information (PBI)	7	28%
Stating the Event (SE)	25	100%
Describing the Event (DE)	11	44%
Giving Causes of the Event (CE)	23	92%
Giving Solution (GS)	25	100%
Emphasizing Solution by Claiming Contribution of Solution (ESCS)	6	24%
Emphasizing Solution by Stating Consequences of Ignoring Solution (ESCIS)	5	20%
Emphasizing Solution by De-emphasizing Other Solutions (ESDS)	6	24%
Summarizing (S)	21	84%

As Headline (f=25, 100%)**,** Stating the Event (f=25, 100%) and Giving Solution (f=25, 100%) have been used in all instances, we may conclude that they are obligatory elements. As it was mentioned previously, Giving Solution is an obligatory element, which has two optional places to occur in. Thus, its total frequency of occurrence is the sum of its occurrence in two places: before [(ESCS)^(ESCIS)^(ESDS)^(S)] (f=19, 76%) and after it (f=6, 24%) which amounts to (f=25, 100%).

An additional obligatory variable is Giving Causes of the event. Although it does not occur in the entire corpus (f=23, 92%), it is described as obligatory, because it appears in the editorials whose generic structures include fewest number of structural elements. In other words, two editorials whose generic structures consist of four elements include Giving Causes of the Event as their third structural element.

Frequency of occurrence of Providing Background Information (f=7, 28%), Describing the Event (f=11, 44%), Emphasizing Solution by Claiming Contribution of Solution (f=6, 24%), Emphasizing Solution by Stating Consequences of Ignoring Solution (f=5, 20%), Emphasizing Solution by Deemphasizing other Solutions (f=6, 24%) and Summarizing (f=21, 84%) indicate that they are optional elements.

GSP of Iranian English editorials

To determine the generic structure potential of Iranian English editorials, the generic structure proposed for American English editorials was applied to each of the Iranian English newspaper editorials individually. Consequently, GSP of Iranian English editorials is described as:

H^(PBI)^SE^(DE)^(CE)^[(GS).(S)].

Table2.Frequency of structural elements in Iranian English editorials

	Tehran Times	
Element	*F*	%
Headline (H)	25	100%
Providing Background Information (PBI)	11	44%
Stating the Event (SE)	25	100%
Describing the Event (DE)	17	68%
Giving Causes of the Event (CE)	13	52%
Giving Solution (GS)	7	28%
Emphasizing Solution by Claiming Contribution of Solution (ESCS)	0	0%
Emphasizing Solution by Stating Consequences of Ignoring Solution (ESCIS)	0	0%
Emphasizing Solution by De-emphasizing Other Solutions (ESDS)	0	0%
Summarizing (S)	15	60%

According to the frequency of occurrence of generic structure elements in Iranian English (Tehran Times) newspaper editorials, it is concluded that it includes two obligatory elements, namely Headline (f=25, 100%) and Stating the Event (f=25, 100%). Frequency of occurrence of Describing the Event (f=17, 68%), Giving Causes of the Event (f=13, 52%), Giving Solution (f=7, 28%) and Summarizing (f==15, 60%) reveal that they are optional elements of rhetorical structure of Iranian English editorials. As Giving Solution has an optional sequence order, its total frequency is the sum of its occurrence before Summarizing (f=5, 20%) and after it (f=2, 8%).

Emphasizing Solution by Claiming Contribution of Solution (ESCS), Emphasizing Solution by Stating Consequences of Ignoring Solution (ESCIS) and Emphasizing Solution by De-emphasizing other Solutions (ESDS) do not appear in Iranian English editorials. As a result, they are not deemed as elements of rhetorical structure of Iranian English newspaper editorials.

GSP of Iranian Persian editorials

As a result of applying GSP of American newspaper editorials to Iranian Persian newspaper editorials, GSP of Iranian Persian newspaper editorials is described as:

H^(PBI)^SE^(DE)^(CE)^[(GS).(S)]

As it is obvious, GSP of Iranian Persian editorials is identical to GSP of Iranian English editorials. Frequency of occurrence of each element in generic structure of Iranian Persian editorials confirms this (Table 4.3).

Similar to Iranian English editorials, Iranian Persian editorials have two obligatory elements, namely Headline (f=25, 100%) and Stating the Event (f=25, 100%). Frequency of occurrence of Describing the Event (f=21, 84%), Giving Causes of the Event (f=7, 28%), Giving Solution (f=3, 12%) and Summarizing (f==11, 44%) reveals that they are optional elements of rhetorical structure of Iranian Persian editorials. Here, again the frequency of occurrence of Giving Solution is the sum of its occurrence before Summarizing (f=2, 8%) and after it (f=1, 4%).

Corresponding with GSP of Iranian English editorials, GSP of Iranian Persian editorials do not include Emphasizing Solution by Claiming Contribution of Solution (ESCS), Emphasizing Solution by Stating Consequences of Ignoring Solution (ESCIS) and Emphasizing Solution by De-emphasizing other Solutions (ESDS) as their structural elements.

Table3. Frequency of structural elements in Iranian Persian editorials

	Keyhan	
Element	*F*	%
Headline (H)	25	100%
Providing Background Information (PBI)	19	76%
Stating the Event (SE)	25	100%
Describing the Event (DE)	21	84%
Giving Causes of the Event (CE)	7	28%
Giving Solution (GS)	3	12%
Emphasizing Solution by Claiming Contribution of Solution (ESCS)	0	0%
Emphasizing Solution by Stating Consequences of Ignoring Solution (ESCIS)	0	0%
Emphasizing Solution by De-emphasizing Other Solutions (ESDS)	0	0%
Summarizing (S)	11	44%

Description of the GSP

This part describes the function of each element of the GSP proposed for American newspaper editorials and provides examples from New York Times newspaper. These examples are accompanied by additional examples from Iranian English (Tehran Times) and Iranian Persian (Keyhan) newspaper editorials.

Headline (H)

This obligatory element abbreviated as H is the first element of the schematic structure of all editorial. It gives the reader an idea about what is going to be discussed in the editorial.

Headline, (H) Example A:

Continuity of the Wrong Kind

(New York Times, February 10, 2009)

Headline, (H) Example B:

Prospects for Palestinian National Reconciliation

(Tehran Times, March 1, 2009)

Headline, (H) Example C:

احضار روح در انتخابات

Calling for Ghost in Elections

(Keyhan, March 9, 2009)

Providing Background Information (PBI)

This optional element provides the reader with some preliminary information on the theme of the editorial.

Providing Background Information (BI), Example A:

We have long felt that Mohamed ElBaradei and his United Nations nuclear inspectors were too patient with Iran's cat-and-mouse games and constant evasions. Even their patience is running out. In a report last week, the International Atomic Energy Agency declared that it had reached an impasse over Tehran's refusal to answer questions about its past nuclear activities. (An official close to the agency told The Times: "We seem to be at a dead end.") The report also said that Iran had substantially improved its ability to produce nuclear fuel in direct defiance of a Security Council ban.

(New York Times, April 22, 2009)

Providing Background Information (BI), Example B:

"In the three months after Marine Major John Ruocco returned from Iraq feeling numb and depressed, he couldn't sleep. He had lost weight. He had nightmares. He was distracted and withdrawn from his two young sons," on May 28, 2007, Jennifer C. Kerr of the Associated Press wrote. "One night, he promised his wife Kim that he would get help. The next morning he was dead. The 40-year-old Cobra helicopter pilot, based at Camp Pendleton, California, had hanged himself."

(Tehran Times, February 19, 2009)

Providing Background Information (BI), Example C:

امروز نخستین روز کاری باراک اوباما در کاخ سفید است و بسیاری از رسانه های داخلی و بین المللی به همین مناسبت تلاش کرده اند از آن به عنوان یک «روز خاص» یاد کنند. اگر چه تلاش ها برای این منظور با حرارت ادامه دارد اما به نظر می رسد قائل شدن به یک ویژگی خاص برای این روز نباید توجیه چندانی داشته باشد و در واقع هم ندارد چرا که تا آنجا که به عناصر اصلی سازنده پدیده ای به نام «آمریکا» مربوط می شود چیز زیادی تغییر نخواهد کرد و روز 21 ژانویه 2009 هم یک روز است مثل همه روزهای دیگری که جهان از زمان ظهور پدیده آمریکا به خود دیده است.

Today is the Obama's first working day in White House and many national and international media tried to call it a "special" day. Although these attempts are continuing strenuously, it seems that there is no reason to consider such a quality for this day. In fact, assigning such a quality to this day is not justifiable, because as far as the basic elements that construct a phenomenon called "America" are concerned, nothing will be changed. And 21st of January will be a day like all the days that the universe has experienced since the appearance of US.

(Keyhan, January 21,2009)

Stating the Event (SE)

Stating the Event (SE) explicitly states the event, which is the focus of the editorial. It is an obligatory element.

Stating the Event (SE), Example A:

Congress's decision to mandate longer prison terms for people arrested with crack cocaine than those caught with the powdered form of the drug was both irrational and discriminatory.

(New York Times, April 30, 2009)

Stating the Event (SE), Example B:

Israeli President Shimon Peres' decision to ask extremist Likud party leader Benjamin Netanyahu to attempt to form a new cabinet will lead to a series of political and security crises in Israel's internal, regional, and international affairs.

(Tehran Times, February 23, 2009)

Stating the Event (SE), Example C:

اما، اظهارات ملک عبدالله، اگرچه با جمله یاد شده در حمایت ظاهری از مردم غزه و احترام سالوسانه به شهدای مظلوم آن دیار تزئین شده است ولی برخلاف آنچه رسانه های عربی درپی القای آن هستند، پادشاه سعودی در نطق روز دوشنبه خود بار دیگر بر حمایت از رژیم صهیونیستی تاکید ورزیده و کوشیده است جنایات وحشیانه اسرائیل را موجه! جلوه دهد.

In contrast with what Arabic Media are trying to indoctrinate, Malak Aba-Allah's speech on Monday, which was embellished with superficial support of Gaza's people and hypocritical respect for oppressed martyrdom of Gaza, was a further support of Zionist regime and a justification for Israel's wild crimes.

(Keyhan, Jan 24, 2009)

Describing the Event (DE)

Describing the Event acts as an optional element which offers a comprehensive description of the theme or event of the editorial.

Describing the Event (DE), Example A:

The Republicans have been particularly slow to grasp the depth of the problem and the anxiety and pessimism Americans are feeling. Campaigning over the weekend in Michigan — one of the hardest-pressed states and also the site of a G.O.P.-only primary this week — they doled out sympathy, but called mainly for their party's all-purpose fix: more tax cuts.

Sympathy is apt for a state with the nation's highest unemployment rate, and a targeted and short-term tax rebate may well be necessary. But as stimulus measures go, tax cuts are not nearly as effective as bolstered federal spending on unemployment compensation, food stamps and direct financial aid to states. None of the Republican candidates has yet to think that creatively. And they have barely mentioned the foreclosure crisis at the root of many of today's economic problems.

The Democratic front-runners have been slow off the mark, but they're catching on. Last week, Hillary Clinton called for a robust short-term stimulus package, including more federal spending for jobless benefits, home heating aid and grants to states to help prevent foreclosures. John Edwards has been pushing a similar plan for weeks. Barack Obama announced a rescue plan Sunday that relies more heavily on targeted tax cuts to get the economy moving, and less on direct spending.

The proposals from Mrs. Clinton and Mr. Edwards are closer to what's needed and the type of stimulus that Congressional leaders and the White House should begin to discuss as soon as President Bush returns from his Middle East trip. Even such welcome steps would need to be designed and managed carefully to ensure that they don't permanently add to the deficit. Spending to manage a crisis need not be paid for immediately.

Lawmakers and all of the candidates will still need to explain how stimulus measures would be paid for later on, when the economy has recovered.

(New York Times, May 14, 2009)

Describing the Event (DE), Example B:

Al Jazeera satellite TV in its broadcasts on the global shift of opinion toward the phenomenon of the historic oppression of Jews has underlined that Jews can no longer complain about the holocaust given the crimes Israel committed in Gaza. Previously, none of the genocides in Beirut, Sabra and Shatila, Qana and southern Lebanon could have deprived the Jews from the historic pretext. But Gaza has taken care of that. The Guardian and Le Figaro in reports on the international aftermath of Gaza crisis have said that the shocking developments in Gaza have created the biggest problems for the Jewish lobby, which now faces a serious predicament in advancing its influence overtheWhiteHouse.

(Tehran Times, Jan 20, 2009)

Describing the Event (DE), Example C:

ایران فراتر از پیشرفت های خارق العاده اش در حوزه دفاعی و نظامی و موفقیت در اختراع سلاح های مدرن و فوق مدرن و طراحی و راه اندازی خط تولید موشک های دوربرد در عرصه های علمی و تحقیقاتی نیز حیرت و شگفتی قدرت های پرمدعا را برانگیخته است. کسب موفقیت های چشمگیر در زمینه های علمی از سلول های بنیادین و شبیه سازی گرفته تا دیگر عرصه های نانو تکنولوژی و بیوتکنولوژی، قابلیت تکنولوژیک ایران را به درجه و مرتبه ای رسانده است که در مخیله آمریکایی ها نمی گنجید. دست یافتن به دانش و فناوری هسته ای را می توان شاه بیت این پیشرفت ها و موفقیت ها نامید. البته خط ممتد و بدون وقفه توانمندی های علمی ایران کماکان ادامه دارد و «انگشت بر دهان گزیدن» دشمنان نیز تداوم یافته است.

اواخر هفته گذشته و در ایام دهه فجر سی امین سالگرد انقلاب اسلامی، یکی دیگر از پیشرفت های بزرگ علمی ایران رقم خورد تا بالندگی و پویایی انقلاب بار دیگر ثابت شود. ایران بعد از آنکه به کلوپ هسته ای قدرت های بزرگ در فناوری هسته ای راه یافته بود این بار به جمع 8 کشور صاحب فناوری پرتاب ماهواره راه یافت. پرتاب ماهواره «امید» و حضور مقتدرانه ایران در فضا در حالی است که برخلاف تلاش کشورهای غربی که همیشه سعی داشتند پرتاب موشک های ایران را نمایشی و غیر واقعی توصیف نمایند، این بار دانشمندان و نهادهای علمی آنها را ناگزیر به اعتراف کرد.

پنتاگون و سازمان فضایی آمریکا- ناسا- ضمن صحه گذاشتن بر پرتاب موفقیت آمیز ماهواره امید چاره ای جز به رسمیت شناختن توانمندی علمی ایران نیافتند. هرچند که بلافاصله ماشین جنگ روانی رسانه های غربی روشن شد و پرتاب ماهواره ایران را در جهت استفاده از عملیات جاسوسی و اطلاعاتی وانمود کردند! و تکنولوژی مربوط به ماهواره «امید» را با توانمندی بالستیکی قیاس کردند و آن را نگران کننده برای کل منطقه قلمداد نمودند!

In addition to its enormous developments in the defensive and military field and successful invention of modern weapons and designing and running manufacturing line of ballistic missiles, Iran's successes in science and research, have amazed pretentious powers. Salient scientific achievements in many different fields such as stem cells, cloning, nanotechnology and biotechnology have increased Iran's technological capability to a degree that violates US' imagination about Iran. Achievement of nuclear technology is the masterpiece of these advances. Iran's successful achievements are ceaseless and this causes the enemies' astonishment.

During the 30th anniversary of Islamic revolution, Iran has accomplished another scientific achievement which provided another evidence on dynamism of revolution. Iran previously joined the nuclear technology club and now it joins eight other countries having the technology to send satellite into space. Although, western countries usually attempt to describe Iran's rocket launches as theatrical and unreal, the launch of Iran's first research satellite "Omid" (Hope) led western scientists and scientific organizations to confess Iran's aerospace accomplishment.

Confirming Iran's successful launch of satellite "Omid" (Hope), Pentagon and NASA has no way other than recognizing Iran's scientific capabilities. However, western media began the psychic war and described Iran's satellite launch as an intelligent operation. They also, compared technology of "Omid" satellite to ballistic capabilities and declared it as a threat to the region.

(Keyhan, Feb 7, 2009)

Giving Causes of the Event (CE):

As an obligatory element of GSP of American English editorials, Giving Causes of the Event fulfills the function of mentioning the reasons that give rise to the event. However, it is an optional element of GSP of Iranian English and Persian editorials.

Giving Causes of the Event (CE), Example A:

Part of the problem, he said, is that this nation's schools have recently been engaged in "a race to the bottom" — most states have adopted abysmally low standards and weak tests so that students who are performing poorly in objective terms can look like high achievers come test time.

The nation has a patchwork of standards that vary widely from state to state and a system under which he said "fourth-grade readers in Mississippi are scoring nearly 70 points lower than students in Wyoming — and they're getting the same grade." In addition, Mr. Obama said, several states have standards so low that students could end up on par with the bottom 40 percent of students around the globe.

(New York Times, March 11, 2009)

Giving Causes of the Event (CE), Example B:

Although the Likud leader tried to establish a coalition with the Kadima party, led by Tzipi Livni, Kadima announced that it would prefer to remain in opposition to a Netanyahu cabinet.

In the recent Israeli parliamentary elections, Kadima won 28 seats, Likud won 27, the Yisrael Beiteinu party, led by hardliner Avigdor Lieberman, got 15 seats, and Ehud Barak's Labor party won 13 of the 120 seats in the Knesset.

The Likud party's plan to form a coalition with the small hardline right-wing parties, with the powerful Kadima and Labor parties in opposition, will produce a weak cabinet that will probably collapse after a short time in office.

If Netanyahu, who has repeatedly declared his opposition to the peace process, succeeds in forming a cabinet, that government will not be able to realize any significant internal, regional, or international achievements, and Israel will become even more isolated.

And if Netanyahu plans to use aggressive methods to suppress the Palestinians, he will certainly fail miserably, since he is not more adept at using such means than Ehud Olmert, Tzipi Livni, or Ehud Barak.

In addition, Netanyahu has made it totally clear that he has no intention to halt the construction of new settlements in the West Bank. This will cause more confrontation because the international community does not approve of the construction of new settlements in the territories occupied in 1967.

(Tehran Times, February 23, 2009)

Giving Causes of the Event (CE), Example C:

برآیند عقیم ماندن طرح ها و گفتمان سازی های آمریکایی- اسرائیلی از طرفی و کسب جایگاه ویژه ایران در منطقه و نفوذ معنوی در میان کشورهای مسلمان از طرف دیگر موجب شده است تا آمریکایی ها و صهیونیست ها به امید قطع کردن نوار ناکامی هایشان - و البته بدون آنکه درس عبرتی بگیرند و واقعیت ها را بپذیرند-در شرایط کنونی به شگردها و دسیسه های تکراری متوسل شوند.

Failure of American-Israeli schemes and negotiations on the one hand and Iran's achievement of a special place in the region and its spiritual influence in Muslim countries on the other hand, caused US and Israel to adopt repetitive and shabby/useless conspiracies, with the hope of moving a step forward in their plans concerning Iran.

(Keyhan, March 12, 2009)

Giving Solution (GS):

Giving solution acts as an obligatory element in GSP of American English and as an optional element in GSP of Iranian English and Persian editorials. It suggests a possible solution to the problem expressed as an event or theme in the editorial.

Giving Solution (GS), Example A:

What is needed is a game-changing diplomatic initiative. For that, Europe and the United States must agree quickly on a more persuasive set of punishments and incentives.

That means far tougher restrictions on trade and investment in Iran — if Russia and China block action at the Security Council, Europe and Washington will have to act without them — and far more generous diplomatic incentives, including a credible American offer of improved relations and security guarantees if Tehran abandons its nuclear ambitions.

(New York Times, April 22, 2009)

Giving Solution (GS), Example B:

Clearly, there is no way to face the threats of the incoming Israeli cabinet except through unity among Palestinians.

The establishment of a committee for monitoring the implementation of the agreements of the Cairo meeting is a good tactic for the Palestinians, which will allow them to put aside all their differences and utilize all of their potential to establish a strong national unity government gathering all Palestinian factions.

(Tehran Times, March 1, 2009)

Giving Solution (GS), Example C:

اما آنچه دراین میان مهم جلوه می کند این است که تداوم موفقیت ها و اثرگذاری های ایران در دهه چهارم انقلاب- که از سوی رهبر معظم انقلاب دهه پیشرفت و عدالت نام گرفته است- منوط به آسیب شناسی نقاط ضعف و شناخت عوامل و مؤلفه هایی است که بی توجهی به آنها می تواند سبب کند شدن پیشرفت شود.

However, what seems to be important is that continuation of Iran's success and influence in the fourth decade of revolution- which is called the decade of revolution and progress by the supreme leader of Iran –depends on identifying factors, ignorance of which impedes development.

(Keyhan, March 5, 2009)

Emphasizing Solution by Claiming Contribution of Solution (ESCS):

Employing this step, the editorial writer supports the proposed solution and encourages its enactment by claiming its benefits. This element appears neither in Iranian English, nor in Iranian Persian newspaper editorials.

Emphasizing Solution by Claiming Contribution of Solution (ESCS), Example A:

That way, the payments become affordable and, as equity is rebuilt, the borrower has both an incentive and the means to keep current.

(New York times, March 5, 2009)

Emphasizing Solution by Stating Consequences of Ignoring Solution (ESCIS):

At this step, the editorial writer puts a step forward in advocating the solution. Warning against the consequences of ignoring solution, he/she strongly recommends its application. This element also does not occur in any of the Iranian Persian and English newspaper editorials.

Emphasizing Solution by Stating Consequences of Ignoring Solution (ESCIS), Example A:

Spending cuts hit consumption hard, depriving the economy of money that would otherwise be spent quickly. They also have the disadvantage — so evident in the cuts proposed by Mr. Schwarzenegger — of falling heavily on the needy.

(New York Times, May 23, 2009)

Emphasizing Solution by De-emphasizing Other Solutions (ESDS):

This stage helps to corroborate the proposed solution by pointing to the deficits of the previous solutions utilized to tackle the problem. Similar to two previous elements, this step appears in none of the English and Persian newspaper editorials published in Iran.

Emphasizing Solution by De-emphasizing Other Solutions (DPS), Example A:

They keep the country trying to arrest, prosecute and deport its way toward a working immigration system. Enforcement alone will never get us there. Workplace raids, no matter how sensibly or tactfully redesigned, will never fix immigration by themselves. Indeed, they make things worse.

Raids do not uphold or reinforce workers' rights, a non sequitur in the world of off-the-books labor, where employers erode conditions for Americans by hiring workers at deplorable conditions and pay. They do not fix long backlogs in legal immigration, lines that extend years or decades, forcing people who want to follow the rules to make an agonizing choice between intolerable separations from their families or lawbreaking.

They do not protect illegal immigrants from the arbitrary cruelties of the detention and deportation system, in which due process is limited and detainees face unacceptable risk of sickness, injury and death in prison.

And the new enforcement regime, like the old, might lead employers to purge their payrolls of people they merely suspect are here illegally, to avoid the hassle and expense of a raid. When raids are coupled with electronic hiring-verification schemes like E-Verify, which the government has been inching toward, the likelihood of mass firings becomes greater.

(New York Times, May 2, 2009)

Summarizing (S):

As an optional stage, this element summarizes what has been discussed in the editorial.

Summarizing (S), Example A:

President Obama has taken some important steps to repair Mr. Bush's damaging legacy — issuing executive orders to prohibit torture, shut secret prisons overseas and direct closure of the detention camp at Guantánamo Bay, Cuba. It would have been good if he and Mr. Holder had shown the same determination in that federal court, rather than defending the indefensible.

(New York Times, February 10, 2009)

Summarizing (S), Example B:

Needless to say, for all practical purposes, to the extent that Ban is a supreme accomplice in the Iraqi disaster, to the same and may be to a higher degree, with his silence he is responsible for the crimes being committed by the occupying power in Gaza.

(Tehran Times, January 17, 2009)

Summarizing (S), Example C:

انقلاب اسلامی وامدار نهضت حسینی است. مفاهیم عاشورایی و عبرت های این واقعه عظیم با اسلام به عنوان ایدئولوژی انقلاب از سوی امام خمینی(ره) درهم آمیخت و مردمی ترین انقلاب قرن بیستم رقم خورد.
اکنون نیز که انقلاب و نظام سرافراز جمهوری اسلامی وارد دهه چهارم شده، موج فزاینده ای از پیشرفت های علمی، تحقیقاتی، صنعتی، پزشکی و... کشور را فرا گرفته است. بدون تردید با تکیه بر توانمندی های جوانان مسلمان و مردمی که در مکتب حسینی رشد یافته و صلابت و استقلال را آموخته اند، آینده ای روشن و افقی درخشان فراروی ایران اسلامی خواهد بود.

Iran's Islamic revolution is indebted to Imam Hossein (AS)'s movement. Ashura' doctrine and its lessons together with Islam was introduced as the ideology of Islamic revolution by Imam Khomein (RH), and this gave rise to the most popular revolution of the 20th century.
Entering the fourth decade of triumph, the revolution and the proud Islamic Republic of Iran's steadily enhancing scientific, industrial and medical progress. With no doubt by relying on young Muslim's capabilities, and people who grew up in Imam Hossein (AS)'s school and learned independence and resistance, an enlightening future is waiting for Iran.

(Keyhan, Feb 15, 2009)

Analysis

The last step to take was to compute the statistical significance of the differences among generic structure of all editorials. To serve this purpose, both optional and obligatory elements of rhetorical structure of the collected data were entered as variables in SPSS and analyzed via Chi-Square. However, there were some exceptions. Firstly, since Headline (H) and Stating the Event (SE) occurred in all editorials, they were not regarded as variables. A similar situation holds true for, Emphasizing Solution by Claiming Contribution of Solution (ESCS), Emphasizing Solution by Stating Consequences of Ignoring Solution (ESCIS) and Emphasizing Solution by De-emphasizing other Solutions (ESDS), when comparing rhetorical structure of Iranian English and Persian editorials. Appearing in neither Iranian Persian, nor Iranian English newspaper editorials they lacked the property of being a variable. Concerning other elements in three types of editorials there was no exception.

Applying Chi-Square test to determine the statistical difference between editorials, Yates' Continuity for Correction was referred to as the criterion. However, when the assumption of "minimum expected cell frequency" which should be 5 or greater (at least 80% of cells should have expected frequency of 5 or more) was violated, the researcher used Fisher Exact Test (Pallant, 2001), which is part of the output from Chi-Square. To show significance, both Yates' Continuity for Correction as well as Fisher Exact Test should be less than .05.

Table 4 presents a summary of the statistical analysis of the differences among GSPs of editorials.

Table 4. Summary of statistical analysis

	AE*IP	AE*IE	IE*IP	Type of Chi-square
PBI	.002**	.043**	.377	Continuity for Correction
DE	.008**	.154	.321	Continuity for Correction
CE	.005**	.000**	.149	Continuity for Correction
GS	.000**	.000**		Continuity for Correction
			.702	Fisher Exact Test
ESCS	.022**	.022**		Fisher Exact Test
ESCIS	.040**	.040**		Fisher Exact Test
ESDS	.022**	.022**		Fisher Exact Test
S	.008**	.115	.369	Continuity for Correction

Note:

AE: American English editorial, IE: Iranian English editorial, IP: Iranian Persian editorial, *: relation, **: significant at 0.05.

According to Table 4, regarding PBI, a significant difference existed between American English (AE) and Iranian Persian (IP) newspaper editorials (.002), and between Iranian English (IE) and Iranian

Persian editorials (.043). On the contrary, the difference between American and Iranian English newspaper editorials was not statistically significant (.377).

Based on the Continuity for Correction Test for DE (Table 4.7.), American editorials differed significantly from Iranian Persian editorials (.008). However, there was no significant difference between American English and Iranian English editorials (.154) or between Iranian Persian and Iranian English editorials (.321).

The Chi-Square test (Table 4.9.) revealed that American editorials differed significantly from Iranian Persian editorials (.000) as well as Iranian English editorials (.005) in terms of CE. However, no significant difference was observed between Iranian English and Iranian Persian Editorials (.194).

Similar to the previous element, result of Continuity for Correction (Table 4.11.) for GS showed that American editorials significantly differed from Iranian Persian and (.000) and Iranian English editorials (.000). On the other hand, Fisher Exact Test (Table 4.7.) indicates an insignificant difference between Iranian English and Iranian Persian newspaper editorials (.702). (Because of the existence of two cells (50.0%) which have expected count less than 5, Fisher Exact Test is reported.)

The output of Fisher Exact Test (Table 4.13.) pointed to a significant difference between American English and Iranian Persian editorials (.022) regarding ESCS. The same relation existed between American and Iranian English editorials (.022). (Two cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5, consequently, Fisher Exact Test is given). Being observed in none of the Iranian Persian and Iranian English newspaper editorials, ESCS could not be supposed to be a variable in the relation between their schematic structures. Hence, Chi-Square test was not computed for it.

As two cells (50.0%) had expected count less than 5, Fisher Exact Test (Table 4.15.) was provided for ESCIS. It indicated that a significant difference dominated the relation between American English and Iranian Persian editorials (.040), and between American English and Iranian English editorials (.040) in terms of ESCIS. This element, also, did not appear in any of the Iranian Persian and Iranian English editorials. As a result, it was not coded as variable in the relation between them.

Regarding ESDS, Fisher Exact Test was reported because two cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. Its result exhibited statistically significant differences between American English and Iranian Persian editorials (.022) and between American and Iranian English editorials (022). Neither Iranian Persian, nor Iranian English editorials included this element. Thus, Chi-Square test could not be computed for it.

As to S, the output of Continuity for Correction (Table 4.19) revealed the significant difference that governed the relation between American English and Iranian Persian editorials (.008). On the contrary, the relation between Iranian English and Iranian Persian editorials (.396) and between American English and Iranian English editorials (.115) was not significant.

Reliability and validity of the study

Every text-analysis research should provide results that are both reliable and valid. To be certain of the validity of the model suggested in this research, analysis of American newspaper editorials were reviewed several times during frequent discussions with my supervisor and an L2 researcher. This led to redefinitions and reformulations of the elements in some cases.

To establish the reliability of the analyses, out of the seventy-five editorials which comprise the corpus of this study, fifteen editorials (five editorials from each newspaper) were selected randomly. These texts were given to a second language researcher who was given explanation on the proposed model. The second language researcher was asked to code the texts. Then, Pearson-product moment correlation coefficient formula was used to measure the degree of agreement between the second language researcher's coding and that of the present research conductor. To show reliability, the value of correlation coefficient should be more than .70. Pearson-product moment correlation coefficient showed that a high degree of agreement (.979) existed between coders. This agreement corroborated the reliability of the proposed generic structure potential and its application to Iranian Persian and Iranian English newspaper editorials.

Discussion

This study explored GSP of American newspaper editorials and compared it with schematic structure of Iranian English and Persian newspaper editorials. Therefore, it satisfies Connor's (1996) argument that more studies should be conducted focusing on newspaper editorials.

To answer the first research question, the schematic structure of Iranian English, Iranian Persian and American English newspaper editorials were explored. Consequently, GSP of American English editorials was described as H^(PBI)^SE^(DE)^CE^[GS.[(ESCS)^(ESCIS) ^(ESDS)^(S)]] which is distinct from GSP of Iranian English and Iranian Persian editorials. On the other hand, Iranian newspaper editorials (whether they are written in English or Persian) follow the same developmental pattern, H^(PBI)^SE^(DE)^(CE)^[(GS).(S)]. This shows that rhetorical structure of English editorials is

different from that of Persian editorials. This finding confirms Kaplan's (1972) claim that each language has its own rhetorical patterns.

Furthermore, the frequency of occurrence of structural elements in American editorials showed that less than half of the American editorials include DE as an optional element (f=11, 44%). Instead, CE (f=25, 100%) and GS (f=23, 92%) are used as obligatory elements in these editorials. Besides, 44% of these editorials try to justify the solution which is proposed to handle the problematic situation via Emphasizing Contribution of Solution (ESCS), Stating Consequences of Ignoring Solution (ESCIS) or Deemphasizing other Solutions (ESDS). American English editorials, hence, are dominated by argumentative mode of representation. This finding is in line with both Reynold's (2000) research. As mentioned previously, Reynold's (2000) study shows that among the three representational modes- argumentative, narrative and descriptive- that account for the texture of British newspaper editorials, argumentative is the dominant one. In fact, he posits that function of British editorials is to comment via argumentative mode, on current events that are expressed in narrative or descriptive modes.

On the contrary, among the optional elements of GSP of Iranian Persian and Iranian English editorials, DE has the highest frequency (IP: f=21, 84% and IE: f=17, 68%) and GS has the lowest frequency (IP: f=3, 12% and IE: f=5, 20%). In addition, Iranians draw on CE as an optional element (IP: f=7, 28% and IE: f=13, 52%) and do not justify the solution suggested by them in the editorial. Therefore, it can be suggested that in contrast with American editorials which were dominated by argumentative mode of representation, Iranian newspaper editorials were predominated by descriptive mode.

Regarding the second research question, there were no statistically significant differences between GSP of Persian and English editorials published in Iran, except for frequency of one optional element, namely PBI (a= .043). On the other hand, statistically significant differences dominated the relation between GSP of American English and Iranian Persian editorials in terms of all structural elements and between GSP of Iranian English newspaper editorials with respect to five elements- CE, GS, ESCS, ESCIS, ESDS.

Providing GSP of American newspaper editorials, this research helps English teachers (whether in Iran or any other country) provide EFL/ESL students with a model according to which they can develop their persuasive (Connor, 1996) essays. This benefit can be transferred to journalists who aspire to write eloquent English editorials.

As aptly pointed by Swales (1990) genre analysis is still at its incipient stages and we have stayed at an exploratory stage rather than hypothesis testing. In this light, some lines of further research are suggested.

A new study can (dis)establish whether the characteristics of GSP of American English, Iranian English and Iranian Persian newspaper editorials reported in this study are maintained in newspaper editorials written in other languages.

Furthermore, researchers can explore generic structure of editorials published in magazines or journals and report on their similarities to/distinctions from the rhetorical structure of newspaper editorials.

Last but not the least, researchers can explore the possibility of diachronic variation in generic structure of newspaper editorials.

References

Alsono, I. (2008). Newspaper editorials and comment articles: a "Cinderella" Genre?. *Ral-Revista Electronica de Linguistica Aplicada*, 1-9.

Amirian, Z., Kassaian, Z., and Tavakoli, M. (2008). Genre analysis: An investigation of the discussion sections of applied linguistics research articles. *English for Specific Purposes, 4*(1), 39-63.

Ansari, H., and Babaii, E. (2004). The generic integration of newspaper editorials: A systemic functional perspective. *EFL*, *12*(4*)*, 30-48.

Bolivar, A. (1994). The structure of newspaper editorials. In R.M. Coulthard (Eds.), *Advances in written text analysis* (pp. 276-294). London: Rutledge.

Bouton, L. (1995). A cross-cultural analysis of structure and content of letters of reference. *Studies in second Language Acquisition*, 17, 211-224.

Connor, U. (1996). *Contrastive rhetoric: Cross-cultural aspects of second language writing.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Eggins, S. (2004). *An introduction to systemic functional linguistics*. London: Continuum International Publication Group.

Flowerdew, J., and Dudley-Evans, T. (2002). Genre analysis of editorial letters to international journal contributors. *Applied Linguistics, 23*(4), 463-489.

Halliday, M. A. K., and Hassan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.

Halliday, M. A. K., and Hassan, R. (1989). *Language, context and text: Aspects of language in a social-semiotic perspective*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hassan, R. (1984). The nursery tale as a genre. *Nottingham Linguistic Circular*, 13, 71-102.

Hoey, M. (1983). *On the surface of discourse*. London: George Allen and Unwin.

Kaplan, R. B. (1966). Cultural thought patterns in intercultural education. *Language Learning*, 16, 1-20.

Kaplan, R. B. (1972). *The anatomy of rhetoric: Prolegomena to a functional theory of rhetoric*. Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development.

Kaplan, R. B. (1978). Contrastive rhetoric: Some hypotheses. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 39, 61-72.

Katajamäki, H., and Koskela, M. (2006).The rhetorical structure of editorials in English, Swedish.and Finnish business newspapers. *LSP and Professional Communication,* 6(2), 33-48.

Kim, K. (1995). A Comparison of rhetorical styles in Korean and American student writing. *Intercultural Communication Studies,* VI, 115-154.

Kwan, B. (2006).The schematic structure of literature reviews in doctoral theses of applied linguistics. *English for Specific Purposes*, 25, 30–55.

Martin, M. P. (2003). A genre analysis of English and Spanish research paper abstracts in experimental social sciences. *English for Specific Purposes*, 22, 25-43.

Morely, G. D. (1985). *An introduction to systemic grammar*. London: Macmilla.

Najjar, H. Y. (1990). *Arabic as a research language: The case of agricultural science.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan.

Riazi, A., and Assar, F. (2000). A text analysis of Persian newspaper editorials at macro and micro levels. *Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities,* 15-16.

Riazi, A., and Fiangol, P. (2002). An investigation of rhetorical structures of research articles in humanities at two macro- and micro levels. *Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities,* 18, 1-16.

Pallant, J. (2001). *SPSS survival manual: A step-by-step guide to data analysis using SPSS for Windows (Version 10).*Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Paltridge, B. (1993). Writing up research: A systemic functional perspective. *System*, *21*(2), 175-192.

Sinclair, J. (1995). *Collins COBUILD English language dictionary*. London: Harper Collins.

Stubbs, M. (1981). *Text and corpus analysis*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Sugiura, M. (1996). *A contrastive analysis of English editorials in Japan and Britain*. Unpublished MSc dissertation, Language Studies Unit, Aston University, UK.

Swales, J. M. (1981). *Aspects of article introductions*. Birmimgham, US: The Language Studies Unit, University of Aston.

Tirkkonen-Condit, S., and Lieaflander-Koistinen. (1989). Argumentation in Finnish versus English and German editorials. In M. Kush, and H. Schroder (Eds.), *Text-interpretatio-argumentation* (pp.173-181). Hamburg, Germany: Helmut Buske.

Van Dijk, T. A. (1995).*Race, riots and the press: An analysis of editorials in the British press about the 1985 disorders*. Retrieved January, 10, 2009 from www.discourses.org/Race,%20riots%20and%20the%20press.pdf.

Vázquez y del Árbol, Esther. (2005). A genre-based study of biomedical editorials and letters to the editor: A contrastive analysis. *Iberica*, 10, 145-160.

Winter, E. O. (1977). A clause-relational approach to English texts: A study of predictive lexical items in written discourse. *Instructional Science, 6*(1), 1-22.

Appendix I

American Newspaper Editorials (N=25)

1.1. Gov. Paterson's performance. (2009, Jan. 8). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http://www.New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.2. The dropout crisis. (2009, Jan. 9). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.3. A vital boost for education. (2009, Feb. 3). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.4. Continuity of the wrong kind. (2009, Feb. 10). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.5. Closer to the cliff. (2009, Feb. 12). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.6. Two early tests on guns. (2009, Feb. 19). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.7. Justice not for sale. (2009, March. 2). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http://www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.8. Helping the House poor. (2009, March. 5). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.9. Mr. Obama's trade agenda. (2009, March, 10). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.10. Sweetness and blues. (2009, March. 11). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.11. While everyone fiddles. (2009, March. 12). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.12. Ending the race to the bottom. (2009, March, 14). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.13. An inspector general under fire. (2009, March. 26). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.14. We don't feel safer. (2009, April. 10). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.15. Remember Iran. (2009, April. 22). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.16. Fairness in drug sentencing. (2009, April. 30). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.17. A shift on immigration. (2009, May. 2). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.18. A foreclosure surge. (2009, May. 3). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.19. Making punishment fit the crime. (2009, May. 5). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.20. This is a question of fairness. (2009, May.7). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.21. Ground zero saga continues. (2009, May. 8). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.22. Candidates discover the economy. (2009. May. 14). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.23. Senator Bennet's hostage. (2009, May. 18). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.24. The sorry state of states. (2009, May. 23). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

1.25. Libel tourism. (2009, May. 30). *New York Times*. Accessed online via: http:// www. New York Times. com/op-ed/.

Appendix II

Iranian English Newspaper Editorials (N=25)

2.1. Killing for votes in Gaza. (2009, Jan. 2). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: ttp:// www. Tehran Times.com.

2.2. Hamas not fooled by Resolution 1860. (2009, Jan. 12). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http:// www. Tehran Times.com.

2.3. Hamas and the equilibrium of policy. (2009, Jan. 17). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http:// www. Tehran Times.com.

2.4. The Gaza war did not take place. (2009, Jan. 20). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http:// www. Tehran Times.com.

2.5. Capitalism's signpost: Unemployment. (2009, Jan. 24). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http:// www. Tehran Times.com.

2.6. The post Gaza-world. (2009, Jan. 28). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http:// www. Tehran Times.com.

2.7. UN, ICC must order war crimes trials for Israeli leaders. (2009, Feb. 5). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http:// www. Tehran Times.com.

2.8. Destroying a corporation for Palestine. (2009, Feb. 8). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http:// www. Tehran Times.com.

2.9. Change to a multipolar world. (2009, Feb. 12). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http:// www. Tehran Times.com.

2.10. Saudi Arabia's structural reforms. (2009, Feb. 17). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http:// www. Tehran Times.com.
2.11. U.S. casualties of the empire's wars. (2009, Feb. 19). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http:// www. Tehran Times.com.
2.12. Netanyahu's warmonger cabinet doomed from the start. (2009, Feb. 23). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http:// www. Tehran Times.com.
2.13. Prospects for Palestinian National Reconciliation. (2009, March. 1). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http:// www. Tehran Times.com.
2.14. Subhuman rights. (2009, March. 8). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http://www. Tehran Times.com.
2.15. The war on Terra. (2009, March. 18). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http://www. Tehran Times.com.
2.16. Will Washington break with George Bush's Iran policy. (2009, April. 13). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http:// www. Tehran Times.com.
2.17. Durban II no shows won't be missed. (2009, April. 20). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http:// www. Tehran Times.com.
2.18. Put Iaraeli war criminals in the dock. (2009, May. 3). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http://www. Tehran Times.com.
2.19. Sacred defense values: The nation's greatest asset. (2009, May. 4). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http:// www. Tehran Times.com.
2.20. A new start. (2009, May. 6). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http:// www. Tehran Times.com.
2.21. Afghanistan's election. (2009, May. 7). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http:// www. Tehran Times.com.
2.22. Khoramshahr: From occupation to liberation. (2009, May. 24). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http://www. Tehran Times.com.
2.23. The hypocrisy of conference on racism. (2009, April. 23). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http://www. Tehran Times.com.
2.24. Iranian pilgrims in Iraq need better security. (2009, April. 25). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http://www. Tehran Times.com.
2.25. More nonsense from Libierman. (2009, April. 27). *Tehran Times.* Accessed online via: http://www. Tehran Times.com.

Appendix III

Iranian Persian Editorials (N=25)

3.1. Donyaa-ye Obama. (2009, Jan. 21). Keyahn. Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

3.2. Soghute 22. (2009, Jan. 22). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

3.3. Vaghti Abo-lahab laalaai mixaanad. (2009, Jan. 24). Accessed online via: http://www.Keyhannews.ir.

3.4. Aaxarin baar key vazn karde-id. (2009, Jan.26). Accessed online via: http://www.Keyhannews.ir.

3.5. Aanche dide nemishavad. (2009, Feb, 4). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

3.6. Natije-ye maa'kus. (2009, Feb.7). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

3.6. Haalaa che miguid. (2009, Feb. 11). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

3.7. Baraaye moshaarekat ya bar ham zadan. (2009, Feb. 12). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

3.8. Ulgu-ye ghiam. (2009, Feb. 15). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

3.9. Zogh Zade nashavid. (2009, Feb. 17). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

3.10. Anzhiograaphie Naamzadhaa. (2009, Feb. 19). Accessed online via: http://www.Keyhannews.ir.

3.12. Avardgaahe dow harif. (2009, Feb. 22). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

3.13. Haashie-I ke matn raa mixorad. (2009, Feb. 26). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

3.14. Shoru′a-e mojadad az Moskow. (2009, March. 1). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

3.15. Dasthaa baalaa. (2009, March. 2). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

3.16. Cheraa sokut. (2009, March. 3). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

3.17. Baazsaazi ya Baajxaahi. (2009, March. 4). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

3.18. Tavaghof mamnu′a. (2009, March. 5). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

3.19. Laahe, movaajehe nezaami baa moghaavemat Aamricaa. (2009, March. 7). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

3.20. Ehzaar ruh dar entexaabaat. (2009, March. 9). Accessed online via: http://www.Keyhannews.ir.

3.21. Hamraahaan naahamraah. (2009, March. 10). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

3.22. Forsate hamgeraie. (2009, March. 11). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

3.23. Moghe′aiat-e bon bast. (2009, March. 12). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

3.24. Dar aastaane tolu′ai digar. (2009, March. 18). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.
3.25. Naghshe-ye raah. (2009, April. 4). Accessed online via: http://www. Keyhannews.ir.

Title

Evaluation of Iranian EFL Textbooks:
(A Study of Learner- Teacher's Criteria Compatibility)

Authors

Gholam-Reza Abbasian (Ph.D.)
Imam Ali University, Tehran, Iran
Islamic Azad University, South Tehran Branch, Tehran, Iran

Esmaeil Hassan Oghli (M.A.)
Ministry of Education, Iran

Bio data

Dr. Gholam-Reza Abbasian, assistant professor of TEFL at Imam Ali and Islamic Azad (South Tehran Branch) universities. He has presented at a good number of both national and international conferences. He is also the author of five books and has translated at least ten others. Furthermore, he has published several scholarly articles in national and international academic journals.

Esmaeil Hassan Oghli holds an M.A. in TEFL from Islamic Azad University, Takistan Brach, Iran. He is an English teacher for the Ministry of Education and is also involved in teaching at various institutes and educational centers. He is also more interested in doing research in the areas of syllabus design and materials preparation.

Abstract

This study aims to empirically evaluate the EFL textbook series taught at Iranian public high schools from two presumably opposite perspectives; from those of the teachers and the learners. To this end, three questions addressing degree of compatibility or variability of teachers and learners views about the series and also extent of their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with them were raised**.** The participants of the study were totally randomly selected 50 EFL teachers and 100 EFL learners. Both groups received two separate textbook evaluation checklists already developed and used Miekley, J. (2005) and Ansary and Babaeii, (2000). Furthermore, both groups were encouraged to complete a written protocol in an answer to certain items selected from the checklists as a form of open-ended questionnaire in order to triangulate the data

obtained. Quantitative and qualitative analyses of the data revealed that teachers and learners held different views on most areas and criteria related to textbooks; signifying that their views are not much compatible, though they held some common views with respect to certain measures. Meanwhile, the teachers showed to be less satisfied with the EFL textbooks than their learners. Pedagogically, the findings first of all asserted the principles of humanistic education implying that both learners-teachers' views should be appreciated in all areas of education including materials selection, development and adaptation. Second, they can send genuine message to EFL textbook developers, policy-makers and language planners to hear and appreciate voices from language classrooms in making educational decisions, especially in the field of materials preparation.
Keywords: Iranian -EFL textbook- Evaluation- Teacher & Learner Perspectives

Introduction

Commonly believed as unavoidable element, textbook has always been the subject of hot arguments as well as counter-arguments on its utility and necessity for teaching purposes. Evidently speaking, at the outset two quotations are highlighted on the positions identified as for and against using textbook. Arguing for the use of textbook, Ur (1996), for instance, claims:

A textbook is a framework which regulates and times the programs. In the eyes of learners, no textbook means no purpose, without a textbook learners think their learning is not taken seriously, in many situations a textbook can serve as a syllabus. A textbook provides ready-made teaching texts and learning tasks, a textbook is a cheap way of providing learning materials; a learner without a textbook is out of focus and teacher-dependent, and perhaps most important of all for novice teachers a textbook means security, guidance and support. (p.183)

Nevertheless, it is not so easy to overlook some counter-arguments. In this respect Ansary & Babaii (2007) look at the issue from a different perspective:

If every group of students has different needs, no one textbook can be a response to all differing needs, topics in a textbook may not be relevant for and interesting to all, a textbook is confining, i.e., it inhibits teachers' creativity, a textbook of necessity sets prearranged sequence and structure that may not be realistic and situation friendly. Textbooks have their own rationale, and as such they cannot be their nature cater for a variety of levels, every type of learning styles, and every category of learning strategies that often exist in the class, and most important of all,

perhaps, teachers may find themselves as mediators with no free hand and slave, in fact to others' judgments about what is good and what is not. (p.2)

The history of textbook evaluation is associated with the history of syllabus design and materials preparation. Given the role of textbooks in meeting educational objectives and the product of teaching-learning process, it seems rational to evaluate the significance of the instrument i.e., textbooks used to meet such objectives and needs. That is why many of the scholars in the field of materials preparation have tried to justify the job of evaluation. Sheldon (1988), for example, has offered several reasons for textbook evaluation. He suggests that:

The selection of an ELT textbook often signals an important administrative and educational decision in which there is considerable profession, financial, or even political investment. A thorough evaluation, therefore, would enable the managerial and teaching staff of a specific institution or organization to discriminate between all of the available textbooks in the market. Moreover, it would provide for a sense of familiarity with a book's content, thus assisting educators in identifying the particular strengths and weaknesses of textbooks in use. (Jahangard, 2007, p.2)

Some theorists in the field of ELT textbook design and analysis, such as Sheldon (1988), Williams (1983), Brown (1995), Cunningsworth (1995) and Harmer (1996) agree on the significance of textbook evaluation. To this end, those involved in the evaluation have introduced different types of evaluation in the literature. For example, Tomlinson (2003) presents three types of evaluation: Pre-use Evaluation, Whilst-use Evaluation, and Post-use Evaluation. “Pre-use evaluation involves making predictions about the potential value of materials for their users. It can be context-free, as in a review of materials for a journal, context-influenced as in a review of draft materials for a publisher with target users in mind or context-dependent, as when a teacher selects a course book for use with her particular class. (p.23)

Often pre-use evaluation is impressionistic and subjective and consists of a teacher flicking through a book to gain a quick impression of its potential value. Tomlinson (2003) says "Making an evaluation criterion-referenced can reduce (but not remove) subjectivity and can certainly help to make an evaluation more principled, rigorous, systematic and reliable."(*ibid*). He mentions that "Whilst-use evaluation, however, involves measuring the value of materials whilst using them or whilst observing them being used. It makes use of measurement rather than

prediction. However, it is limited to measuring what is observable."(ibid). Post-use evaluation is the third and last type of evaluation which can be carried out through:

- *"Tests of what has been 'taught' by the materials,*
- *Tests of what the students can do,*
- *Examinations,*
- *Interviews,*
- *Questionnaires,*
- *Criterion-referenced evaluations by the users,*
- *Post course diaries,*
- *Post-course 'shadowing' of the learners,*
- *Post- course reports on the learners by employers, subject tutors". (ibid,p.25)*

To avoid the danger of allowing subjective factors to influence judgment in the early stage of analysis, Hutchinson & Waters (1987) emphasize the importance of objectivity in evaluation when they say "Evaluation is basically a matching process: matching needs to available solutions. If this matching is to be done as objectively as possible, it is best to look at the needs and solutions separately." (p.97). The checklist they present contains criteria for both objective and subjective analysis for each item to be assessed. The trend of evaluation is in fact shows a movement from more subjective to more objective measures.

Curriculum development

The issue of materials preparation and evaluation is highly related to the notion of curriculum development in Language Education. The latter is defined as "The goals, objectives, content, processes, resources, and means of evaluation of all the learning experiences planned for pupils both in and out of the school and community through classroom instruction and related programs." (Wilkins, 1976, p.18). Equally, Richards & Renandya (2002) say "The processes of curriculum development and syllabus design in language teaching usually involve assessing the needs of learners, developing goals and objectives, planning a syllabus, selecting teaching approaches and materials, and deciding on assessment procedures and criteria." (p.65)

Syllabus design

Sometimes curriculum development and syllabus design are used interchangeably. However, syllabus is "a more circumscribed document usually one which has been prepared for a particular group of learners." (Dubin & Olshtain, 1992, p.3). On the other hand, Harmer (2001) says "Syllabus design concerns the selection of items to be learnt and the grading of those items into an appropriate sequence."(p. 295). Dubin & Olshtain (1992) say "A syllabus is a more detailed and operational statement of teaching and learning elements leading towards more narrowly defined objectives at each level"(p.35). Moreover, Widdoson (1984) maintains that "The syllabus is simply a framework within which activities can be carried out: a teaching advice to facilitate learning. It only becomes a threat to pedagogy when it is regarded as absolute rules for determining what is to be learned." (Nunan, 2001, p.6)

Materials preparation

Materials development has shown its real value since 1990s. It is worth quoting from Tomlinson (2003) as he says: “When materials development became a tool for teachers to help them understand and apply theories of language learning and contribute to their professional development, either teacher-fronted or learner- centered instruction, any classroom needs vehicles and materials to convey the needs, wants, interests and purposes of learners and teachers” (p.480).

Purpose of the Study: (Customizing materials evaluation)

In spite of the fact that textbook is regarded as "The visible heart of any ELT program" (Sheldon, 1988, p.237) and that "The textbook is an almost universal element of ELT teaching" (Hutchinson & Torres 1994, p.315), there are controversies over the roles ELT textbooks play in teaching and learning. However, any claims on the merits or demerits of textbook in general and that of EFL in particular have to be founded on an objective and scientific evaluation. Materials and textbook evaluation in an era of Humanism and Social Constructivism is supposed to be of particular significance. To this end, this study was an attempt to carry out EFL textbook evaluation in the Iranian context from two seemingly opposing perspectives; those of the teachers and their students. To address the issue empirically, it was tried, first, to explore the

extent to which the teachers and learners were satisfied or dissatisfied with the target EFL textbooks, and second, to investigate the degree of evaluation criteria compatibility.

More4over, a number of scholars (Jahangard, 2007; Amerian, 1987; Kheibari, 1999; Ansary & Babaii, 2002; Yarmohammadi, 2002; Amalsaleh, 2004) have studied Iranian high school textbooks from different perspectives, and all agree that the 'grammar translation' method is the dominant method in Iran which attaches the least attention to learners' needs in real life situations (Razmjoo, 2007), while textbook evaluation has rarely, if not never, been treated from both perspectives; those of the teachers and learners.

Contrary to the necessity of the inclusion of the primary consumers of the textbooks (i.e., teachers and learners) and current invalidity of taking an either-or approach in the total four-stage curriculum development process, the evaluation process has been mainly conducted by individual teachers or researchers. Obviously a comprehensive investigation of the issue, particularly in the Iranian educational EFL settings, from the two main partners' perspectives has been ignored. To fill in this big gap, this study was designed in the Iranian setting in a bid to cast some light on the issue and could be an enlightening step for further scientific efforts.

To meet the purpose of the study, the following research questions were investigated:

1. *To what extent do the Iranian EFL textbooks meet the teachers' criteria?*

2. *To what extent do the Iranian EFL textbooks meet the learners' criteria?*

3. *To what extent are Iranian EFL teachers and learners' criteria of textbook evaluation compatible?*

Method

Participants

The participants of the study were 50 randomly selected male and female Iranian EFL teachers holding either MA or BA in TEFL and about 100 fourth grade high school male students who had already experienced all four officially assigned textbooks by the Ministry of Education and seemed capable enough in understanding the items of the evaluation checklist offered in the form of questionnaires.

Instruments

To conduct the study, the checklist approach utilizing two independent checklists including Miekley's 18-item checklist entitled: "ESL Textbook Checklist" and another about 40-items checklist representing universal features of EFL/ESL textbooks adjusted and customized for the Iranian setting by Ansary and Babaii (2007) were followed. It means that the participants were exposed to two questionnaires in the form of Form A and Form B. Moreover, a written- protocol composed of eight comprehensive questions extracted from the checklists were utilized. To develop the protocol, certain key and most frequently attended items were drawn from both checklists so that the reliability and validity measures of the instruments could be maximized through a triangulation process. The participants' were given chance to express their opinions both through the checklists and the written protocol.

Procedures

Having been based on mixed method research in terms of design, the study was conducted in three distinct phases: data collection, data analysis and data interpretation. First, both groups received the two checklists but those distributed among the learners were in Persian version so as to avoid any language problems. On the other hand, both groups were encouraged to write a Written Protocol in order to enrich data due to prescriptive and selective nature of data usually achieved by questionnaire or checklist. Third, both qualitative and quantitative analyses of data were carried out for the descriptive and inferential statistics. It means that frequency measure as well as Chi-square was run as to the data collected through the checklists. While those through the Protocol were subjected to concept mapping procedure i.e., the common core of the ideas expressed by each group were categorized into certain common headings and then their frequencies were calculated. As a last step following the statistical analyses, the results were interpreted and necessary discussion was made and conclusion was drawn.

Results

The Pearson Chi-square was run to compare the teachers and students' views on the checklist as to measuring the extent of their satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The findings proved significant differences among the views expressed by the teachers and students on the checklists. Based on

the results displayed in Tables 5, 6, 7 and 8, it was first concluded that the teachers are not much satisfied and both groups held significantly different views towards the given EFL textbooks.

Given the nature of the variables under study, data were triangulated so that the issue of textbook evaluation could be investigated from various perspectives. On the other hand, four main types of analyses were conducted regarding the objectives f the study as well as on the nature of the collected data. Details of each analysis are first illustrated in Chi-square tables identified by Forms A and B denoting the two checklists in respective tables.

Analysis No. 1: Probing Teachers' Perspectives

A chi-square was run to compare the teachers' views on Form A and Form B. The chi-square observed value is 80.36 (Table 1). This amount of observed value is greater than the critical value of chi-square at 4 degrees of freedom, i.e. 9.49.

Table 1 Chi-square Forms A and B Teachers

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	80.364a	4	.000
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 52.07.			

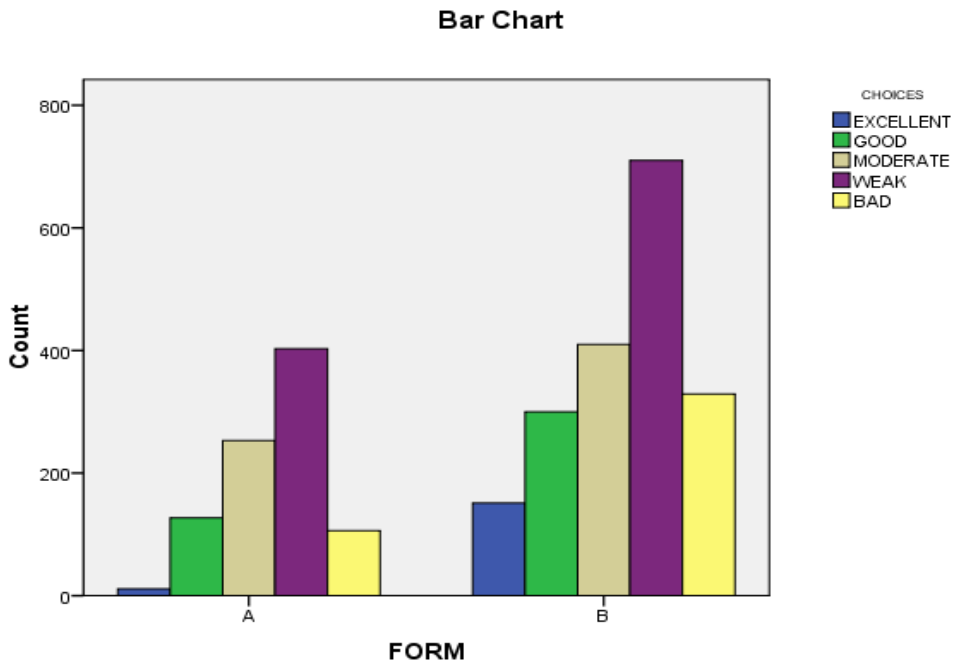
Based on these results it can be concluded that there are significant differences among the views expressed by the teachers through the Forms A and B. The frequencies and percentages displayed in Table 2 indicate that from Forms A and B, not surprisingly, the EFL teachers have chosen the Weak and Bad choices more than the Excellent and Good ones. 56.6 and 54.7 percent of teachers held negative, while 15.3 and 23.7 percent held positive views towards the EFL textbooks taught at high schools, respectively.

Table 2 Frequencies and Percentages Forms A and B Teachers

			CHOICES					Total
			Excellent	Good	Moderate	Weak	Bad	
Form	A	Count	11	127	253	403	106	900
		% within Form	1.2%	14.1%	28.1%	44.8%	11.8%	100.0%
	B	Count	151	300	410	710	329	1900
		% within Form	7.9%	15.8%	21.6%	37.4%	17.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	162	427	663	1113	435	2800
		% within Form	5.8%	15.2%	23.7%	39.8%	15.5%	100.0%

The EFL teachers selected the Weak and Bad choices more than the Excellent and Good ones, proving that they were not satisfied with the textbooks assigned for them. It should be mentioned that 28.1 percent of teachers on Form A and 21.6 percent on Form B have chosen Moderate views.

Graph 1: Display of Choice Frequency from Teachers' Forms A & B



Analysis No. 2: Probing Learners' Perspectives

An analysis of chi-square was run to compare the students' views on Form A and Form B. The chi-square observed value is 57.70 (Table 3). This amount of observed value is greater than the critical value of chi-square at 4 degrees of freedom, i.e. 9.49.

Table 3 Chi-square Forms A and B Students

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	57.706a	4	.000
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 66.37.			

Based on these results it can be concluded that there are significant differences among the views expressed by the students through the Forms A and B. The frequencies and percentages displayed in Table 4 indicate that both on Form A and Form B, the EFL students have chosen the Excellent and Good choices more than the Weak and Bad ones. 50 and 40.2 percent of students held positive, while 18.9 and 25.6 percent held negative views towards the EFL textbooks taught at high schools, respectively.

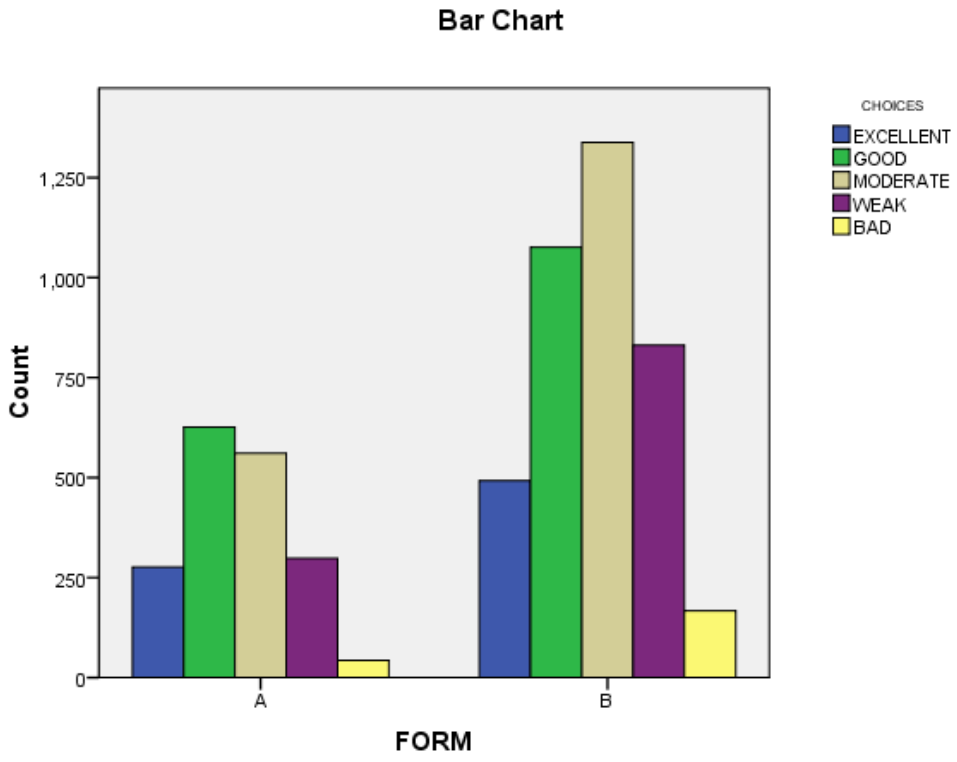
Table 4 Frequencies and Percentages Forms A and B Students

			CHOICES					Total
			Excellent	Good	Moderate	Weak	Bad	
Form	A	Count	276	626	561	298	43	1804
		% within Form	15.3%	34.7%	31.1%	16.5%	2.4%	100.0%
	B	Count	492	1076	1338	831	167	3904
		% within Form	12.6%	27.6%	34.3%	21.3%	4.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	768	1702	1899	1129	210	5708

			CHOICES					Total
			Excellent	Good	Moderate	Weak	Bad	
Form	A	Count	276	626	561	298	43	1804
		% within Form	15.3%	34.7%	31.1%	16.5%	2.4%	100.0%
	B	Count	492	1076	1338	831	167	3904
		% within Form	12.6%	27.6%	34.3%	21.3%	4.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	768	1702	1899	1129	210	5708
		% within Form	13.5%	29.8%	33.3%	19.8%	3.7%	100.0%

It can be concluded that the Iranian EFL learners, unlike their teachers, are relatively a bit satisfied with their EFL textbooks.

Graph 2 Display of Choice Frequency from Learners' Forms A & B



Nonetheless, it can be concluded that there was simply significant differences among the views expressed by the students through the checklists A and B. It should be mentioned that 31.1 percent of students on checklist A and 34.3 percent on checklist B have chosen Moderate views. Contrary to their teachers, the learners showed to hold different attitudes, meaning that they were relatively satisfied with their textbooks.

Analysis No. 3: Measurement of Criteria Compatibility

A chi-square was run to compare the teachers and students' views on Form A. The chi-square observed value is 48.64 (Table 5). This amount of observed value is greater than the critical value of chi-square at 4 degrees of freedom, i.e. 9.49.

Table 5 Chi-square Form A Teachers and Students

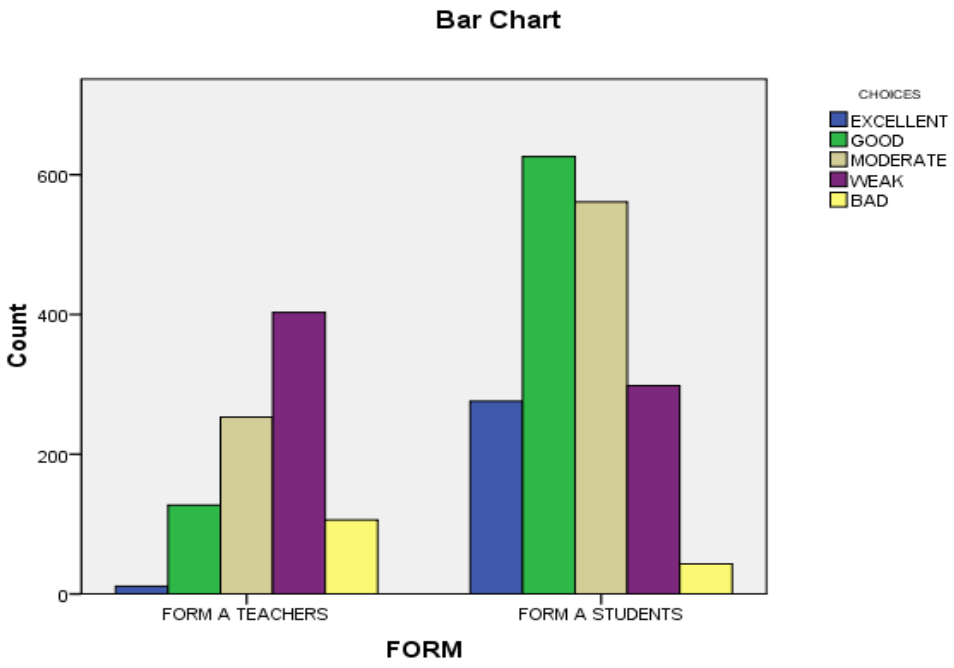
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	48.64a	4	.000
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 49.59.			

The frequencies and percentages displayed in Table 6 indicate that while 56.6 percent of the teachers held negative views towards the EFL textbooks taught at high schools, 50 percent of the students held positive views while only 18.9 percent of students held negative views. Obviously, there were significant differences among the views expressed by the teachers and students on Form A.

Table 6 Frequencies and Percentages Form A Teachers and Students

			CHOICES					Total
			Excellent	Good	Moderate	Weak	Bad	
Form	Form A Teachers	Count	11	127	253	403	106	900
		% within Form	1.2%	14.1%	28.1%	44.8%	11.8%	100.0%
	Form A Students	Count	276	626	561	298	43	1804
		% within Form	15.3%	34.7%	31.1%	16.5%	2.4%	100.0%
Total		Count	287	753	814	701	149	2704
		% within Form	10.6%	27.8%	30.1%	25.9%	5.5%	100.0%

Graph 3 Display of Choice Frequency from Teachers-Learners Forms A



Another chi-square was run to compare the teachers and students' views on Form B. The chi-square observed value is 54.68 (Table 7). This amount of observed value is greater than the critical value of chi-square at 4 degrees of freedom, i.e. 9.49.

Table 7 Chi-square Form B Teachers and Students

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	54.68a	4	.000
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 162.37.			

The frequencies and percentages displayed in Table 8 indicate that while 54.7 percent of the teachers held negative views towards the EFL textbooks taught at high schools, 40.2 percent of the students held positive views. Obviously, there are significant differences among the views expressed by the teachers and students on Form B.

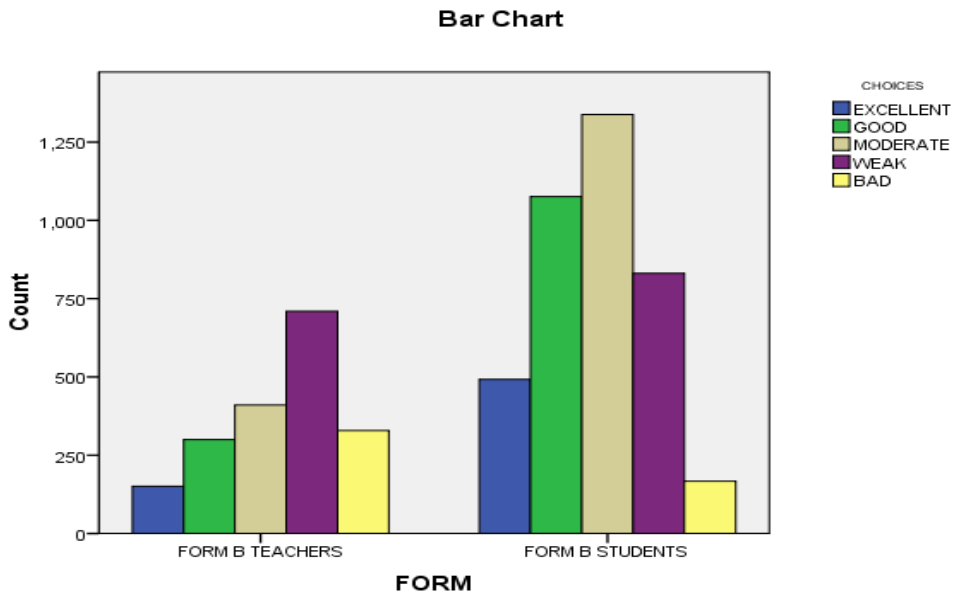
Table 8 Frequencies and Percentages Form B Teachers and Students

			CHOICES					Total
			Excellent	Good	Moderate	Weak	Bad	
Form	Form B Teachers	Count	151	300	410	710	329	1900
		% within Form	7.9%	15.8%	21.6%	37.4%	17.3%	100.0%
	Form B Students	Count	492	1076	1338	831	167	3904
		% within Form	12.6%	27.6%	34.3%	21.3%	4.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	643	1376	1748	1541	496	5804

			CHOICES					Total
			Excellent	Good	Moderate	Weak	Bad	
Form	Form B Teachers	Count	151	300	410	710	329	1900
		% within Form	7.9%	15.8%	21.6%	37.4%	17.3%	100.0%
	Form B Students	Count	492	1076	1338	831	167	3904
		% within Form	12.6%	27.6%	34.3%	21.3%	4.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	643	1376	1748	1541	496	5804
		% within Form	11.1%	23.7%	30.1%	26.6%	8.5%	100.0%

In short, tables 5, 6, 7 and 8 then show that the teachers and students held different views towards the EFL textbooks taught at public high schools. Moreover, graph 4 displays frequency of choices selected by both groups from form B.

Graph 4 Display of Choice Frequency from Teachers-Learners Forms B



Written-protocol data analysis

Fifty randomly selected participants including twenty of the teachers and thirty of the students received a written protocol so that they could express their ideas on the eight key selected items. They were encouraged to answer them mainly addressing eight commonly crucial features of any EFL textbook including:

1. Content, 2. Structure and vocabulary, 3.Tasks and activities evaluation, 4. Affective considerations, 5.Guidance on teacher, 6.Self progress check, 7. Supplementary materials evaluation and, 8. Cultural considerations.

All the data gathered through the Protocol were analyzed in terms of the frequency of the subjects' common views on each item. All concepts were addressed from a range of scales starting form useful to up-to-date. As to the first item, addressing content evaluation, table 9 shows the participants expressed their views as the tables show.

Table 9 Descriptive Statistics on the 1st Item of the Written Protocol

Item NO. 1 Content Evaluation	Teachers		Students	
	Frequency	Percentage in group	Frequency	Percentage in group
Useful	3	15	7	23.3
Difficult	0	0	10	33.3
Poor	15	75	11	36.6
Up-to-date	2	10	2	6.6
Total	20	100	30	100

The %75 of the teachers and %36.6 of the learners evaluated content of textbooks poor. They also differed in their evaluation of three concepts including: useful, difficult and up-to-date.

Evaluation Percentage of each Concept Based on Item Type

Commonly Held Views by Both Groups

Item No. 1: Mapped Concepts	Percentage
Useful	%19
Difficult	%16
Poor	%56
Up-to-date	%9

Based upon the percentage of both groups, the result shows that teachers and learners both commonly evaluated the content of the textbooks (%75 & % 36.6) with %56 poor. As to the second item, addressing structure and vocabulary evaluation, table 10 shows the participants who expressed their views. In terms of percentage, use of various concepts among the teachers and students enjoys the following distribution.

Table 10 Descriptive Statistics on the 2nd Item of the Written Protocol

Item NO. 2 Structure and Vocabulary Evaluation	Teachers		Students	
	Frequency	Percentage in group	Frequency	Percentage in group
Useful	7	35	10	33.3
Difficult	4	20	12	40
Poor	6	30	5	16.7
Up-to-date	3	15	3	10
Total	20	100	30	100

It can be claimed that %35 of the teachers evaluated structure and vocabulary of textbooks with %35 useful; however, %40 of the learners evaluated the structure and vocabulary of the textbooks with %40 difficult. They differed in three concepts including: Difficult, Poor and Up-to-date.

Evaluation Percentage of each Concept Based on Item Type

Item No. 2: Mapped Concepts	Percentage
Useful	%34
Difficult	%30
Poor	%23.5
Up-to-date	%12.5

Based upon the percentage of both groups the result shows that they commonly evaluated the structure and vocabulary of the textbooks with %34 useful, but %30 difficult.

Given the third item, table 11 shows the participants who expressed their views. In terms of percentage, use of various concepts among the teachers and students enjoys the following distribution.

Table11 Descriptive Statistics on the 3rd Item of the Written Protocol

Item NO.3 Tasks & Activities Evaluation	Teachers		Students	
	Frequency	Percentage in group	Frequency	Percentage in group
Useful	8	40	5	16.7
Difficult	2	10	18	60
Poor	6	30	5	16.7
Up-to-date	4	20	2	6.6
Total	20	100	30	100

It can be claimed that %40 of the teachers evaluated tasks and activities of textbooks with %40 useful; however, %60 of the learners evaluated the tasks and activities of the textbooks with %60 difficult**.** They differed in all four concepts or scales of measurement.

Evaluation Percentage of each Concept Based on Item Type

Item No. 3: Mapped Concepts	Percentage
Useful	%28
Difficult	%35
Poor	%24
Up-to-date	%13

Based upon the percentage of both groups the result shows that they commonly evaluated the tasks and activities of the textbooks with %35 difficult, %24 Poor, %28 Useful, %13 Up-to-date.

Given the fourth item which addresses Psychological and Affective Considerations, table 12 shows the participants who expressed their views. In terms of percentage, use of various concepts among the teachers and students enjoys the following distribution.

Table12 Descriptive Statistics on the 4th Item of the Written Protocol

Item NO. 4 Psychological and Affective Considerations	Teachers		Students	
	Frequency	Percentage in group	Frequency	Percentage in group
Useful	5	25	8	26.7
Difficult	0	0	2	6.7
Poor	12	60	10	33.3
Up-to-date	3	15	10	33.3
Total	20	100	30	100

It can be claimed that %60 of the teachers evaluated Psychological and Affective Considerations of textbooks poor; however, the students evaluated the Psychological and Affective Considerations of the textbooks with %33.3 poor and %33.3 up-to-date.

Evaluation Percentage of each Concept Based on Item Type

Item No. 4: Mapped Concepts	Percentage
Useful	%25
Difficult	%6.7
Poor	%45
Up-to-date	%23.3

Based upon the percentage of both groups the result shows that they commonly evaluated the Psychological and Affective Considerations of the textbooks with %45 poor.

As to the fifth item, addressing Guidance on Teacher, table 13 shows the participants expressed their views. In terms of percentage, use of various concepts among the teachers and students enjoys the following distribution.

Table13 Descriptive Statistics on the 5th Item of the Written Protocol

Item NO. 5 Guidance on Teacher	Teachers		Students	
	Frequency	Percentage in group	Frequency	Percentage in group
Useful	6	30	5	16.7
Difficult	0	0	10	33.3
Poor	8	40	10	33.3
Up-to-date	6	30	5	16.7
Total	20	100	30	100

It can be claimed that the teachers evaluated Guidance on Teacher of textbooks with %40 poor; however, the students evaluated Guidance on Teacher of the textbooks with %33.3 poor and %33.3 difficult.

Evaluation Percentage of each Concept Based on Item Type

Item No. 5: Mapped Concepts	Percentage
Useful	%23
Difficult	%16.3
Poor	%37
Up-to-date	%23.7

Based upon the percentage of both groups the result shows that they evaluated the Guidance on Teacher of the textbooks with %37 poor.

Given the sixth item, addressing Self Progress Check sought through, "How do you evaluate Iranian EFL textbook series taught at public high schools from Self Progress Check perspective?", as the table14 shows the participants expressed their views. In terms of percentage, use of various concepts among the teachers and students enjoys the following distribution**.**

Table 14 Descriptive Statistics on the 6th Item of the Written Protocol

Item NO. 6 Self Progress Check	Teachers		Students	
	Frequency	Percentage in group	Frequency	Percentage in group
Useful	3	15	1	3.3
Difficult	2	10	1	3.3
Poor	14	70	26	87
Up-to-date	1	5	2	6.7
Total	20	100	30	100

It can be claimed that the teachers evaluated Self Progress Check of textbooks with %70 poor; similarly, the students evaluated Self Progress Check of the textbooks with %87 poor.

Evaluation Percentage of each Concept Based on Item Type

Item No. 6: Mapped Concepts	Percentage
Useful	%9
Difficult	%6
Poor	%78
Up-to-date	%7

Based upon the percentage of both groups the result shows that they commonly evaluated the Self Progress Check of the textbooks with %78 poor.

As to the seventh item, addressing Supplementary materials Evaluation (pamphlets, audiovisual, etc), table 15 shows the participants expressed their views. In terms of percentage, use of various concepts among the teachers and students enjoys the following distribution**.**

Table15 Descriptive Statistics on the 7th Item of the Written Protocol

Item NO. 7 Supplementary materials Evaluation (pamphlets, audiovisual, etc)	Teachers		Students	
	Frequency	Percentage in group	Frequency	Percentage in group
Useful	9	45	12	40
Difficult	5	25	8	26.6
Poor	6	30	5	16.7
Up-to-date	0	0	5	16.7
Total	20	100	30	100

It can be claimed that the teachers evaluated Supplementary materials Evaluation (pamphlets, audiovisual, etc) of textbooks with %45 useful; similarly, the students evaluated Supplementary materials Evaluation (pamphlets, audiovisual, etc) of the textbooks with %40 useful.

Evaluation Percentage of each Concept Based on Item Type

Item No. 7: Mapped Concepts	Percentage
Useful	%42
Difficult	%26.5
Poor	%23
Up-to-date	%8.5

Based upon the percentage of both groups the result shows that they commonly evaluated the Supplementary materials Evaluation (pamphlets, audiovisual, etc) of the textbooks with %42 useful.

Given the eighth item, addressing Cultural Considerations, table 16 shows the participants expressed their views. In terms of percentage, use of various concepts among the teachers and students enjoys the following distribution**.**

Table16 Descriptive Statistics on the 8th Item of the Written Protocol

Item NO. 8 Cultural Considerations	Teachers		Students	
	Frequency	Percentage in group	Frequency	Percentage in group
Useful	8	40	15	50
Difficult	0	0	2	6.7
Poor	2	10	1	3.3
Up-to-date	10	50	12	40
Total	20	100	30	100

It can be claimed that the teachers evaluated Cultural Considerations of textbooks with %50 up-to-date; however, the students evaluated Cultural Considerations of the textbooks with %50 useful.

Evaluation Percentage of each Concept based on Item Type

Item No. 8: Mapped Concepts	Percentage
Useful	%45
Difficult	%3
Poor	%7
Up-to-date	%45

Based upon the percentage of both groups the result shows that they evaluated the Cultural Considerations of the textbooks with %45 useful and %45 up-to-date.

Discussion

As mentioned earlier, three main questions were investigated in this study. The data on the first one cross-checking the teachers' perspectives on textbook evaluation showed concluded that there are significant differences among the views expressed by the teachers through the Forms A and B; many of the teachers held negative views towards the EFL textbooks taught at high schools.

On the other side of the coin and in an answer to the second research question, the data revealed that many of the learners, contrary to their teachers, held negative views towards the EFL textbooks; the Iranian EFL learners, unlike their teachers, are relatively a bit satisfied with their EFL textbooks. All these indicate that that there were simply significant differences among the views expressed by the students through the checklists A and B.

Comparative analysis of the criteria compatibility sustained the aforementioned findings; many of the teachers held negative views while the learners held positive More obviously, there were significant differences among the views expressed by the teachers and students on both checklists (i.e., Form A and Form B).

Written Protocol-based qualitative, while comparative, analysis of eight common features of the textbooks showed that the groups expressed contradictory perspectives. It means that their perspectives range on a continuum of two extremes; from total mismatch and incompatibility to relative coordination.

Conclusion

It was not easy to get to any definite conclusions based upon such a small sample of subjects from such widely differing backgrounds. Nevertheless, when the data achieved through the checklists and the written protocol were put together, it can generally be concluded that the two groups looked at the measures of textbook evaluation differently though they held common views in some respects. Generally, the teachers were roughly less satisfied with them than the learners were. Teachers and Learners held different views on many areas and aspects of comparing the EFL textbooks; their views were not much compatible. As far as satisfaction or dissatisfaction was concerned, teachers showed to be less satisfied with the EFL textbooks. As the various concepts mapped, both groups showed they held different views with respect to each concept, though there were certain commonalities in their views.

Theoretically, the findings are further support to the principles of the Humanism and Constructivism which are receiving significance in which learner-centered and holistic education is appreciated. Then, they are in line with the approach which claims that the learners' views should be appreciated in all areas of education including materials selection, development and adaptation.

*Pedagogicall*y, as both groups were the representatives of the voices arising from the classrooms, the findings hereby send clear messages to the administrators and textbook developers to help them plan and prepare appropriate textbooks given the learners and teachers' perspectives. Therefore, both groups as main consumers can take the advantages of any research in materials evaluation, including this one. Moreover, the findings can also be fruitful to EFL textbook developers and to all those who are in contact with national language planning so that

they can apply more useful and effective ways by avoiding centralized, pure-theoretical and bench-decisions as to making any educational planning including in materials preparation.

References

Allwright, R.L. (1981). What do we want teaching materials for? *ELT Journal* 36(1).

Amalsaleh, E. (2004). *The representation of social actors in the EFL textbooks in Iran.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran.

Amerian, M. (1987). *A comparative study of the graded English series with regard to content and methodology.* Unpublished master's thesis, Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran.

Ansary & Babaeii: http.// *itesli org* / Articles / Ansary-Textbooks/ 2007

Ansary, H., & Babaii, E., (2002). *Universal characteristics of EFL/ESL textbook*: *A step towards systematic textbook evaluation. The Internet TESL Journal* ,2,1-8.

Ariew, R. (1982). *The textbook as curriculum*. In T.V. Higgs (Ed.), curriculum, competence, and the foreign language teacher. Skokie, IL: National Textbook Co, 11-33.

Bailey, K., C. Madden and S. Krash (1974). 'Is there a "natural sequence" in adult second language learning?' Language Learning, 24.

Birjandy et al., (2006).*Learning to read English for pre-university students*. Tehran: Textbook Publishing Company of Iran.

Brown, J., (1995).*The elements of language curriculum: a systematic approach to program development* .Boston: Heinele and Heinele Publisher, 30-48.

Brumfit, C. (1981). Review of Moscowitz (1978). *ELT Journal*, 36(1), 63-64.

Candlin, C.N. and Breen, M.P. (1979).*Evaluating, adapting and innovating language teaching materials.* In C. Yorio, K. Perkins and J.Schacter (Eds.) On TESOL '79: The learner in focus. Washington, D.C.: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 86-108.

Candlin, C.N., (1984). *Syllabus design as a critical process*. In C.J. Brumfit (Ed.) General English Syllabus Design. Oxford: Pergamon/The British Council.

Carter, R. and Nunan, D. (2001). *The Cambridge Guide to teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Celce-Murcia, M., (1991).*Teaching English as a Second of foreign Language.* (2nd Ed.), Heinle and Heinle Publishers.

Cunningsworth, A. (1984). *Evaluating and selecting EFL Teaching Material*. London: Heinemann.

Cunningsworth, A. (1995) .*Choosing Your Coursebook*.Oxford: Heinemen, 7.

Dubin, F. and Olshtain, E., (1992). *Course Design*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Dulay, H. and Burt, M., (1973). Should we teach children syntax? *Language Learning,* 23.

Edge, J. and Wharton, S. (1998). *'Autonomy and development: living in the materials world*', in B.Tomlinson, (ed.) Materials Development in Language teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 295-310.

Ellis, R. (1997). The Empirical Evaluation of language teaching Materials*. ELT Journal.* 51(1).

Harmer, J. (1996). *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. Harlow: Longman, 23-37.

Harmer. (2001).*The Practice of English language Teaching*. (3rd ed.), Pearson Education Ltd.

Hutchinson, T., & Torres, E., (1994). The textbook as agent of change*. ELT Journal* 48(4), 315-328.

Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A. (1987). *ESP: a Learning-centered Approach. CUP*

Jahangard, A. (2007). *The evaluation of the EFL materials taught at Iranian public high schools. http://www3. telus.net/linguistics issues/tefliranian.html.*

Kheibari, S. (1999). *Text analysis and evaluation of TEPSOL course books*. Unpublished master's thesis, Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran.

Miekley, J. (2005). ESL Textbook Evaluation Checklist*. Reading Matrix*, 5(2), Sept.

Nunan, D. (2001).*Syllabus Design*. In Celce-Murcia, M. (2001). *Teaching English as a Second or foreign Language.* Heinle &Heinle.

Razmjoo, S.A. (2007). High schools or private institutes' textbooks? *ASIAN EFL*

JOURNAL, 9(4).

Richards, J.C. and Renandya, W.A. (2002). *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sheldon, L.E. (1988).Evaluating ELT textbooks and materials. *ELT Journal*, 42(4), 237-246.

Tomlinson, B. (2003). *Developing Materials for Language Teaching*. London: Cromwell Press.

Ur, P. (1996). *A course in Language Teaching. Practice and theory.* CUP.

Widdoson, H.G., (1984).*'Educational and pedagogical factors in syllabus design'* in C.J.Brumfit (ed.) 1984a.

Wilkins, D. (1976).*Notional Syllabuses*. London: OUP.

Williams, D. (1983).Developing criteria for textbooks evaluation. *ELT Journal,* 37(3), 251-255.

Yarmohammadi, L. (2002).*The evaluation of pre-university textbooks*. The Newsletter of the Iranian Academy of Science, 18, 70-87.

Title

Investigating the Primacy of Aspect in the Performance of Iranian EFL Learners

Authors

Mohammad Ali Farsidoust (M.A.)
Shiraz Honar Higher Education Institute, Iran

Firooz. Sadighi, (Ph.D.)
Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran

Mahboobeh Saadat (Ph.D.)
Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran

Bio data

Mohammad Ali Farsidoust M.A. Shiraz Honar Higher Education Institute, Shiraz, Iran

Firooz Sadighi, Ph.D. Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran

Mahboobeh Saadat Ph.D. in TEFL. She is an assistant professor at Shiraz University, Iran. Her areas of interest include syntax and language learning. She has already published some articles on the issues as well as others.

Abstract

The phenomenon of limiting tense-aspect markers to a restricted class of verbs (Vendler's, 1967 four-way classification) according to the inherent aspect of the verb is known as the Primacy of Aspect (Robison, 1995; Andersen and Shirai, 1996). By taking the POA principles into consideration it is possible to account for language learners' tense-aspect problems. The present study aims at answering some questions concerning this phenomenon such as testifying the presence of POA in the learners' performance, investigating and explaining the order of verb patterns, investigating the learners' errors and probing the effect of language transfer in this regard. Using Vendler's (1967) classification, a lexical aspect test comprising four verb types with their tokens was devised and administered to 120 EFL learners at three proficiency levels of elementary, intermediate and advanced. The results did not confirm all of the POA principles but provided evidence for the influence of lexical aspect categories and indicated that the major

problems of the learners had their roots in aspect rather than tense. Also the results of this study supported the English data obtained so far.
Keywords: Grammatical tense, Grammatical aspect, Lexical aspect, Verb types, Vendlerean classification (1967), language acquisition.

Introduction

The interaction of grammatical tense, grammatical and lexical aspects accounts for why verbs like *recognize, read a letter, dance* and *know* can be used in different tenses but not in different aspects. L1 and L2 learners in the early stages of acquiring verbal morphology mark the tense-aspect categories according to a limitation which is inherent in the morphology of the verbs. This phenomenon has been referred to as the Primacy of Aspect (or in short POA) by Andersen and Shirai (1996). As evidenced, the notion of POA has raised a lot of controversy in different languages since the time Vendler (1967) devised the four-way classification of states, activities, accomplishments and achievements. Many linguists and researchers have tried to account for L1 and L2 learners' problems in acquiring time-related concepts by referring to the notion of POA and this typology.

The POA hypothesis is composed of four elements:

1. Learners initially restrict past or perfective marking to achievement and accomplishment verbs and then activities. States are the last category to be marked consistently.
2. In languages with an imperfective marker (e.g. English, and Persian), imperfective past appears much later than perfective past and is initially restricted to states and activity verbs, then it is extended to accomplishments and finally to achievements.
3. Progressive marking is initially restricted to activity verbs, then to accomplishments and achievements.
4. Progressive marking is not incorrectly overextended to states.

In both L1 and L2 acquisition studies, there is a lot of evidence confirming these components. L1 acquisition research basically supports all the four components mentioned above, of course with some counter-evidence in languages such as Japanese, Spanish and Mandarin. L2 learning data also confirm all but the last component: L2 learners do overextend the progressive marking to states, which may be the result of transfer from L1 of a more general

imperfective notion to the progressive marker; although Bardovi-Harlig (2000) reports that no language transfer effect has yet been observed.

Background

The development of tense-aspect morphology has been studied extensively in L1 and L2 acquisition. SLA case studies have found parallel correlations: learners from a variety of language backgrounds use target inflections to mark aspectual distinctions in non-native-like manners. Lots of studies have been done to investigate the POA principles and their influence on second or foreign language learning in children and adults many of which concern EFL or ESL acquisition. As compared to other European languages, English as either a second language or a foreign language has had more prevalence. The EFL or ESL learners elsewhere in the world have their own problems in expressing temporal structures and also in encoding tense-aspect inflections. The following studies are among the most important and the most recent ones.

In a study based on an interview with a Latino immigrant, Robison (1991) demonstrated a significant quantitative dependence between –ing and durative aspect, and between past and punctual aspect. In another study, Robinson (1995) made a cross-cultural study of tense and aspect marking in the interlanguage of non-English speaking students elicited through interviews to assess three dimensions of lexical aspect. The results revealed that the association of inflections with tense increases with proficiency level and that, with respect to simple past, lexical aspect in lower level learners exerts more control over inflection than does tense for low level learners.

Bardovi-Harlig (1992), using a cloze test, found that learners differentiated two punctual from three durative verbs by a non-native-like application of the progressive/non-progressive inflectional distinction and that punctual verbs appeared in the simple past at a higher rate than durative verbs. In another study, Bardovi-Harlig together with Reynolds (1995) employed cloze passages to elicit inflections from a large cross-section of English learners representing various native languages and six ESL placement levels. They found that at all placement levels a higher rate of correct past tense usage aligned with achievements and accomplishments rather than states or activities, but also observed that the gap between telic and atelic predicates narrowed with increasing proficiency level. To study classroom learners of English and French, Bardovi-Harlig and Bergstrom (1996) used a retell-story task and observed that low-level learners

demonstrated a concentration of past on achievements and English progressive on activities. For higher levels past projected more to accomplishments and then to activities, while progressive and imperfective markings failed to distribute and that the linkage of –s with states was strongly supported. In one of her studies, Bardovi-Harlig (1997) mentioned narrative structure and lexical aspect as the conspiring factors in second language acquisition of tense-aspect morphology. She proposed two hypotheses regarding the distribution of emergent tense-aspect morphology in SLA: the Aspect Hypothesis and the Discourse Hypothesis. The latter claims that interlanguage verbal morphology is determined by the narrative structure. The study investigated the influence of narrative structure and lexical aspectual class on the use of tense-aspect morphology by adult learners of English as a second language in a single corpus comprising 74 narratives produced by adult learners of English at various proficiency levels. The results suggested that both hypotheses were necessary to account for the distribution of verbal morphology in the learners' interlanguage. As for the emergence of the present perfect, Bardovi-Harlig (2001) addressed the acquisition of the present perfect by classroom second language learners within 15 months of intensive English language instruction which was part of a larger investigation of the influence of instruction on the tense-aspect system as a whole. Extended observation revealed that the learners had individual acquisition profiles especially with respect to rate, in spite of the fact that they were enrolled in the same intensive English program. In all, the study shows that in the tense-aspect instructional research, as in the tense-aspect research, progress is interpreted not merely as target-like use, which represents the end-point of the acquisition process, but as advancement along the acquisitional research.

Yamazaki (2003) examined the effect of L2 input on L2 output regarding the acquisition of verbal morphology from the perspective of an association of lexical classed of verbs with past tense and progressive morphemes. Using ESL textbooks as L2 input she tried to find out any association of tense-aspect morphology with lexical classes of verbs. The results showed an association of progressive marking with activity verbs, which was found in L2 output of Japanese ESL learners, though any association of past tense marking with telic situations (verbs with an internal clear end-point), could not be found. Therefore, she came to conclude that output of Japanese learners of English was not created based on their L2 input in the domain of acquisition of verbal morphology.

Hinkel (2004) has focused on tense and aspect regarding the passive voice in L1and L2 academic texts. Her study analyzes specific written discourse production in which non-native speakers' usage of English tenses and voice appears to be dramatically different from that of native speakers. Her main goal is to identify the patterns and median frequency rates of L1 and L2 uses of three English tenses (present, past and future), two aspects (progressive and perfect) and passive verb structures encountered in a native speaker and non-native speaker corpus of L1 and L2 academic student texts. The results of the study demonstrate that even after many years of L2 learning and use, advanced non-native students may still have difficulty with the conventionalized uses of tenses, aspects and the passive voice in written academic discourse.

Collins (2005) considered the influence of lexical aspect on the acquisition of grammatical morphology as language learning universal. In her study comparing the acquisition of tense-aspect morphology between Japanese and French ESL learners, she mentioned the magnitude of lexical aspect effect on achievement verbs was the only significant L1 difference.

Stowell (2005) has defended the view that many central aspects of the semantics of tense are determined by independently motivated principles of syntactic theory. He decomposes tenses syntactically into a temporal ordering predicate and two time-denoting arguments which correspond to a covert reference time (RT) argument and an eventuality time (ET) argument containing the verb phrase. He uses the theory of covert movement to account for the independent/indexical interpretation of relative clause tenses and also for the correlation between independent tense interpretation and a construal of the relative clause.

Just like Bardovi-Harlig (1997), Clacher (2005) also investigated the effect of lexical aspect and narrative discourse structure on the pattern of acquisition and use of English verbal morphology in Creole-speaking students. Her findings indicated that the emergent pattern of morphology in the Creole participants' written interlanguage appeared to be influenced not only by lexical aspect and narrative discourse, but also by a combination of other factors such as morpho-syntactic features of the creoles, the removal of the distinction between the linguistic system of English-based creoles and that of the standard English varieties, and the constant bidirectional shifting between the creoles and the standard varieties along the Creole continuum as well as the structure of narrative discourse in Creole cultures.

Hong (2006), employing written tests of picture narrative and two tasks eliciting verbs (fill-in-the-blanks and multiple choice-questions), aimed at testing the hypothesis using the data

collected from her 80 Hong Kong secondary school students of English. The data from picture narrative confirmed the truth of the prediction: the acquisition pattern of the subjects followed the order claimed by Shirai and Andersen (1995). It was found that learners marked simple past better with telics than atelics. However, her data also showed that learners marked simple past with accomplishments more often than with achievements in their early stage of learning. Moreover, it was found that although at the earlier stage learners mark simple past better with activities than with statives, in later stages, learners marked simple past more with statives, rather than activities.

Barber (2008) has tried to investigate English Aktionsart or aspectual coercion through corpora-based research. In her data 3 types of coercion were found: from activities into accomplishments, activities into states and accomplishments into states. There were two main ways coercions take place in the data: from activity to accomplishment through the addition of an endpoint, and from various Aktionsarten into state by coercing the event into being a property of someone/something. Many of the Aktionsart coercion theories are supported at least in part by the data found in natural language. One of the most prominent coercions that is underrepresented in the data is from achievement to accomplishment through the addition of a preparatory process. She concludes that while there are reasons for analysing Aktionsart at verb phrase or sentence level, this does not mean the possibility of analyses at the lexical level should be ignored.

Through a cross-sectional study, Ayoun and Salaberry (2008) analyze data from a group of 21 high school French speakers learning English in France to address two goals: a) observing learners' native-like performance in their use of the various past morphological forms across the lexical aspectual classes; b) investigating the effect of learners' first language on overusing the English present perfect due to its morphological similarity with the *passé composé*. The findings emphasize the effect of lexical aspect on the use of past tense markers while highlighting a significant departure from the predicted developmental path of past tense marking: states are marked more consistently than telic events in the narrative task.

The results of empirical studies generally show past morphology is strongly associated with achievements or accomplishments or both and *–ing* is strongly associated with durative verbs and in sum all these studies indicate the influence of aspect that pivots the acquisition of temporal expressions.

Despite the quantity of data gathered on a wide range of languages like French, Japanese, Chinese, Russian, Korean, and Spanish and in particular English, currently there is no information available about the acquisition of English tense-aspect in the performance of Iranian EFL learners. This study intends to investigate how Iranian EFL learners mark English verbs with regard to tense and aspect.

Method

Participants

The participants of this study were 120 learners of English at 3 proficiency levels of elementary, intermediate and advanced aging from 15 to 40 with a majority of females that had an educational background ranging from secondary school students to undergraduate and graduate students and a variety of jobs. The distribution of the testees in each proficiency level was also equal: 40 learners in each.

Instrumentation

To investigate POA in the performance of Iranian EFL learners and analyse their errors, the researchers first devised a test of lexical aspect with 40 items in which the four verb types of states, activities, accomplishments and achievements were equally represented in the form of 10 tokens for each verb type. The test was then piloted to 30 learners of elementary, intermediate and advanced levels. The results of the pilot test lead to the exclusion of the easiest and the most difficult tokens thus reducing the number of test items from 40 to 32. Totally, a bulk of 3840 verbs (= 4 verb types × 8 tokens × 120 participants) comprised the data for the study. The total frequency of the correct and wrong answers to each verb type for the whole sample and for each proficiency level was separately obtained. Since the collected data were nominal, a chi-square test was run to determine whether there were significant differences among the performances of different proficiency groups.

Results and discussion

Table 1. Distribution of correct and incorrect answers across verb types and levels

Verb types	States			Activities			Accomplishments			Achievements			Total
Levels	Adv.	Int.	El.	Adv.	Int.	El.	Adv.	Int.	El.	Adv.	Int.	El.	
Correct	165	132	82	126	90	46	68	50	16	149	147	94	1165
Incorrect	150	177	219	183	218	255	240	264	276	159	163	204	2508
Total													
Correct	379			262			134			390			3673
Incorrect	546			656			780			526			

Table 1 depicts the distribution of correct & incorrect answers across verb types and levels. The elementary learners have committed the greatest number of errors in the case of accomplishments (276 errors), the activities (255), next states (219 errors) and finally, achievements (204 errors). For the intermediate learners the trend is the same. The number of error rises as we start with achievements then states, activities and accomplishments, i.e., 163, 177, 218 and 254, respectively. In other words, such testees find achievements easier to understand and mark. With one difference, the advanced learners show the same hierarchy. For these students accomplishments are the first verb type (240 errors), activities are the second (183 errors), achievements the third (159 errors) and states come last of all (150 errors). Take Table 2 into consideration which represents the distribution of correct tense-aspect markers across levels and verb types.

Table 2: Distribution of correct tense-aspect markers across levels and verb types

Level	Verb Types	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	Total
Adv.	**St.**	**36**	**72**	**12**	**--**	**--**	**17**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**28**	**--**	**--**	**165**
	Act.	**--**	**17**	**--**	**42**	**18**	**--**	**--**	**18**	**--**	**--**	**31**	**--**	**126**
	Acc.	**--**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**28**	**--**	**15**	**--**	**--**	**25**	**--**	**68**
	Ach.	**13**	**--**	**111**	**--**	**--**	**25**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**149**
	Sum	**49**	**89**	**123**	**42**	**18**	**70**	**---**	**33**	**---**	**28**	**56**	**---**	**508**

Int.	**St.**	**24**	**69**	**8**	**--**	**--**	**9**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**22**	**--**	**--**	**132**
	Act.	**--**	**13**	**--**	**29**	**17**	**--**	**--**	**10**	**--**	**--**	**21**	**--**	**90**
	Acc.	**--**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**11**	**--**	**5**	**--**	**--**	**15**	**19**	**50**
	Ach.	**14**	**--**	**107**	**--**	**--**	**26**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**147**
	Sum	**38**	**82**	**115**	**29**	**17**	**46**	**---**	**15**	**---**	**22**	**36**	**19**	**419**
El.	**St.**	**24**	**39**	**7**	**--**	**--**	**5**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**7**	**--**	**--**	**82**
	Act.	**--**	**9**	**--**	**19**	**7**	**--**	**--**	**3**	**--**	**--**	**8**	**--**	**46**
	Acc.	**--**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**6**	**--**	**3**	**--**	**--**	**7**	**--**	**16**
	Ach.	**5**	**--**	**74**	**--**	**--**	**11**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**--**	**4**	**94**
	Sum	**29**	**48**	**81**	**19**	**7**	**22**	**---**	**6**	**---**	**7**	**15**	**4**	**238**
Total		**116**	**219**	**319**	**90**	**42**	**138**	**--**	**54**	**--**	**57**	**107**	**23**	**1165**
%		**13..93**	**18..29**	**26..88**	**7.23**	**3.37**	**11..35**		**4.13**		**4.4**	**8.95**	**1.47**	**%100**

As the table shows, simple past (No. 3) has the largest percentage among all (28.88%); then, simple present 3rd person singular (No. 2) is the second (18.29%). After that, simple present for persons other than third person singular (No. 1) comes third (13.93%). Present perfect (No. 6) is another tense-aspect marker answered correctly to a great extent (11.35%). The smallest percentage of all (1.47%) belongs to the marker referring to future perfect tense (No. 12). The advanced learners have associated achievements mostly with past tense and perfect aspect, accomplishments with present and future tenses and perfect and imperfect aspect. Activities have been associated with past, present and future tenses and mostly with imperfect, to some extent perfect and somewhat with third person singular –s. States have been mostly matched with singular third –s, neutral form, future and past tenses and perfect aspect. As for the situation in the intermediate level, achievements have been mostly linked with past and perfect, accomplishments with both perfect and imperfect aspects on present and future tenses. Activities have been generally attached to present and future tenses and imperfect aspect and slightly with singular –s. States have been associated mostly with past tense, singular –s, neutral form and perfect, as well as little use of present. In the elementary level, the alignment of past tense and perfect aspect with achievements is the most among all markers and there is slight association of neutral form and future. Accomplishments in this level have been attached to both perfect and imperfect aspects and present and future tenses, though they are the lowest number of correct

answers in the level. Activities have been aligned with imperfect aspect and with past, present and future tenses. There is also a very depressed use of singular –s. States have been mostly matched with singular –s and neutral and very scarce cases of past and future.

In general, the important cases observed in the results are: a) the association of progressive marking with activities, b) an increased application of third person singular marking with states, c) a highly increased use of past tense on achievements and d) a dearth of future on telic verbs (accomplishments and achievements). On the other hand, the application of past considerably decreases in the case of activities and accomplishments in all levels while the use of progressive in the case of activities highly increases as the proficiency level rises. Since this study investigates POA in adult learners of English its results can be compared with those of similar studies. The results of Flashner's (1982) study are in line with part c; parts a and c are also supported by Robison (1990). Bardovi-Harlig (1992), Bardovi-Harlig and Reynolds (1995) endorse part c as well. Bardovi-Harlig and Bergstrom (1996) support parts a, b and c. Hong's (2006) study provides evidence for part c, too. In sum, the results of the present study parallel the English data which show that past or perfect morphology is strongly associated with achievements, accomplishments or both, and progressive marking is aligned with durative verbs, that is states, activities and accomplishments, with activities receiving more –ing marking (Andersen and Shirai, 1996).

The participants of the study mainly committed the following errors which are of aspectual, temporal and other natures: overextension of third singular marking on all verb types (%12.87), wrong application of progressive marking (%10.88), overgeneralization of neutral aspect (%9.96), wrong use of tense on all verb types (%22.64) and also errors with a nature other than temporality and aspectuality, e.g. subject verb agreement (%21.81).

The research questions (R.Q.) and their answers:

R.Q.1. Do Iranian EFL learners follow POA in their performance? Or, is POA established in their use of tense and aspect in English?

To answer this question it is necessary to review the POA claims. POA generally predicts that past or perfect marking is initially associated with achievements and accomplishments or both, and then extend to activities and states. The condition of past or perfect morphology in the testees' performance is as this: achievements in all levels are aligned with past and perfect, accomplishments in all levels are to some extent associated with perfect, activities are matched

with past only in the advanced level and states in elementary level receive no past or perfect but in intermediate and advanced levels they are slightly linked with past or perfect morphology. So far the first claim has been fulfilled by our learners. Another claim of POA is that imperfective past appears later than perfective past. In other words, perfective past emerges earlier, and imperfective past marking begins with statives and activities extending to accomplishments and achievements. The participants' situation is like this: perfective past emerges in the elementary level in the case of achievements and then it is projected onto states and, accomplishments and reaches its highest point with achievements in the intermediate and advanced levels. As for imperfective past, its marking emerges on activities in the elementary and advanced levels, no sign of it in the intermediate level. None of the other verb types receives imperfective past. This part deviates from the pattern and does not fulfill the second claim. The third claim holds that progressive marking begins with states extending to accomplishments and achievements. In all the levels there are no appropriate progressive associations with states and achievements, the number of correctly linked progressive marking with accomplishments in the advanced level is twice as many as it is in the intermediate level which in turn this number is twice as many as it is in the elementary level (40, 20 and 10, respectively). Evidently, this behaviour does not follow the third claim. However, on the whole, the findings of this study are supported by English data. Although the results are more or less similar to the English data, with regard to the second and third claims, it appears that the participants of the study have shown their own pattern.

R.Q.2. Do EFL learners follow the pattern of learning for the L1 English verb types?

The English data generally show that past morphology is strongly associated with achievements, accomplishments or both and –ing is completely correlated with durative verbs, i.e., states, activities and accomplishments, with activities receiving more –ing marking. Also the POA holds that children mark past and perfective on achievement and accomplishment verbs and then extend it to activity and stative verbs. Table 2 illustrates the pattern of associating the English verb types with verbal morphology markers as performed by Iranian EFL learners: past marking is first associated with achievements and accomplishments in the elementary level. In the intermediate level it appears on states and becomes strengthened on accomplishments and achievements. In the advanced level it covers all the verb types; in fact, it is highly increased on telic verbs. Generally, the correlation of past marking on achievements and accomplishments is

quite followed by the learners but –ing is mainly associated with activities and not with states and accomplishments.

R.Q.3**.** To what extent do the errors observed in the learners' performance vary across English verb types?

Consider table 3 into consideration. The total bulk of errors observed in the testees' performance is 2508 items, that is, as mentioned above, 61.31%, or about two thirds of the sum of the test items. We can understand from Table 2 that the learners' errors are not homogeneously distributed across verb types and proficiency levels. In fact, the errors increase as the proficiency level decreases. For the advanced learners the lowest rate of errors belongs to state verbs (150 errors) while for the intermediate and the elementary learners the lowest rate belongs to achievements (163 and 204, respectively). On the other hand, the greatest number of erroneous answers in all the levels pertains to accomplishments.

R.Q.4**.** Do the errors committed by the learners vary across different proficiency levels and in what type of verbs are these differences observed?

The results of Chi-square tests indicate that the differences among proficiency levels and verb types are by no means accidental (levels: X^2= 29.829, $p<0.001$; verb types: X^2= 34.134, $p<0.001$). This is in line with Robison's (1995) study in which he indicates as the proficiency rises the performance of learners increases or improves. In other words, the lower the proficiency level, the lower the quality of performance. As it is evident from Table 3, the testees' performance varies across both proficiency level and verb types. Considering the wrong choices, in the advanced level, the difficulty sequence for verb types ranges from accomplishments to states with activities and achievements in between. In intermediate, it goes from accomplishments to achievements with activities and states in between. So is the case in elementary level. Overall, it is clear that the testees show greatest problems in using accomplishments, then activities and states, and achievements have been proved to be the least problematic.

Table 3: Hierarchy of difficulty among verb types and proficiency levels

Level	Advanced				Intermediate				Elementary				Total
Verb type	St.	Ach.	Act.	Acc.	Ach.	St.	Act.	Acc.	Ach.	St.	Act.	Acc.	
Right	165	149	126	68	147	132	90	50	94	82	46	16	1165
Wrong	150	159	183	240	163	177	218	264	204	219	255	276	2508
Total	315	308	309	308	339	309	308	314	298	301	301	292	3673

R.Q.5. Does L1 transfer play any role in this regard?

In brief, the researchers believe that there might be several important factors to account for the learners' errors.

Overgeneralizing the prefix *mi* in Persian which indicates continuity of a situation, habituality and futurity in the Persian language onto and its compatibility with any verb in Persian in either aspects could be one reason among all.

Overgeneralizing the modal verb *dashtan* (which means 'to have' in the Persian language while its grammatical equivalent in English indicates progressiveness and boundlessness using the verb 'to be' + ing) onto all verb types in English.

Similarity in expressing the same concept using the simple past tense and present perfect tense in Persian could be another reason. In other words, the use of either tenses is neutral for some verbs in Persian Bateni, 1996).

The distinction of state-process and punctual-non-punctual verbs claimed to be followed by children (Bickerton, 1981) that is not followed by the testees may be another influential factor.

Mistaking the tense-aspect uses in Persian for English ones could be another important factor leading to the learners' errors.

Altogether, it seems that the errors are partly interlingual (i.e., they have their roots in L1), and partly intralingual (i.e., they come from lack of the related knowledge of tense-aspect typology). On the other hand, Andersen and Shirai (1996) and Bardovi-Harlig (2000, p.183) believe L1 transfer has no role in this regard and if so, its effects are quite rare. There are few studies (Flashner, 1982 and Wenzell, 1989) in which it is reported that the use of progressive markers on state verbs has their roots in L1. This is because the learner has an L1 to map L2 forms on it. Klein, *et al.* (1995, p.278) conclude: "What is more striking is the lack of source

language influence where one would expect it. Some of the source languages have a distinct aspect marking, others do not. But we have no evidence in our data that this difference plays a systematic role. We must conclude that there is no significant source language influence in the acquisition of temporality". Therefore, the results of this study may provide counter-evidence against Bardovi-Harlig (2000), Andersen and Shirai (1996) and Klein *et al.* (1995). This notion could be a very interesting domain of inquiry in the field of tense and aspect systems.

Conclusion

The results of data analysis revealed that POA plays an important role in learning and using the grammatical categories of English tense and aspect. It was also evidenced that the POA hypothesis as a linguistic universal is not completely observed in the performance of Iranian learners of English, although the results confirmed one of its principles; this is clearly evident from the bulk of different errors. The major findings which conclude the present study are listed as follows:

a) The learners' greatest problem is lack or dearth of the knowledge of lexical aspect categories. As Wagner (1998) believes, this has to do with learnability theory which is the formal study of how systems are learnt.

b) Language input or exposure has an important role in acquiring the parameters of another language.

c) Despite the introduction of new approaches and methods of teaching foreign languages, it is inferred from the bulk of errors that the learners' background knowledge of grammar, particularly tense and aspect, is still influenced by traditional views.

d) As Bateni (1996) states, when a linguistic form (e.g. the English future perfect or future progressive) is not present in a foreign language, language learners try to compensate for it using the closest mother tongue forms. So many of the errors witnessed in analyzing the date confirm this claim.

e) Aspect is prior to tense. The errors observed emphasize this fact.

f) Language input (the body of evidence available to the language learner) is really vital in language acquisition. In order for children/ learners to learn what concepts go with which pieces of morphology, they need linguistic evidence that distinguishes between lexical aspect and grammatical aspect/tense. According to Wagner (1998) if the input is scarce with such examples,

learning will be slow and children/learners will produce data consistent with the Aspect First hypothesis.

As the final word, the results of this study are in line with what it proclaims in that the Primacy of Aspect as one of the principles of Universal Grammar governs a part of languages and their acquisition and is already wired into the human brains. Such a principle is universal but it allows for variations in the form of certain parameters that need to be set. The task of the teacher is to help learners discover and practice parameters in L1 or L2 acquisition stages. The learners' task is to discover how these parameters (tense-aspect system or lexical aspect categories) should be set for the particular language they encounter.

References

Andersen, R. & Shirai, Y. (1996). The primacy of aspect in first and second language acquisition: The pidgin-creole connection. *In Handbook of Second Language Acquisition*, W. C. Ritchie and T. K. Bhatia (eds). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Ayoun, D. & Salaberry, M. R. (2008). Acquisition of English Tense-Aspect Morphology by Advanced French Instructed Learners. *Language Learning*. *Vol. 58* (3), pp. 555-595

Barber, N. (2008). *Aktionsart coercion*. Western Australia, University of Western Australia: Unpublished Ms. Dissertation.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1992). The relationship of form and meaning: A cross-sectional study of tense and aspect in the interlanguage of learners of English as a second language. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, No. 13, pp. 253-278.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. & Reynolds, D.W. (1995). The role of lexical aspect in the acquisition of tense and aspect. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29, 107-131.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. & A. Bergstrom. (1996). The acquisition of tense and aspect in second language and foreign language learning: Learner narratives in English (SL) and French (FL). *Canadian Modern Language Review*, Vol. 2, No. 52, pp. 308-330.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1997). Another piece of the puzzle: The emergence of the present perfect. *Language Learning*, Vol. 3, No. 47, pp. 375-422.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2000). *Tense and aspect in second language acquisition: form, meaning and use*. Oxford and Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishers.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2001). Another piece of the puzzle: The emergence of the present perfect.

Language learning, 51, supp.1. (ERIC document).

Bateni, M. (1996). The grammatical tense and the grammatical time. *A new look at grammar* (3rd ed.). Tehran: Agah Publications.

Bickerton, D. (1981). *Roots of Language*. Ann Arbor: Karoma.

Clacher, A. (2005). Creole English speakers' treatment of tense- aspect Morphology in English interlanguage written discourse. *Language learning*, Vol. 55, No. 2, pp. 275-334.

Collins, L. (2005). The role of L1 influence and lexical aspect in the acquisition of temporal morphology. *Language learning*, Vol. 52, No. 1, pp.43-94. (ERIC Document).

Flashner, V. (1982). *The English interlanguage of three native speakers of Russian: Two perspectives*. California, Los Angeles: University of California, Unpublished Master's thesis.

Hinkel, E. (2004). Tense, aspect and the passive voice in L1 and L2 academic texts. *Language teaching research*, No. 8, pp. 5-29.

Hong, D. (2006). *The acquisition of tense and aspect by Hong Kong secondary learners of English*, Hong Kong: The Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

Klein, W. et al. (1995). *The acquisition of temporality in a second language.* Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Robison, R. E. (1991). The primacy of aspect: Aspectual marking in English interlanguage. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, No. 12, pp. 315-330.

Robison, R.E. (1995). The aspect hypothesis revisited: A cross-sectional study of tense and aspect marking in interlanguage. *Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 16, No. 3, pp. 344-370.

Stowell, T. (2005). *The syntactic expression of tense*. Los Angeles, CA: UCLA, Linguistics Department. (www.sciencedirect.com)

Vendler, Z. (1967). *Linguistics in Philosophy*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.

Wagner, L. (1998). *The semantics and acquisition of time in language.* Pennsylvania, University of Pennsylvania: Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation.

Wenzell, V. E. (1989). Transfer of aspect in the oral narratives of native Russian speaker. In H. W. Dechert and M. Raupacht (Eds.), *Transfer in language production*, pp. 71-97. Norwood, N.J.: Ablex.

Yamazaki, T. (2003). *Distributional Analysis of Tense and Aspect in L2 Input with Relation to Lexical Classes of Verbs*. Tokyo: Waseda University Press, pp. 547-560.

Note:
This study was conducted by help and support of **Dr. F. Sadighi and Dr. M. Saadat** only. The first author is really grateful to them. He also wishes to express his gratitude towards **Dr. R. Salimi**, Shiraz Honar Higher Education Institute.

Title

Reconsidering Speed test with a Focus on Grammar

Author

Kamal Heidari Soureshjani (M.A.)
Islamic Azad University, Shahrekord Branch, Iran

Bio data

Kamal Heidari Soureshjani M.A. in TEFL from Shiraz University and is now a Young Researchers Club Member. He taught English courses and IELTS at different institutes in Shiraz. He has also published papers in different journals including IJLS, JLTR, TPLS. He is presently the academic member of Islamic Azad University, Shahrekord branch, Iran.

Abstract

The present study aims at, relying on Bachman's test method facets, investigating the facets of time allotment and length of stems in speed tests and their possible correlation with item difficulty when measuring part of language knowledge, in this case grammar, via MC tests. Here, the author attempts to figure out whether there is any sort of interplay between item difficulty and language learners' performance on speed test of grammar in the presence of two different types of stems, i.e. short stem items (SSI) and long stem items (LSI). The results of the study indicated that lengthy stems in an MC test of grammar would seriously endanger the validity of such tests and the attained results would not fully and reliably show students' true command of the trait being tested. The reason seems to lie in the contamination of speeded test with side effects of lengthy stems when they heavily build on extraneous factors to the tested skill (e.g. reading skills).

Keywords: Speed test, Short stem item, Long stem item, Bachman's test method facets, Grammar test

Introduction

Language testing has always been of a great concern in teaching methodology. Despite some futile attempts to keep testing and teaching apart, they have been tightly interwoven for their mutual feedback; that is, tests reveal how far a teaching program has met it goals and, in turn,

teaching is supposed to give boost to tests' results (Heaton, 1988). Such a close link between these two makes a thorough investigation of the notions inevitable.

Closely related to the focus of this study, however, is testing, and test specification in particular. Specification by itself is not a new concept in language testing. As early as 1929, Ruch introduced the idea of test specification in educational and psychological assessment (Gopalan and Davidson, 2000). In Ruch's opinion, the term has been borrowed from industry and can be defined as follows: to provide an efficient generative blueprint by which many similar instances of the same assessment task can be generated (Davidson and Lynch, 2002).

What is emphasized in this definition is a "generative blueprint"; that is, a productive set of activities done before designing a test. Looking back into the history of language testing, one can find many references to such a blueprint (Brindley and Wigglesworth, 1997; Bachman and Palmer, 1996; Kopriva, 2008; Harrison, 1983; Davies, 1990; Alderson, 2000). Among others, Bachman (1990) has proposed a comprehensive framework for test method facets incorporating various categories such as facets of environment, test rubric, and input. He, then, made some modifications on this model (Bachman & Palmer 1996).

At the heart of all tables of specification or blueprints resides a common purpose to empower test developers to construct fair, objective, reliable, and valid tests. It has long been a subject of controversy that whether good teachers are good testers or they need some additional qualifications. Every now and then, schools, institutes, testing centers, and of this kind showed interest in non-teacher-made tests or standardized tests in other words. Lack of consideration for different contexts of testing and overlooking learner related and environmental variables made experts of the field to come up with a better way out of this dissatisfaction. To this end, a consensus has been reached to make teachers qualified for professional testing skills. Consequently, various testing plans were developed to equip teachers with rudimentary musts of test construction. If followed carefully, such blueprint s could lend teachers a big hand to come over testing problems to the extent possible.

It can be stated that one of the most important reasons for proposing table of specification has been teachers' lack of attention to the methods of testing. What is commonly practiced by instructors is overemphasizing the trait to be measured while no due heed is paid to appropriate ways of testing that trait. There is a wealth of research at hand that vividly shows the severe and

undeniable effect of testing method on tests' results (Kobayashi, 2002; Brown, 2003; Jafarpur, 2003; Kim, 2009; In'nami & Koizimi, 2009).

It goes without saying that grammar has always been an indispensable part of language tests, either high stake proficiency tests such as TOEFL and GRE, placement tests like those used in language institutes across the world, or many other kinds of testing administered to fulfill a specific purpose here and there. There are various methods for testing grammar regularly practiced by language teachers; for instance, Multiple Choice (MC) test in which students choose among from different distracters, Completion questions that require students to complete grammatical structures, and Essay Type questions that require composition on the part of testees. Furthermore, there are two general types of tests, namely, speed tests and power tests. Lu and Sireci (2007) define the speediness as "the situation where the time limits on a standardized test do not allow substantial numbers of examinees to fully consider all test items. He goes on to introduce this speediness as a severe threat to test validity when the test is not intended to measure the speed of responding, say, in power tests. By contrast, power tests are to evaluate testees' mastery of a specific trait when sufficient time provided for all test takers to attempt all items (Bachman, 1990).

An often neglected crucial point that all test developers must bear in mind is specifying the degree of speed and power in their tests in order to allocate an appropriate time for them (Bachman, 1990). If unnoticed, this flaw can drastically affect testees' performance in a negative way; that is to say, in power tests, some test takers who are already well master on the trait would not be able to manifest it in the test because of an inappropriate restricted time allocation, and conversely, in speed tests unfair account of testees' performance would be attained as a result of improper extended time allotment.

There is also a very delicate aspect of speeded tests mostly overlooked if ever understood by test constructors which I prefer to call *item presentation time*. Here, a sharp distinction must be made between the time spent on receiving or reading the input or stimulus, for example the time spent on reading stems and distracters of an MC test of grammar which is the very focus of this study, and the time consumed to retrieve information from memory, i.e. the amount of time needed for processing and bringing to the mind the answer to a previously received or read item or stimulus. Generally such a line is not drawn between these two different concepts and, hence,

mostly the results are contaminated with some extraneous factors to the tests like the speed of reading.

This study, after all, relying on Bachman's test method facets, delves into the facets of time allotment and length of stems in speed tests and their possible correlation with item difficulty when measuring part of language knowledge, in this case grammar, via MC tests. Here, the author attempts to figure out whether there is any sort of interplay between item difficulty and language learners' performance on speed test of grammar in the presence of two different types of stems, i.e. short stem items (SSI) and long stem items (LSI).

Background to the study

Testing as a ubiquitous phenomenon in education has long been researched from different perspectives. If considering Bachman and Palmer's exhaustive test method facet model (1996) and refer back to the history of testing, one would find a huge number of research projects carried out on these facets and categories hitherto. Needless to say that "items" are building blocks of any test. Item by itself is just recently but comprehensively defined by Osterlind (1990):

A test item in an examination of mental attributes is a unit of measurement with a stimulus and a prescriptive form for answering; and, it is intended to yield a response from an examinee from which performance in some psychological construct (such as knowledge, ability, predisposition, or trait) may be inferred (3).

This definition of the term seems to be very encompassing for it incorporates the nature of item and its required (prescribed) answer, and the purpose for which the item is formed, no matter educational, psychological, or any other purposes. Of course, items may appear in various formats requiring different behaviors on the part of testees but great care must be taken when combining different types of items in a test (Wainerand &Thissen, 1992).

Constructing test items by no means has been an easy task but an "art, art, and more art" (Popham, 1984, p. 40). It is proposed by some scholars that tests deeply have roots in psychology and hinge on a "psychological construct" (Cronbach, 1971; Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Messick, 1975). This psychological construct reveals, in a way, individuals behavior, accordingly. Item construction has adopted both traditional and modern test theories throughout its history. Modern

test theories typically put stress on mathematical models such as item response theory which is just occasionally observed by classical theories (Birnbaum, 1968; Crocker & Algina, 1986; Hambleton, Swaminathan, & Rogers, 1991; Lord & Novick, 1968; Thorndike, 1982; Weiss & Yoes, 1991; Wright & Stone, 1979).

There are several assumptions enumerated for a mathematical model of item construction:

- The Assumption of Unidimensionality for Items (Muliak, 1972; Samejima, 1974; Reckase, 1986)
- The Assumption of Local Independence for Items (McDonald, 1980; Hambleton & Swaminathan1985; Lord,1952)
- The Assumption of Item Characteristic Curves (Nunnally, 1978)

It has been purported that these assumptions configure the skeleton of any test items and needed to be considered when constructing tests of any formats.

One of the well-known item formats is multiple choice items comprising of a stem triggering a correct response among alternatives given as the possible answers to choose from. Multiple - choice (MC) tests are vastly investigated. According to Haladyna and Downing (1989b), MC formats generally yield more content validity and, therefore, better test score interpretations. Moreover, in praising the merits of MC tests, Nitko (1983, p. 193) advanced that "among the various types of response choice items, the multiple-choice item can be used to test a greater variety of instructional objectives". Maybe it is because of this flexibility that MC tests are widely popular among teachers and test developers. In addition, Hambleton (1996) stresses the psychometric standards for these tests mostly neglected by test developers.

There are, however, some criticism on MC test like restricting the response type to merely selection while disvaluing composition of any sort and the notorious guessing factor permanently affecting the test results. In a study Kubinger and Christian (2007) put forth some suggestions to minimize the guessing effect as much as possible. In their research, Kubinger and Christian made use of a pragmatic approach instead of popular item response theory (IRT). Downing (2005) in an interesting study investigated the effect of flawed items in MC tests on pass-fail outcomes and students' scores. He found that the flawed items did bring about some unwanted consequences like medical students' failing the course. In support of these findings, mention can be made of Mehrens and Lehmann (1991) who found many deficits in teacher's made tests as well as Jozefowicz (2002) who confirms the existence of many such flawed tests in medical schools.

Related to the focus of this study is the work done by Yanagawa and Green (2007). They inquired about the possible impact of three different MC test formats on students' listening comprehension performance. In so doing they applied these test formats: (a) allowing test takers to preview both the question stem and answer options prior to listening; (b) allowing test takers to preview only the answer options; and (c) allowing preview of the question stems, but not answer options (Yanagawa & Green, 2007). The results showed that there are some differences in performances in that the second format (i.e. b) culminated in significantly lower scores in the face of the other two formats. These findings are strongly in line with some previous research projects (Littlewood, 1981; Ur, 1984; Mendelsohn, 1995; Vandergrift, 1999).

It is not less informative to examine non-educational tests administered elsewhere like clinics, hospitals, and so on. Bischof et al. (2005) gave two versions of the alcohol use disorders identification test (AUDIT) with varied item sequence randomly applied to patients derived from a sample of general practitioners (GP) patients. They realized that the sequence upon which items of the AUDIT were presented influenced the report of drinking patterns and symptoms of alcohol use disorders in GP patients.

Despite much research on test method facets, MC tests, grammar test (Bachman and Palmer, 1996), item construction, and other aspects language testing, there is little (if any) literature on the length of stems in MC tests of grammar. This paucity of research together with the vital role of the issue makes deeper investigations of this area obligatory. Hence, the present study attempts to delve into the subject matter to the extent possible.

Method

Participants

This study was conducted in a well-established language institute in Shahrekord, Iran. The participants were a group of intermediate English language learners, 20 students to be exact, randomly chosen from among a population of 85 intermediate students. In this sample, males comprised 60% of the subjects, i.e. 12 people, while females formed 40%; that is, 8 people.

All participants were roughly at the same level of proficiency and with the average of 17.8 in age. Roughly, all of the learners were busy continuing their education at high schools and, in few cases, universities at the time of conducting the research.

Instruments

Top Notch Placement Test:

To make sure that students are qualified for and fit to a certain level, Top Notch Placement Test is regularly administered by the language institute authorities prior to commencing any terms or courses. The author relied on this test to make certain that participants are all from the same level of proficiency, viz. intermediate.

Modified MC test of grammar :

For the sake of developing a valid and reliable test of grammar, the researcher made use of well-known English language test banks such as Nelson test battery (Fowler & Coe, 1978). To meet the requirements of the project, some modifications were made though cautiously.

Doing research projects has never been an easy task and this one is no exception, however. As the nature of study demanded, all measures needed to be taken to find a homogenous sample in different respects, e.g. education, age, level of proficiency, and socio-economical background. Thus, attempts were made to control these variables.

That the people living in the same neighborhood, having the same job with more or less equal salaries fall into the same social class, not only does not sound odd but fairly conceivable. Having, therefore, resolved the issue of socio-economical background, the author tried to come over other issues of homogeneity. To this end, he picked out an age-bound language institute in which students were grouped into different levels based on first their proficiency level and then their age group. As a result, two other facets of homogeneity, namely age and proficiency level, were controlled.

Random sampling was done when these extraneous variables to the study were curbed. Much care was taken to ensure that all students have equal chance of taking part in the study. The participants were all picked out from intermediate proficiency level and comprised roughly one fourth of the total population, i.e. 20 out of 85 intermediate language learners.

Students, then, were notified of the upcoming grammar test. After performing all testing rituals, the tester announced that the test was a speed test and test takers needed to observe the time limit, 10 minutes to be exact, before they started the test. Testees were summoned after a couple of weeks' time-interval to take another test. Here, the same speed test was given to them but all in a new mantle of a power test. They were given a reasonable time of 30 minutes to go over all the questions.

It is worth mentioning that the test has been an MC test of grammar comprised of 30 items with lengthy stems appearing every other question. It must be added that stems including more than 20 (both function and content) words were regarded as lengthy. A crucial characteristic of the test has been its item difficulty. As mentioned, the test included two types of items; one with lengthy stem and lower item difficulty for they were chosen from the lower levels of proficiency, and the other with short stem and supposedly higher index of difficulty. Actually the purpose for which the test was administered the second time was mainly to confirm the assumed item difficulty. Answers were recorded in the answer sheets provided. Note that the test validity was approved by some professors at Shiraz University.

Data analysis

Two compute programs, namely, SPSS and MATLAB were applied in order to analyze the data obtained from the two tests. Firstly, T-test results were achieved via SPSS. Here, the scores of both ST and PT were given to be analyzed. This has been done to find out if there is any significant difference between students' performances on the two tests. Level of significance was considered at $p < 0.05$. Also MATLAB 7 was used to draw a bar graph and a diagram graphically representing two sets of scores. The purpose was to compare visually students' scores as the time matters for some.

Results

In the following the results obtained from administration of both tests along with some information about characteristics of the participants and the tests are summarized in tables I to III and the proceeding graph and diagram. These findings are delved into afterwards.

Table 1 General Characteristics of the Participants and the Test

Num. of par.	Males	Females	Age mean	Num. of test Items	Num. of SSI	Num LSI
20	*12*	*8*	*17.8*	30	15	15
	60%	*40%*			50%	50%

This table depicts the overall number of participants (20 people), the proportion of male and females (60% & 40% respectively), and the age average of the participants (17.8). To say more, it must be stated that due to the very likely dissimilar patterns of cognitive processes of different age groups, the author did his best to pick up a sample form a single age group to the extent

possible. The table also gives us some general information about the test features such as total number of items included (30), number of short stem items (SSI) of the test (15 = 50%), and tests lengthy stem items (LSI) which comprises half of the test items (i.e. 15 = 50%).

Note that the number of SSIs is equal to the LSIs to give students equal chance of answering either type of the items. Moreover, LSIs appeared every other item to prevent unwanted consequences like probable testees' boredom after answering few lengthy items one after the other at the beginning of the test and its possible effects on the rest of items, time considerations, and answering likelihood issues.

Table 2 Frequency Counts of the Two Tests

Tests	**Total Num. of Items**	**Num. of Ans. Items**	**Num. of UI**	**Num. of SSI Ans.**	**Num. of LSI Ans.**	**SSI Cor. Ans.**	**LSI Cor. Ans.**
Speed Test	*600*	*361*	*239*	287*	74*	185*	73*
Power Test	600	600	0	300	300	187*	285*
Total							

Based on Table II, only 361 items (≈60%) of the speed test (ST) were answered while all questions were provided with an answer in the second administration of the test as a power test (PT). Out of the answered items in the ST, 287 items (≈ 80%) were SSIs and just 74 items (≈ 20%) had lengthy stems. Correctly answered short stem items (SSIs) and lengthy stem items (LSIs) show the disputable figures of 185 (i.e. ≈ 64% of answered SSI) and 73 (i.e. 98.6% of answered LSI) in the ST and no less arguable figures of 187 (≈ 62%) and 285 (95%) in the PT correspondingly.

This frequency outline represents some striking information worthy of careful consideration. Of course quite acceptable and realistic it is to think that test takers would respond to more items in PTs than STs, but the thinkable point is the number of SSIs answered compared to LSIs. Given statistics states that students have been far more willing to go for SSIs than LSIs (viz. out of each set of 5 answered items, four tended to be SS and only one was LS. Whatever justification one may put forth for this proportion, inclusion of the following reasons seems unavoidable from testees' points of view:

- That short stem items need less time to answer than lengthy stem items
- That reading and comprehending SSIs is much less demanding than that of LSIs
- That SSIs must be easier to answer than LSIs

The first vindication triggers the issue of mental and cognitive processes involved in retrieving information from long term memory when answering a stimulus (here questions) and the speed of such processes. The conception that it takes a shorter time to remember the answer to an SSI in comparison with answering LSIs is widely open to criticism. This misconception most likely emanates from the fact that people rarely differentiate between the time they spend on receiving the stimulus via whatever means (e.g. reading) and the time it takes to bring back information from memory to answer that received stimulus. There is no firm evidence to prove that students spend more time to answer LSIs when the input is fully grasped.

The second argument which centers upon reading complexities of longer stretches of words, however, is well documented. It is no longer blurred with ambiguity that our short term memory has a limited capacity in recalling (Carrol, 2005); therefore, the longer the string of words presented in stems or distracters, the heavier the burden on working memory (Carrol, 2005). Lengthy stems or questions though justifiable when the purpose has to do with reading comprehension skills mainly, would drastically harm tests validity if the examined skills are other than reading comprehension, say, grammar (Lu and Sireci, 2007). Thus, a speed MC test of grammar incorporating lengthy stems would surely benefit fast readers and greatly disadvantage those slow in reading because the latter group waste more time struggling with reading complexities and, hence, shorter time to go over more items. This problem can, in a way, be solved by thorough investigation of previously proposed "item presentation time". If controlled carefully, this factor can very positively increase the validity of speeded tests by ensuring that most of the time spent on a test, was allocated to retrieval process rather than extraneous factors to the test like the speed of reading when the test's focus is other than reading skills. Take all this into consideration, in such speeded grammar tests, the test constructor can, for example, present the items through picturization. This would exclude reading speed factor and give an equal chance to all testees to spend their precious time on bringing back information from memory.

Finally, the third explanation raised above seems to be but a fossilized misunderstanding. This claim resides at the heart of item difficulty fully elucidated in the following. Times happen when one advances an idea about something without having a touch upon it and the same largely holds true for item difficulty index. To clarify this, take a glance at table III below and its relevant account provided afterwards. For the time being, you just need to look at the number of SSIs correctly answered and weigh it against LSIs answered correctly in both ST and PT. As is

illustrated in the table, out of all answered items, approximately 64% of SSIs and 99% of LSIs were correctly answered. These findings imply some interesting points. Above all, it shows that despite large number of SSIs answered in the ST, not a good proportion of items was responded correctly. This becomes even more interesting when noticing that the proportion remains roughly fixed in the subsequent PT (62%). It also depicts that though students sporadically attempted LSIs, they answered them correctly for the most part (99% in ST and 95% in PT). Note that these figures also connote that in the face of simplicity of LSIs, there is some other (mostly psychological) factors which impede students from choosing LSIs to answer and not the other way round.

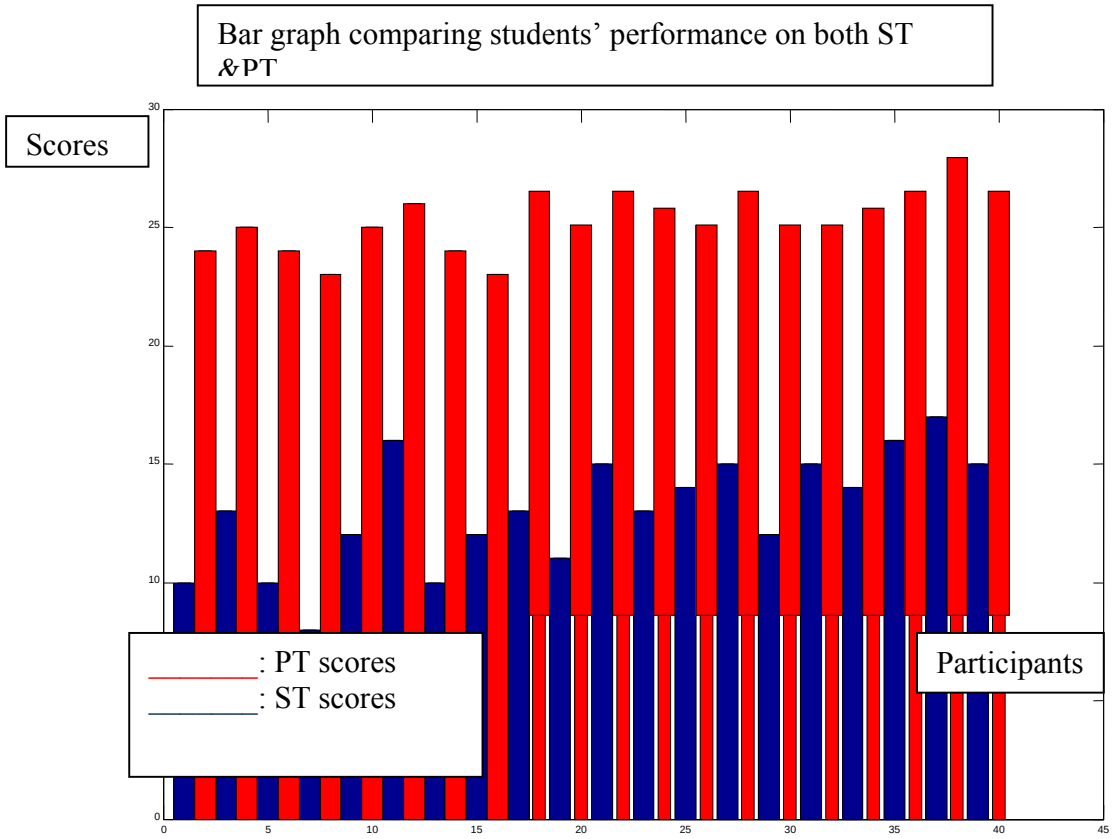
Table 3 ST and PT Results and Their Corresponding Item Difficulty (ID) Indices

Tests	Max.	Min.	Range	Mean	SD	Sig.	t	Mean ID of SSI	Mean ID of LSI
ST	17	8	9*	13.05	2.147			0.376	0.756*
PT	27	23	4*	24.3	1.129			0.33	0.05*
STPT						0.00	18.864		

This table summarizes the descriptive statistics of both ST and PT, important T-test results and means of item difficulty (ID) for SSIs and LSIs. Here, the maximum scores for the ST and PT are 17 and 27 severally. As the range for the speed test shows (i.e. 9), scores are widely scattered (figure 1) though the case is different with the PT with the range of 4. Mean scores reveal a significant difference between both tests and the standard deviation measures once more give boost to scores dispersant in the ST (2.147) and scores congruity in the PT (1.129). With regard to item difficulty, some contradictory outcomes were achieved; that is, calculated means for item difficulty of LSIs in the ST and PT are poles apart (viz. 0.756 in the ST and 0.05 in the PT).

These findings are in need of some clarification to be made. Firstly, that the scores increased highly in the PT compared to the ST, and that the mean scores are meaningfully different are completely in line with the expectations. Needless to say that as there is more time provided for the students in PTs than in STs, they would be able to try more items and obtain higher scores. The raise in scores is pictorially illustrated and readily perceived by referring to the following bar graph and diagram (Bar Graph 1 and Figure 1). The next questionable point can be the range

measures and SDs of both tests. It is expected from a valid and reliable test to repeat more or less the same results or at least range of scores in the second administration when practice effect controlled. Nevertheless, scores of the PT tend to be much more homogeneous than those of the speed test signaling the role of some intervening factors involved in tests' administrations, namely, time limitation, diversity of reading levels of mastery, and cognitive factors to enumerate but a few. Finally and most importantly, the contradiction between item difficulty means of LSIs in the ST and PT might be explained by rely on the fact that what is taken for granted by language learners as difficult in STs may not really be so and even the reverse holds true sometimes. However acting based on some misconceptions seems to be very simplistic and might bring about unwelcomed consequences. To capitalize on this point, guess what the testees' performance on the ST would be if they were told that lengthy stem items are much easier to answer than the short stem items.



This graph simply represents each participant's scores on both ST (blue bars) and PT (red bars). What can be inferred in the first look is the overall better performance of testees' on the PT and a quick contrast between their two scores.

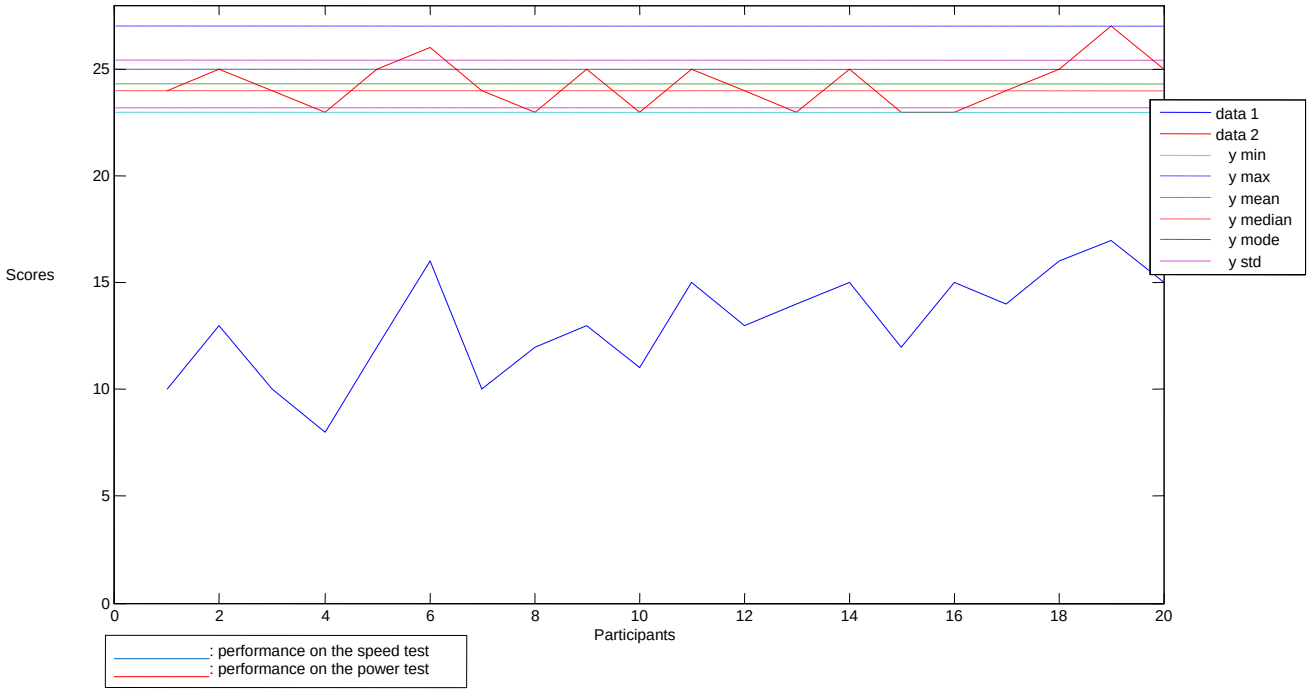


Figure 1: Testees' Performance on the Speed and Power Tests

This figure, like the previous graph, illustrates graphically the how of students' attempts in both ST and PT. Moreover, some descriptive statistics are shown on the diagram. Interestingly, there is no intersection between the two diagrams and they are totally separate. One can notice more ups and downs in the ST diagram signifying somehow little homogeneity among scores of this test and the straightness of PT diagram as well connoting some sort of congruity among its scores.

Conclusion

At the outset of this study, it was emphasized that meeting the requirements of test method facet or test specification in other words is a must for test developers. It was then pinpointed that there is a colossal flaw with present speeded test which can be termed *item representation time.* The author went through the history of testing, item construction, and several works done in the domain of MC tests and their typical features afterwards. The gap in the literature signifying the dearth of studies on stem length in MC speed tests (STs) obligated the conduction of present research. The results of the study indicated that lengthy stems in an MC test of grammar would

seriously endanger the validity of such tests and the attained results would not fully and reliably show students' true command of the trait being tested. The reason, as stated in previous sections, lies in the contamination of speeded test with side effects of lengthy stems when they heavily build on extraneous factors to the tested skill (e.g. reading skills).

The study puts forth several suggestions for pedagogical purposes: First, test developers and teachers must specify to what degree their tests are speed or power test and make the succeeding decisions accordingly. Secondly, item stems that are short and quickly manageable would best suit the tests with a focus other than reading comprehension such as grammar tests. The third implication is that it can be quite fruitful to devise some methods to minimize item representation time. If actualized, such methods, like picturization, would elicit roughly the exact time of retrieval processing and not something else. And finally, in the case of high stake tests where the results do influence testees' life, tests must be designed in a way that nobody has a privilege over the others except for their mere mastery on the trait.

References

Alderson, J. C. (2000). *Assessing reading.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bachman L. & Palmer A. (1996). *Language testing in practice.* London: OUP.

Bachman, L. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing.* London: OUP.

Birmbaum, A. (1968). *Some latent trait models and their use in inferring an examinee's ability.* In F. M. Lord, & M. R. Novick (Eds.), *Statistical theories of mental test scores.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Bischof, G., Reinhardt, S., Grothues, J., Dybek, I., Meyer, C., Hapke, U., John, U., & Rumpf, H. J. (2005). Effects of item sequence on the performance of the AUDIT in general practices. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence, 79*, 373–377.

Brindley, G., & Wigglesworth, G. (1997). *Issues in language test design and delivery.* Sydney: Macquarie University.

Brown, A. (2003). Interviewer variation and the co-construction of speaking proficiency. *Language Testing,* 20*,* 1-25.

Carroll, D. W. (1986). *Psychology of language*. Belmont: Wadsworth.

Crocker, L., & Algina, J. (1986). *Introduction to classical and modern test theory.* New York:

Hold, Rinehart, and Winston.

Cronbach, L. J. (1971). *Test validation.* In R. L. Thorndike (Ed.), *Educational measurement* (2nd ed.). Washington, DC: American Council on Education.

Cronbach, L. J., & Meehl, P. E. (1955). Construct validity in psychological tests. *Psychological Bulletin, 52*, 281-302.

Davidson, F., & Lynch, K. B. (2002). *A teacher's guide to writing and using language test specifications.* New Haven: Yale University Press.

Davies, A. (1990). *Principles of language testing*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Downing, M. S. (2005). The effects of violating standard item writing principles on tests and students: The consequences of using flawed test items on achievement examinations in medical education. *Advances in Health Sciences Education, 10*,133–143.

Gopalan, S., and Davidson, F. (2000). The feasibility of using historical reverse engineering to study the evolution of foreign language test specifications. Paper presented at the Second Annual Meeting of the Midwest Association of Language Testers (MWALT), Iowa City, May 2000.

Haladyna, T. M., & Downing, S. M. (1989). The validity of a taxonomy of multiple-choice item writing rules. *Applied Measurement in Education, 2(1)*, 51-78.

Hambleton, R. K. (1996). *Advances in assessment models, methods, and practices.* In D. C. Berliner & R. C. Calfee (Eds.) *Handbook of educational psychology.* New York: Simon & Schuster Macmillan.

Hambleton, R.K.,Swaminathan, H.,& Rogers, H.J. (1991). *Fundamentals of item response theory.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Harrison, A. (1983). *A language testing handbook*. Bethleham, PA: ELTS.

Heaton, J. B. (1988). *Writing English language tests*. London: Longman Group.

In'nami, Y., & Koizimi, R. (2009). A meta-analysis of test format effects on reading and listening test performance: Focus on multiple-choice and open-ended formats. *Language Testing, 26*, 219-244.

Jafarpur, A. (2003). Is the test constructor a facet? *Language Testing,* 20*,* 57-87.

Jozefowicz, R.F., Koeppen, B.M., Case, S., Galbraith, R., Swanson, D. & Glew, H. (2002). The quality of in-house medical school examinations. *Academic Medicine*, 77, 156–161.

Kim, Y. (2009). An investigation into native and non-native teachers' judgments of oral English

performance: A mixed methods approach. *Language Testing,* 26, 187-217.

Kobayashi, M. (2002). Method effects on reading comprehension test performance: Text organization and response format. *Language testing, 19(2),* 193-220.

Kobayashi, M. (2004). Investigation of test method effect: Text organization and response format: A response to Chen, 2004. *Language Testing* 21, 235-44.

Kopriva, R. (2008). *Improving testing for English language learners.* NY: Routledge.

Kubinger, D. K., & Christian, H.G. (2007). Item difficulty of multiple choice tests dependant on different item response formats: An experiment in fundamental research on psychological assessment. *Psychology science, 49(*4*),* 361-374.

Littlewood, W. (1981). *Communicative language teaching: An introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lord, F. M., & Novick, M. R. (1968). *Statistical theories of test scores.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Lu, Y., & Sireci, S. (2007). Validity issues in test speediness. *Educational Measurement, Issues and Practice, 26(*4*)*, 29-37.

Mehrens, W.A. & Lehmann, I.J. (1991). *Measurement and evaluation in education and psychology*. New York: Harcourt Brace.

Mendelsohn, D. (1995). Applying learning strategies in the second/foreign language listening comprehension lesson. In: Mendelsohn, D., Rubin, J. (Eds.), *A guide for the teaching of second language listening*. Dominie Press, San Diego, 113–131.

Messick, S. (1975). The standard problem: Meaning and values in measurement and evaluation. *American Psychologist,* 11, 263-272.

Muliak, S. A. (1972). *The foundations of factor analysis.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Nitko, A. J. (1983). *Educational tests and measurement: An introduction.* New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory (2nd ed.).* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Osterlind, S. J. (1990). Toward a uniform definition of a test item. *Educational Research Quarterly, 14(*4*),* 2-5.

Popham, W. J. (1984). *Specifying the domain of content or behaviors.* In R. A. Berk (Ed.). A *guide to criterion-referenced test construction.* Baltimore: Johns Hopkins.

Reckase, M. D. (1986, April). *The discriminating power of items that measure more than one*

dimension. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

Samejima,F. (1974). Normal ogive model on the continuous response level in the multidimensional latent space. *Psychometrika 39*, 111-121.

Thorndike, R. L. (1982). *Applied psychometrics.* Boston: Houghton- Mifflin.

Ur, P. (1984). *Teaching listening comprehension.* Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Vandergrift, L. (1999). Facilitating second language listening comprehension: Acquiring successful strategies. *ELT Journal 53,* 168–176.

Wainer, H., & Thissen, D. (1992). *Combining multiple-choice and constructed response test scores: Toward a Marxist theory of test construction.* Princeton, NJ: Educational testing Service.

Weiss, D. J. & Yoes, M. E. (1991). *Item Response Theory.* In R. K. Hambleton & J. N. Zaal (Eds.). *Advances in educational and psychological testing.* Norwell, MA: Kluwer.

Wright, B. D., & Stone, M. H. (1979). *Best test design.* Chicago, IL: Mesa Press.

Yanagawa, K., & Green, A. (2008). To show or not to show: The effects of item stems and answer options on performance on a multiple-choice listening comprehension test. *System 36,* 107–122.

Title

On the Role of Consciousness-Raising Tasks in Learning Grammar: A Learner Perspective

Authors

Abbas Ali Rezaei (Ph.D.)
University of Tehran, Tehran, Iran

Rasoul Mohammad Hosseinpur (Ph.D. candidate)
University of Qom, Qom, Iran

Bio data

Dr. Abbas Ali Rezaei Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics from the University of Exeter, England, currently assistant professor at the Faculty of Foreign Languages, University of Tehran. He teaches some courses at BA, MA, and PhD levels and has supervised a number of theses and dissertations. He has also published some articles in several journals.

Rasoul Mohammad Hosseinpur currently a Ph.D. candidate in TEFL at Allame Tabatabaii University and a lecturer in applied linguistics at Qom University. He has over 10 years' experience of working as an EFL practitioner. He has published some articles in several journals. His research areas include second language writing pedagogy, interlanguage pragmatics, and teaching methods.

Abstract

The present investigation was designed to study a group of Iranian EFL learners' attitudes to learning grammar through the use of two types of Consciousness-Raising (C-R) tasks. In the meantime, the effects of the learners' FI/D cognitive style, proficiency level, and gender on their task preference were taken into account. A total of 124 students, 50 males and 74 females, served as the subjects for this study. First, an inductive and a deductive grammar C-R task were administered to the participants. Then, a task evaluation questionnaire was employed to examine the learners' attitudes towards, and opinions about, the tasks. GEFT was used to measure the subjects' FI/D cognitive style and NQCT served for determining the participants' proficiency levels. One-way ANOVA and Pearson Chi-Square Tests were performed on the data to test the hypotheses

of the study. The results indicated that the participants preferred deductive C-R task over inductive one and viewed it to be more useful. The subjects' FI/D cognitive style, proficiency level, and gender did not appear to affect their task preference or attitudes to the tasks.

Keywords: Consciousness-raising, inductive C-R task, deductive C-R task, FI cognitive style, FD cognitive style

Introduction

The question of whether or not and how grammar should be taught has long been a controversial issue in the field of language teaching. If we have a cursory look at the history of language pedagogy, we will find out that once teaching grammar was the backbone of this field and in its heydays it was highly appreciated. But later it was believed that explicit presentation of grammar was inefficient; therefore, grammar was ignored by most researchers and practitioners.

Some researchers like Krashen (1982) maintain that grammar is acquired naturally if learners are exposed to sufficient comprehensible input, whereas formal instruction of grammar will lead to learning which, according to him, should not be the focus of instruction. On the other hand, Doughty (2003), for example, reviews the related literature on the issue and concludes that formal instruction of grammar is necessary because some aspects of grammar can not be acquired simply through exposure alone and evidence in all four major domains of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), namely, SLA processes, SLA route, SLA rate, and level of ultimate second language attainment suggests that second language instruction is effective.

In spite of all ups and downs in teaching grammar, a compelling body of evidence has been accumulated recently supporting the position that formal instruction of language properties is related to the subsequent acquisition of those properties (Doughty and Williams; Long and Robinson; Norris and Ortega; and Spada as cited in DeKeyser 2003). These findings support the position of formal instruction, but never imply a regression to the old methods of grammar presentation.

Therefore, several lines of research have recently emerged which tend to explore ways of integrating instruction of problematic grammar forms within a communicative framework. Form–focused instruction (FFI), discovery learning, input enhancement, noticing, and

consciousness–raising (C-R) are some of these approaches. They vary in some ways but all share the feature that they do not start with explicit presentation of a rule. Rather, the learner is prompted in some way to discover for himself/herself how the language works.

Background to the study

There are two major theoretical positions in SLA research about the role of FFI in language learning: the *interface* and *non-interface* position. Each position is based on a particular view about the relationship between implicit and explicit knowledge.

According to DeKeyser (2003) the *non-interface position*, as advocated by some researchers like Krashen, holds that implicit and explicit language knowledge are stored in two separate mental systems and there is no relation between these two knowledge stores and learned knowledge will always remain in explicit knowledge mental system and can never be converted into acquired knowledge used in spontaneous conversation. Consequently, advocates of the non-interface position believe that exposure is more effective than instruction.

In contrast, the *interface position* states that it is possible, with time, for explicit knowledge of grammar gained from instruction to become converted into implicit knowledge that can be used fluently in unplanned every day language use.

Consciousness-Raising (C-R)

C-R, like many innovations in the field of second language pedagogy, originated from dissatisfaction with ideas that preceded it. The Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (Richards and Schmidt, 2002) provides us with a comprehensive definition of C-R:

> … in teaching, techniques that encourage learners to pay attention to language form in the belief that an awareness of form will contribute indirectly to language acquisition. Techniques include having students infer grammatical rules from examples, compare differences between two or more different ways of saying something, observe differences between a learner's use of a grammar item and its use by native speakers. A consciousness-raising approach is contrasted with traditional approaches to the teaching of grammar (e.g. drilling, sentence practice, sentence combining), in which the goal is to establish a rule or instill a grammatical pattern directly. (p. 109)

C-R constitutes an approach to grammar teaching which is compatible with current thinking about how learners acquire L2 grammar. It also constitutes an approach that accords with progressive views about education as a process of discovery through problem-solving tasks. In the C-R approach, Ranalli (2001) asserts that, the emphasis is not on explicit rule-giving and immediate practice, but instead on drawing learners' attention to formal features of linguistic forms, with the goal of delayed, versus immediate, mastery.

According to Ranalli (2001) in important ways C-R approach goes directly counter to many traditional educational ideas: it puts more responsibility on learners' shoulders, removes the central role of the teacher in the classroom, and makes no promises regarding when (or whether) the learners will master the content. C-R can be seen as guided problem solving. Learners are encouraged to notice particular features of the language, to draw conclusions from what they notice, and to organize their view of language in the light of the conclusions they have drawn.

As Ellis (2002, p.168) states: "C-R involves an attempt to equip the learner with an understanding of a specific grammatical feature, to develop declarative rather than procedural knowledge of it". He believes that C-R does not directly lead to implicit knowledge, which is intuitive and procedural and is used in face-to-face real conversation. Rather, C-R develops explicit knowledge of grammatical features, which, subsequently, helps learners to acquire implicit knowledge.

C-R and SLA research

C-R activities are rooted in SLA research and are compatible with the current issues in the field of language pedagogy. In the literature on *learner readiness* and *timing,* there seems to be general agreement that there is a natural developmental sequence for a learner's interlanguage.

Pienemann (1985) asserts that learners' interlanguages tend to develop along predictable paths. He proposes that some structures are developmental and are acquired in a specific sequence. It appears that learners possess some kind of "built-in-syllabus" that regulates how and when they acquire particular grammatical structures.

In his "Natural Order Hypothesis", Krashen (1987) states that rules of language are acquired in a predictable order, but he claims that this order is independent of the order in which rules are taught in language classes.

According to Pienemann's (1985) *teachability hypothesis,* learners with FFI pass through the same stages of development as learners with no FFI. It appears, then, that FFI can not (or do not easily) alter the learners *'internal syllabus'*. C-R proponents (e.g. Ellis, 1997), however, claim that the activities usually performed in C-R do not affect the *'route'* of acquisition, rather, these activities affect the *'rate'* of acquisition. Route refers to the transitional stages that L2 learners go through in acquiring properties of the second language. Rate refers to the time it takes to pass through them. It is assumed that almost all learners go through the same stages in acquiring some L2 structures, but learners who consciously know the rules seem to be faster than those who do not.

C-R tasks

Current second language acquisition theories view grammar learning as best accomplished when learners primarily focus on 'meaning' rather than 'form'. However, there is also agreement that some attention to form is necessary for learning to take place. But as Skehan (1998) points out language learners are limited language processors who find it difficult to attend to both meaning and form at the same time. For this reason, they need meaning-based tasks that also allow them the opportunity to process language as form.

As Ellis (2003) stipulates, tasks enjoy great attention and popularity in current SLA research and language pedagogy and the study of tasks brings together SLA and language pedagogy. Formal instruction and communicative language teaching can be integrated through the use of grammar tasks designed to promote communication about grammar.

According to Ellis (1997) a C-R task is a pedagogic activity with certain specifications. He maintains that:

> [A C-R Task] is a pedagogic activity where the learners are provided with L2 data in some form and required to perform some operation on or with it, the purpose of which is to arrive at an explicit understanding of some linguistic property or properties of the target language. (P. 160)

C-R tasks, which can be either inductive or deductive, offer an effective means of teaching grammar. In the case of the former, the learner is presented with data and is expected to come up with the explicit rule that underlies the data. In the case of the latter, the learner is taught a rule

which is then used to carry out some task. Ellis (2002, p. 168) states that C-R activities have the following characteristics:

1. There is an attempt to *isolate* a specific linguistic feature for focused attention.
2. The learners are provided with *data* which illustrate the targeted feature and they may also be supplied with an *explicit rule* describing or explaining the feature.
3. The learners are expected to utilize *intellectual effort* to understand the targeted feature.
4. Misunderstanding or incomplete understanding of the grammatical structure by the learners leads to *clarification* in the form of further data and description or explanation.
5. Learners may be required (although this is not obligatory) to, articulate the rule describing the grammatical structure.

The purposes of the present study

The primary purpose of this study is to investigate whether learners prefer inductive or deductive C–R tasks. It is not necessary to repeat that the deductive approach is deeply ingrained in the Iranian psyche, not only in the field of language teaching but also in education in general. And most often in our high schools, mastering the grammatical rules of a textbook is synonymous with covering that textbook. Therefore, it was intended to see whether the subjects would still prefer deductive tasks, when they are offered an alternative, i.e., inductive tasks. Learners' cognitive style, in particular, the idea of field independence/dependence (FI/D) will have some bearing. Abraham (1985) found correlations between field independence and a preference for deductive approaches, and field dependence and a preference for inductive learning. Lesser (as cited in Vicenti–Henio & Torres, 1998) states that "People who share a common cultural background will also share, to a certain degree, common patterns of intellectual abilities, thinking styles, and interests" (P. 137).

Thus, concerning the above-mentioned points, the secondary focus of this paper is on investigating Iranian learners' inductive and deductive C–R task preference on the basis of their FI/D cognitive style. Furthermore, the study is an attempt to investigate the effect of learners'

gender (male or female) and their different proficiency levels (lower–intermediate, intermediate, and upper–intermediate) on their inductive and deductive C–R task preference.

Method

Participants

A total of 124 adult students, 50 males and 74 females who were taking General English Course at Allame Qotb Ravandi Institute, served as the subjects for the present study. Their age ranged between 20 to 35 and they were learning English for different purposes. They were mainly university students, professional people, and housewives.

Instrumentation

To conduct the study, the following instruments were used. A deductive and an inductive grammar C-R task were utilized to make learners familiar with these types of tasks. Moreover, a task evaluation questionnaire was administered to the participants to determine their attitudes towards the tasks. To measure each student's FI/D cognitive style, the Group Embedded Figure Test (GEFT) was employed. Finally, Nelson Quick Check Test (NQCT) was used to determine learners' proficiency levels.

Deductive and Inductive C-R Task

A grammar point suitable for the subjects of the study was selected (Relative Clause), and a deductive and inductive C-R task were designed. There are a lot of C-R tasks available in the literature of C-R (Fotos, 1994; Ellis, 2002; Mohamed, 2004). Therefore, in designing the tasks a great attempt was made to closely follow their format. Both tasks were designed to be performed individually.

Task Evaluation Questionnaire

The task evaluation questionnaire was aimed at examining the learners' attitudes towards, and opinions about, the tasks. It consisted of three questions. After completing the tasks, the learners were asked to say whether they preferred to learn English grammar mostly by Method A (inductive C-R task), Method B (deductive C-R task), or sometimes by Method A and sometimes by Method B. Moreover, the learners were required to write an explanation of what they did/did

not like about it in English (writing in Persian was permitted for the students with lower proficiency levels).

The Group Embedded Figure Test (GEFT)

The other test used in this research is GEFT. This test which is a measure for assessing the learners' degree of FI/D was developed by Oltman, Raskin, and Witkin (1971). In administering this test, the participants are provided with a booklet with simple visual figures embedded inside progressively more complicated visual figures. The participants are expected to locate the hidden simple form or figure in the more complex one in the time limit allowed (12 minutes). There are 18 complex figures in the GEFT, each with an embedded simple figure. Based on the number of correct answers given by the students, their being FD or FI can be determined. The scores on GEFT range from 0 (showing that the leaner is completely FD) to 18 (indicating complete FI).

The first section which has a time limit of 2 minutes includes 7 easy problems for practice, and the items in this section are not included in the total score. The real task begins at the second set and into the third one, where the test takers have to make their challenging inquiries in each 9-itemed set within the time limit of five minutes for each. Those who score above 12 out of 18 are labeled as FI and those with a score of 11 and less than 11 are branded as FD cognitive stylists.

Nelson Quick Check Test (NQCT)

NQCT is a widely used general language multiple-choice proficiency test. This test is used for placement and diagnostic purposes on second and foreign language learners. The test consists of 100 multiple-choice items with sections on grammar, vocabulary, and language functions. Test takers should answer this test in 60 minutes and they are not punished by any negative point for their wrong responses. Each correct answer has one point, making the total score of 100.

Findings

As to the first concern of the present study regarding the learners' inductive/deductive C-R task preferences, the number of the participants who had preferred each task was counted. As it is evident from Table 1 below, from among 124 subjects who had participated in the study, 31

learners (25%) preferred to learn English grammar by task A (inductive C-R task), 68 participant (54.8%) selected task B (deductive C-R task), and the rest of the participants, 25 people (20.2%) preferred to learn English grammar sometimes by using task A and sometimes by using task B.

Table 1: Learners' Task Preference

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	A	31	25.0
	B	68	54.8
	A & B	25	20.2
	Total	124	100.0

Therefore, task B has been preferred by a vast majority of the participants.

Regarding the second question of the study which deals with the role of the learners' FI/D cognitive style in their task preference, it was felt necessary to inspect closely the FI/D learners' task preference.

As it is evident from table 2, from among 56 FI participants, 15 subjects (26.8%) preferred task A, 31 subjects (55.4%) selected task B, and 10 subjects (17.9%) favored both tasks, that is, they would like to learn English grammar sometimes by task A and sometimes by task B. From among 68 subjects who were branded as FD, 16 participants (23.5%) favored task A, 37 participants (54.4%) selected task B, and 15 learners (22.1%) preferred both tasks. A Pearson Chi-Square test was conducted to examine the effect of the learners' FI/D cognitive style on their inductive and deductive C-R task preference. The result of the Pearson Chi-Square test was 0.817 which is more than 0.05 level. Therefore, we can claim that the second null hypothesis of the study was confirmed and the learners' FI/D cognitive style had no effect on their task preference.

Table 2: FI/D Subjects' Task Preferences

			Task			
			A	B	A & B	Total
FI/D	FI	Count	15	31	10	56
		% within FI/D	26.8%	55.4%	17.9%	100.0%
	FD	Count	16	37	15	68
		% within FI/D	23.5%	54.4%	22.1%	100.0%
Total		Count	31	68	25	124
			25.0%	54.8%	20.2%	100.0%

With respect to the third question of the study which asked whether proficiency affects the learners' task preference, it was necessary to divide the students into three proficiency levels. It is worth mentioning that in order to have logical grouping and maintain clear spaces among the groups, the scores of the subjects between 0.3 to 0.6 standard deviations below and above the mean were discarded. As a result, 14 students were excluded from the study and this part of the research was conducted only with 110 participants. Then, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to make sure that the differences among the three groups were significant. The following table illustrates the results:

Table 3; NQCT Task Crosstabulation

			Task			
			A	B	A & B	Total
NQCT	U Inter	Count	8	18	12	38
		% within NQCT	21.1%	47.4%	31.6%	100.0%
	Inter.	Count	9	17	10	36
		% within NQCT	25.0%	47.2%	27.8%	100.0%
	L Inter	Count	10	24	2	36
		% within NQCT	27.8%	66.7%	5.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	27	59	24	110
			24.5%	53.6%	21.8%	100.0%

As table 3 shows, from among 38 participants regarded as upper intermediate, 8 subjects (21.1%) selected task A, 18 participants (47.4%) preferred task B, and 12 learners (31.6%) chose both tasks. From among 36 subjects labeled intermediate, 9 subjects (25.0%) selected task A, 17 participants (47.2%) chose task B, and 10 subjects (27.8%) preferred to learn English grammar by using both tasks. From among 36 learners who were put into the lower intermediate level, 10 learners (27.8%) selected task A, 24 subjects (66.7%) favored task B, and just 2 participants (5.6%) preferred both tasks. Therefore, from among 110 subjects whose scores were taken into consideration to account for the third hypothesis of the study, 27 participants or 24.5% of them selected task A, 59 subjects or 53.6% of them favored task B, and 24 learners or 21.8% of them preferred to learn English grammar by using both inductive and deductive C-R tasks. A Pearson Chi-Square test was run to see whether the learners' proficiency level had any effect on their task preference. The result of the Pearson Chi-Square test was 0.071 which is more than 0.05 level of significance. It was, therefore, confirmed and the learners' proficiency level had no effect on their task preference.

In order to answer the last question which asked about the relationship between the learners' gender and their task preference, a careful analysis of male and female learners' task preference was conducted. The following table demonstrates the result.

Table 4: The Learners' Gender Task Crosstabulation

			Task			
			A	B	A & B	Total
Sex	M	Count	17	24	9	50
		% within Sex	34.0%	48.0%	18.0%	100.0%
	F	Count	14	44	16	74
		% within Sex	18.9%	59.5%	21.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	31	68	25	124
			25.0%	54.8%	20.2%	100.0%

As table 4 reveals, from among 50 male participants of the study, 17 students (34.0%) selected task A, 24 learners (48.0%) chose task B, and 9 participants (18.0%) preferred both tasks. From among 74 female participants, 14 learners (18.9%) selected task A, 44 students (59.5%) favored

task B, and 16 participants (21.6%) preferred both tasks. In order to shed more light on these findings, a Pearson Chi-Square test was employed again. The result of the test was 0.163 which is well above 0.05 level. Therefore, it could be asserted that there is no relationship between the participants' gender and their inductive or deductive C-R task preference.

Conclusion

Based on the results of the investigation, perhaps some conclusions can be drawn. Iranians, and possibly some other nations, are mostly after deductive type of learning. Evidence for the ingrained influence of deductive teaching and learning can be found in our national English curriculum. Iranian students in guidance schools and high schools learn grammar through exemplary sentences and explicit presentation. Deductive learning is widely regarded as the best way to ensure that students are adequately prepared for the important local exams and, to some extent, can guarantee their success in the very tough competition called University Entrance Examination held once a year.

On the other hand, while alternatives such as inductive learning are made known to teachers in their professional training, resistance to using them in the classroom is seen arising from several quarters. One of its reasons is the shift of power from teachers to students implied by inductive learning, which contradicts the traditional power and status of a teacher in the classroom. Furthermore, many people, including most teachers, believe that '*explaining things well'* shows the knowledge and expertise of a teacher, and one of the most common compliments given to a favorite teacher is that she 'explains things well'.

Having completed both inductive and deductive C-R tasks, the participants were presented with a task evaluation questionnaire and were asked to select either favorite task, either inductive C-R task (task A), deductive C-R task (task B), or both inductive and deductive C-R tasks (both A and B tasks). They were also invited to write why they had preferred that particular task type. Those who preferred the deductive approach cited the following reasons respectively as determining factors:

- It is easier to learn and understand English grammar by using task B.

- When I use task B, I am sure that I go the right way to learn grammar and the possibility of being misled is less in this method. But through task A I can not easily make sure that I have come up with the right rule. With task B I am more confident.
- This method is better because we get familiar with the rule. Therefore, we can learn better.
- I have always learned grammar in this way. Most grammar books consist of type B. I am familiar with type B.
- Method B prevents fossilization.

The evaluation of the C-R tasks used for the study by the learners showed that the learners were generally receptive to them. The results indicated that the learners viewed the tasks to be useful in imparting new knowledge about the language. Their writings in questionnaire indicated that the tasks were effective learning tools. On comparing the two task types, the learners regarded deductive C-R tasks as being more effective. This might be due to the fact that deductive approach is deeply rooted in the Iranian psyche.

Concerning the learners' FI/D cognitive style, it came to light that their FI/D cognitive style did not affect their task preference. Based on the results of this study, the learners' proficiency and gender also did not appear to affect their task preference.

As the results of this investigation revealed, most of the participants preferred deductive C-R tasks over inductive C-R ones. Therefore, the following questions remain unanswered:

- Should a teacher who believes in inductive teaching/learning try to persuade her students that deductive learning is less important than what they think it is?
- Should a teacher respect her learners' preferences and feelings and present English grammar as they wish (in this case, deductively)? Is deductive approach of learning grammar more effective for Iranian EFL learners?
- Is there any relationship between a group of learners' cultural background and their intellectual abilities, thinking styles, and interests?

References

Abraham, R. G. (1985). Field independence-dependence and the teaching of grammar. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(4), 689-702.

DeKeyser, R. (2003). Implicit and explicit learning. In Doughty, C. J. & Long, M. H. (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 313-348). Malden: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Doughty, C. J. (2003). Instructed SLA: constraints, compensation, and enhancement. In Doughty, C. J. & Long, M. H. (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 256-310). Malden: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Ellis, R. (1997). *SLA research and language teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2002). Grammar teaching: Practice or consciousness-raising? In Richards, J. C. & Renandya, W. A. (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice.* (pp. 167-174). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Fotos, S. (1994). Integrating grammar instruction and communicative language use through grammar consciousness-raising tasks. *TESOL Quarterly,* 28(2), 323-351.

Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition.* Oxford: Pergamon.

Krashen, S. D. (1987). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition.* Prentice-Hall.

Mohamed, N. (2004). Consciousness-raising tasks: A learner perspective. *ELT Journal,* 58(3), 228-237.

Oltman, P. K., Raskin, E., & Witkin, H. A. (1971). *Group Embedded Figure Test.* Palo Alto, California: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Pienemann, M. (1985). Learnability and syllabus construction. In Hyltenstam, K. & Pienemann, M. (Eds.), *Modeling and assessing second language acquisition.* (pp. 23-75). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Ranalli, J. M. (2001). Consciousness-raising versus deductive approaches to language instruction: A study of learner preferences. Retrieved November 15, 2005 from http://www.cels,bham,ac.uk/resources/essays/Ranalli1,pdf.

Richards, J. C. & Schmidt, R. (2002). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics.* Essex: Longman.

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

Vicenti-Henio, V. & Torres, R. (1998). Field dependence-independence of American Indian students enrolled in secondary Agricultural Education. *Journal of Agricultural Education,* 39(3), 1-10.

Appendix A: Inductive C-R Task (Task A)

1. Look at the following sentences. These sentences contain relative clauses. The relative clauses are in italics, the prepositions are underlined, and the relative pronouns are in bold.
2. You need to work on these sentences carefully. Some of these sentences are correct and some of them are incorrect.
3. Why are incorrect sentences unacceptable?
4. Write down a sentence of your own for each of these rules.

A) The dictionary ***which*** *is on the table* is mine. (Correct)

The dictionary ***who*** *is on the table* is mine. (Incorrect)

The girl ***who*** *is crying* is my sister. (Correct)

The girl ***which*** *is crying* is my sister. (Incorrect)

Explanation of the incorrect sentences: The pronoun …….. is used for people, and the pronoun …….. is used for things.

Your own sentences:

……

B) The boy ***who*** *likes English* speaks well. (Correct)

The boy ***who*** *he likes English* speaks well. (Incorrect)

I like flowers ***which*** *bloom in spring*. (Correct)

I like flowers ***which*** *they bloom in spring*. (Incorrect)

Explanation of the incorrect sentences:

Your own sentence:

……

C) He is the person *from* ***whom*** *I got the letter.* (Correct)

He is the person *from* ***whom*** *I got the letter from.* (Incorrect)

The book *in* ***which*** *you wrote* is mine. (Correct)

The book *in* ***which*** *you wrote in* is mine. (Incorrect)

Explanation of the incorrect sentences: Don't use prepositions both at the …… and at the ……. of the clauses.

Your own sentence:

……

D) These are the books ***which*** *I told you about.* (Correct)

These are the books ***which*** *I told you about them.* (Incorrect)

The man ***who*** *you were talking to* is my uncle. (Correct)

The man ***who*** *you were talking to him* is my uncle. (Incorrect)

Explanation of the incorrect sentences: Don't use personal pronouns at the ……. of the clause.

Your own sentence:

Appendix B: Deductive C-R Task (Task B)

Read the following information about using relative clauses. Then make sentences of your own. The relative clause in each example is in italics. The prepositions are underlined. The relative pronoun is in bold.

A) If the relative pronoun is "which" or "whom", the proposition can be used either at the front of the clause or at the end of the clause.

Example: The house *in* ***which*** *we live* is pink. (Correct)
The house ***which*** *we live in* is pink. (Correct)
That is the person *from* ***whom*** *I got the letter.* (Correct)
That is the person ***whom*** *I got the letter from.* (Correct)

Now write one sentence of your own, using this rule.

B) The proposition cannot be used both at the front of the pronoun and at the end of the clause in the same sentence.

Example: The girl *to* ***whom*** *you gave the message to* is not here. (Incorrect)
The girl ***whom*** *you gave the message to* is not here. (Correct)
The girl *to* ***whom*** *you gave the message* is not here. (Correct)

Now write one sentence of your own, using this rule.

C) If the relative pronoun is "who" or "that", the proposition cannot be placed in front of it, but will need to be used at the end of the clause.

Example: The man *at* ***who*** *I shouted* is deaf. (Incorrect)
The man ***who*** *I shouted at* is deaf. (Correct)
The place *about* ***that*** *Jenny spoke* is Singapore. (Incorrect)
The place ***that*** *Jenny spoke about* is Singapore. (Correct)

Now write one sentence of your own, using this rule.

D) Remember not to repeat pronouns in a relative clause.

Example: These are the books *about* ***which*** *I told you it.* (Incorrect)

These are the books *about* ***which*** *I told you.* (Correct)

The man ***who*** *you were talking to him* is my uncle. (Incorrect)

The man ***who*** *you were talking to* is my uncle. (Correct)

Now write one sentence of your own, using this rule.

Appendix C. Student Questionnaire

Select one of the choices below by ticking (√) the response which is the most appropriate for you. Also write a short explanation for your answer.

When studying grammar in class, I prefer ……

--------- to learn new grammar mostly by method A, because ……

--------- to learn new grammar mostly by method B, because ……

---------- to learn new grammar sometimes by method A, and sometimes by method B, because …….

Title

The Acquisition of English Locative Constructions By Persian Speakers: Syntax-Semantic Interface

Authors

Mohammad Javad Rezai (Ph.D.)
Yazd University, Yazd, Iran

Saeedeh Avand (M.A.)
Yazd University, Yazd, Iran

Bio data

Dr. Mohammad Javad Rezai assistant professor of applied linguistics at Yazd University, Yazd, Iran. He has published articles on various topics in Applied Linguistics and Acquisition in some international journals. He has also presented papers in national and international conferences. His research interest includes second language acquisition, psycholinguistics and language testing.

Saeedeh Avand holds an M.A. in TEFL from Yazd University, Yazd, Iran. She works as a trainer in Medical College, Fasa, Fars, Iran. Her research interest includes second language acquisition and psycholinguistics.

Abstract

The present research aimed at investigating the acquisition of English locative verbs by Persian speakers and its relationship to theories of language acquisition regarding the role of proficiency. In English there are four kinds of locative constructions namely non-alternating figure and ground verb and alternating figure and ground verbs. In Persian, just the non-alternating forms are existent. 60 intermediate and advanced subjects completed three tasks, namely forced-choice picture selection, production and grammaticality judgment task. The results of the production and grammaticality judgment tasks showed that both groups of learners tended in producing one structure and judging one form as acceptable for alternating verbs. We interpret this as indicator of not achieving native-like knowledge of the narrow classes. On the other hand, in force-choice picture selection task when presented with

a ground-object structure, both groups of learners preferentially chose a ground-holism picture. We interpret this as a reflection of the knowledge of holism effect. In sum, the overall results indicated that the acquisition of argument structure can cause learnability problems in narrow-range constraints even in higher levels.

Keywords: Locative verbs, Broad-range rules, Narrow-range rules, Object holism effect

Introduction

To understand a verb's meaning and implement it correctly, a second language learner must learn the syntactic structures in which the verb is permitted. Across languages, there are verb semantics-syntax correspondences which help L2 learners to apply these regularities to attribute correct syntactic structures to verbs. For example, understanding the sentential argument of mental verbs such as "think," "know," and "hope" will help L2 learners to make use of this mental verb-sentential complement "linking rule" to infer that a verb like "wonder" will also take a sentential complement (Kim et al., 1999). Locative verbs in English are of such kind of verbs that are subject to great variation. They represent a relationship between a thematic entity (Content or Figure) and a location (Container or Ground) as follows:

1. (a) Jim sprayed the wall (Ground) with paint (Figure). Ground-oriented
   (b) Jim sprayed the paint (Figure) into the wall (Ground). Figure-oriented

According to Pinker (1989) the alternating locative verbs alternate between an '_____ NP_1 onto NP_2' construction and an '_____ NP_2 with NP_1' form. A predicate meaning 'X moves Y into/onto Z' will be converted into a second predicate meaning 'X causes Y to change its state by means of moving Z to Y' through the application of broad-range rules. In other words, the argument structure in (1a) represents the manner of motion, but the one in (1b) shows a change of state resulting from the motion. However, there are structures that denote just one form of locative, either figure or ground. Such forms are non-alternating.

The locative verbs in English are divided into four types (Pinker, 1989: 126–27).

2. Non-alternating figure verbs such as *dribble, pour, spill* and *spit* permit the theme argument but not the goal argument to be in the direct object position:

a. Kim *poured* water (Direct object) into the glass. Figure frame

b.*Kim *poured* the glass with water. *Ground frame

3. Non-alternating ground verbs involving verbs such as *cover, decorate, fill* and *soak* allow the goal argument not the theme to be in direct object position:

a. Sam *filled* the vase (Direct object) with soil. Ground frame

b. *Sam *filled* soil into the vase. *Figure frame

4. Alternating figure verbs *(e.g. pile, plaster, spray)* permit either the figure or the ground argument to be in the direct object position:

a. Tom *sprayed* paint onto the door. Figure frame

b. Tom *sprayed* the wall with door. Ground frame

5. Alternating ground verbs such as *load, stuff* and *paint* allow either the ground argument or the figure one to be in the direct object position:

a. Jack *loaded* the hay onto the wagon. Figure frame

b. Jack *loaded* the wagon with hay. Ground frame

The issue of learnability of argument structure was first investigated in L1 (Baker, 1979; Bowerman, 1982; Gropen, 1989; Pinker, 1989; Gropen *et al*., 1991; Lee, 1997; Kim, 1999). Most recently researchers in L2 turned their attention to acquisition of locative constructions in L2 (Juffs, 1996; Joo, 2000; Bley-Vroman& Joo, 2001; Choi& Lakshmannan, 2002; Sawyer, 2002; Joo, 2003).

Pinker (1989) proposed two semantic criteria to account for learnability of locative constructions within L1 children. He argued that children limit the application of productivity rules in argument structure via two semantic criteria: broad-range constraints which limit the choice of the argument structure, narrow–range constraints which are subclasses of the broad-range constraints and distinguish verb classes. Broad-range constraints determine semantic categories of manner of motion (content-oriented or figure) verbs and change of state (container-oriented or ground) verb. He claimed that children first acquire broad constructional meaning of locative. If a learner knows that a verb permits *both* a manner of motion and a change of state, then it must be an alternator. In the opposite way, if a verb permits *either* a type of motion *or* a

change of state but not the other, it is not an alternator. These rules have been reported to be universal; that is, locative verbs in all languages posses the two broad semantic constructions: manner of motion and change of state. An important concept pertained to the broad-range constraints is the idea of object's **holism effect** in which the object of the verb is completely affected by the action of the verb (Anderson 1971). It is perceived in a situation where the ground argument is in the direct object position and has changed state by the movement of the figure argument toward it as in (6):

6. John loaded the van (ground) with the boxes (figure).

What can be inferred from the sentence is a situation in which the van is full of boxes and no empty space was left.

Narrow-range constraints, on the other hand, determine the various subcategories within the broad-range constraints; that is, they specify whether the verbs are of non-alternating figure, non-alternating ground, and alternating figure and ground types and thus are language specific In Pinker's (1989) formulation, the learner has a privileged list of manners and properties (part of Universal Grammar) that are the potential defining characteristics of the narrow classes (Pinker, p.183). These manners and properties would distinguish, for example, a verb of the *pour* class from a verb of the *sprinkle* class. Therefore, the acquisition of narrow-range constraints involves negative evidence problem since the learners must determine which constructions cannot occur.

A body of studies on L2 locative constructions conducted over the past three decades. However, the results were inconclusive since some studies shows that L2 learners do not have the knowledge of narrow-range constraints which are language specific (Bley-Vroman & Joo, 2001; Joo,2003; Lee,2009) whereas others believe that in some aspects of language acquisition L2 learners have native-like knowledge of narrow-range rules (Juffs, 1996; Choi &Lakshmannan, 2002; Sawyer, 2002). There was observed a light trace of L1 which was mentioned by some writers (Juffs, 1996; Choi &Lakshmannan, 2002; Sawyer, 2002) as a source of different performance from native speakers. Others know inaccessibility to UG for variant performances among second language learners (Joo, 2000; Bley-Vroman & Joo, 2001; Joo, 2003).

Persian locative verbs

In order to interpret learners' responses to English locative constructions in the current study, Persian locative verbs should also be described. Compared to English, Persian system seems to be more restricted in the case of narrow-range constraints. The locative structures in Persian comprised of just non-alternating constructions whereas some English counterparts involve alternating forms, too. The locative constructions in Persian can be presented in following:

(7)Non-alternating figure verbs such as *rixtan (pour), ček□ndan (dribble), kešidan (paint), pašidan (spray)* allow the theme argument but not the goal argument to be in the direct object position:

7. Mina rang r□ be div□r p□šid. Figure-frame
   Mina Paint-DO on Wall-Oblique sprayed-Subj
   Marry sprayed the paint on the wall Figure-frame
   Marry sprayed the wall with paint Ground-frame

(8) Non-alternating ground verbs such as *bar kardan (load), por kardan (fill), taziin kardan (decorate), xis kardan (soak), anb□štan (pile), sefid kardan/kahgel kardan (plaster)* permit the goal argument but not the theme argument to be in the direct object position:

8. Maryam kamyoon r□ b□ uloofe b□r kard. Ground-frame
   Maryam truck-DO with hay-Oblique loaded-Subj
   Sam loaded the truck with hay. Ground-frame
   Sam loaded hay onto the truck. Figure-frame

As it can be observed, each non-alternating verb in Persian is represented with its synonym in English. Out of the verbs presented as examples in (7) and (8) paint, spray, load, pile and plaster are alternating in English which have different syntactic representation from their Persian counterparts. As Pinker (1989) points out, the assignment of verbs to narrow-range conflation classes seems to be language specific. Some Persian locative verbs show the same syntactic behavior as their English counterparts, some are syntactically more restricted.

Some researches in L2 acquisition have revealed that L2 learners have knowledge of broad-range conflation classes including the holism effect since these constraints were supposed to be

universal; however, they lack the knowledge of narrow-range constraints which determines which verbs belong to non-alternating figure, non-alternating ground and alternating categories in L2. (Joo, 2000; Bley-Vroman & Joo, 2001; Joo, 2003). Thus, it is predicted that L2 learners confront not much difficulty in acquiring broad-range constraints due to their universality but confront much more difficulty in acquiring narrow-range conflation classes since they are language-bound. We chose to study Persian learners of English. Some L2 researchers investigated the knowledge of L2 locative constructions among Korean learners of English since Korean was different from English in terms of narrow-range constraints. Persian, similar to Korean, is different from English in terms of narrow-range constraints; that is, locative constructions in Persian are non-alternating whereas their English counterparts include alternating constructions, too. In fact, it seems that Persian is more restricted in alternating constructions than English; the present study endeavors to find out whether EFL learners can acquire such constructions in the lack of negative evidence. In addition, the proficiency factor will be tested to measure the performance of the two participating groups namely intermediate and advanced learners of English.

To this aim four research hypotheses are suggested:

1. Persian Learners of English have difficulty in acquiring locative's (figure and ground verbs) narrow-range constraints in English.
2. Persian speakers have difficulty in acquiring semantic constraints caused by broad-range conflation classes
3. First language has no influence on the acquisition of locative constructions
4. Language proficiency is not influential in acquiring locative verbs.

Method

Participants

The participants in this study included EFL learners-both male and female- studying at Yazd University. The subjects were selected randomly among BA and MA students, out of whom 60 participants whose proficiency scores were from 30 to 60 were selected. After administration of Oxford Quick Placement Test, those who obtained scores from 30 to 42 were selected as intermediate group and the participants whose scores were above 48 were assigned into the advanced group. Other participants whose scores were between 42 to 48 were excluded to ensure

the sufficient gap between the proficiency groups contributing to validity of the tasks. The intermediate group had learned English as a foreign language for at least six years in school educational system; the advanced group had more exposure due to studying English at university, too.

Materials and procedures

The experiment contained three tests: production task, grammaticality judgment task and object holism effect task. Each group of participants took three tests in English. The first administered test was the production test. The purpose of this task was to investigate whether EFL learners were able to produce appropriate native-like forms for each item (the knowledge of narrow-range). The participants were asked to produce as many possible sentences as they could. They were provided with 17 pictures accompanied by four words per each item: a verb and three nouns one of which was the subject and the other two could be used as the direct and indirect objects. The sentences covered all four kinds of locative verbs, namely non-alternating ground verb, non-alternating figure verb, alternating ground verb and alternating figure verb (See sample1). The second task was grammaticality judgment task. This task consisted of 51 items out of which 25 sentences were fillers. In this task students were asked to judge the grammaticality and ungrammaticality of English locative constructions based on Likert scale from -2 to +2. -2 showed completely impossible sentences in English, -1 presented partially impossible forms in English, 0 indicated no idea, +1 presented partially possible forms and +2 was completely possible forms. The participants were provided with an example to get familiar on how to perform a grammaticality judgment task (See sample2). The last test was the forced-choice picture selection task. The task consisted of 16 sentences. All the verbs applied in this task were alternating locatives. Two pictures were presented for each sentence and the participants were to select the picture which semantically best matched with the sentence. They could choose ***Neither*** option if no picture went best with the sentence. Of the two pictures, one picture showed that the object was completely affected by the action of the verb and therefore presented the object holism effect and the other picture indicated that the object was partially affected by the action of the verb. The purpose of this test was to investigate the knowledge of broad range rules via the participants' awareness of holism effect (See sample 3).

sample 1. An example of the Production task

He, truck, load, sand

sample 2. An example of the grammaticality judgment task

Tim nailed the notice onto the wall. -2 -1 0 +1 +2

sample 3. An example of the object holism effect task

a. b. c. Neither

John sprayed the door with paint.

Results

Test1

In the production test, the dependent variable was the contexts which had four subsections: non-alternating figure verb, non-alternating ground verb, alternating figure verb and alternating ground verb and the independent variable was the proficiency level of the participants. For non-alternating structures if participants produced the correct form, they scored 1 point; if they produced a wrong structure, they scored 0 and when they produced a wrong form besides a correct one, they scored 2. For alternating verbs, if one of the possible alternating forms (either figure or ground) was produced the participant scored 1 or 2; if both forms of alternating verbs were produced the participants scored 3 and in the case of no production, they scored 4. A mixed between- within group ANOVA (Repeated measure) was conducted on the results of the production test. The results revealed that the there was a significant main effect for context Wilk's Lambda=.36, [F (3,56)=32.71,p<.05] and the effect size was large (Eta squared=.637). However, the value of Wilk's Lambda test for the interaction effects between proficiency and context was not significant [F(3,56)= 1.89,(p>.05), Eta squared=.092]. To determine which contexts were significantly different from each other, a post hoc comparison was conducted. The

result of the pair-wise comparison revealed that there was significant statistical differences between the following pairs: non-alternating ground and alternating figure verbs; non-alternating ground and alternating ground verbs; non-alternating figure and alternating figure verbs; and non-alternating figure with alternating ground verbs ($p<.05$). There were significant statistical differences between the alternating and non-alternating constructions; nonetheless, the subjects did not perform significantly different from each other in each of the alternating and non-alternating structures separately. The results of the between-subject ANOVA revealed that there was a significant difference between the two groups in the production task [$F(1,58=5.07)$,$p=.028$]. The effect size was however moderate (eta-squared=.08). To investigate in which contexts the two groups' performances were significantly different from each other, an independent sample t-test was carried out. The results of the T-test revealed that there were no significant differences between the two groups' performances except for the alternating ground verb which showed slight difference between the two groups ($p=.044$). In general, although the overall difference turned to be significant, the difference observed is not practically significant as there is only a marginal significant difference in the last context, i.e. the alternating ground verbs.

Moreover, the mean percentage of producing non-alternating structures compared with alternating ones was higher for both groups of participants while producing alternating figure and ground structures was higher among advance group (41.6 & 40.8%) in comparison to the intermediate one (22.5 & 21.6%) (Figure 1).

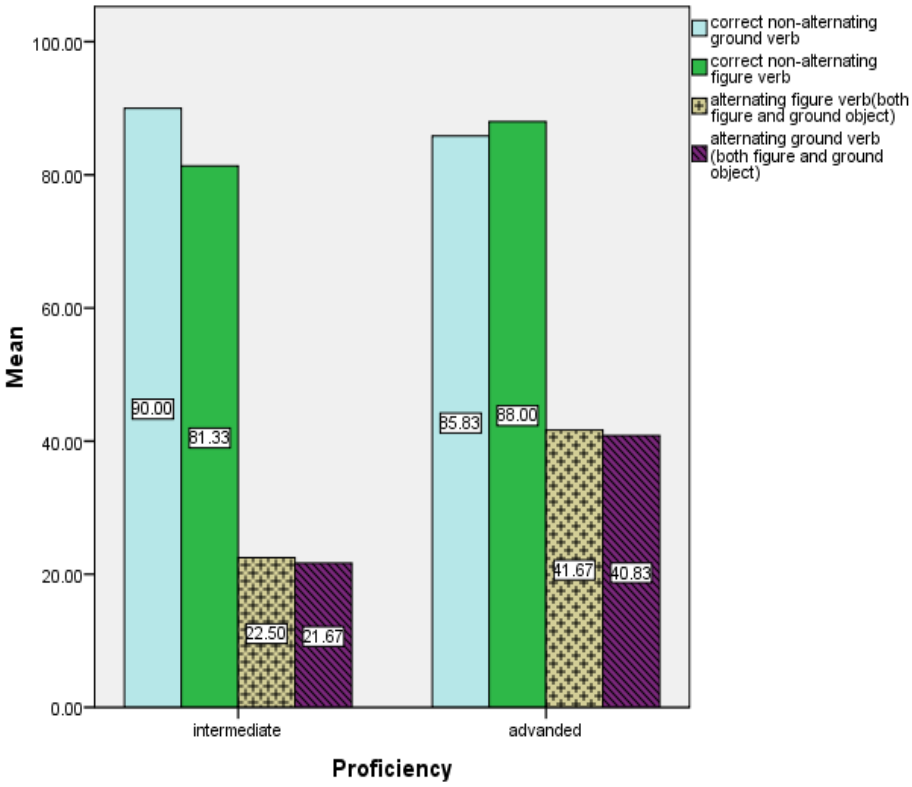


Figure 1. Subjects' Overall Performance in the production task for Alternating and Non-alternating Constructions

However both groups showed more tendency in producing one of the alternating forms depending on the verb; that is, they produced more ground frames for alternating ground verbs (mean:58.3 & 40.8%) and figure frames for alternating figure verbs (mean:58.3 & 48.3%) respectively. It is worth noting that the advanced participants obtained equal means in producing both forms of alternating and just one structure in ground frames (Figure 2).

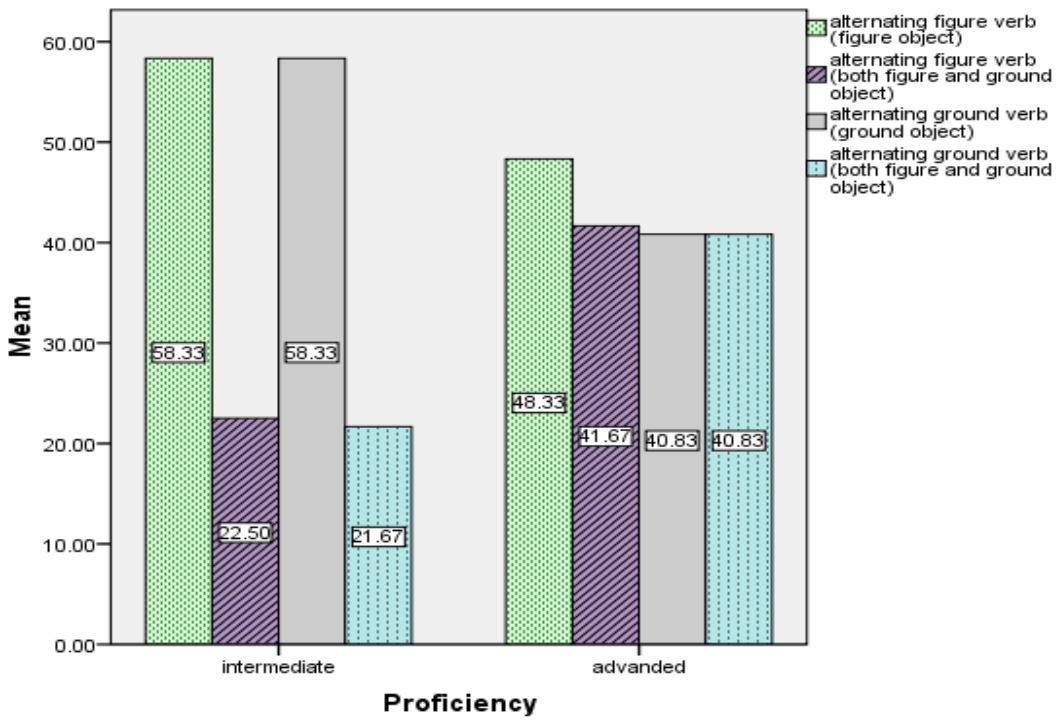


Figure2. Subjects' Performance in Producing both forms of Alternating Verbs and one structure for Alternating Constructions

The performance of the two groups showed that in majority of cases they tended to produce one form of locative constructions (the form which was more similar to the structures in L1). These results can support the claim that EFL learners have difficulty in acquiring narrow-range constraints since they showed more sensitivity and tendency toward producing the structures which were semantically more plausible in their L1 (non-alternating forms).

Test2

The dependent variable in grammaticality judgment task was the contexts which had six subsections: grammatical non-alternating figure verbs, ungrammatical non-alternating figure verbs, grammatical non-alternating ground verbs, ungrammatical non-alternating ground verbs, alternating figure verbs and alternating ground verbs; the independent variable was the proficiency level of the participants. For non-alternating forms if participants judged the acceptability or unacceptability of an item correctly, they scored 1 point and if they judged

wrongly, they scored 0. In alternating cases, if both forms were accepted as possible forms, the participants scored 1; any other judgment –either just figure or ground form or **no idea** choice was accepted as possible structures- was scored 0. A mixed between- within group ANOVA (repeated measure) was carried out on the results of the grammaticality judgment task. The result of within- subjects ANOVA revealed that there was a significant main effect for context: Wilk's Lambda=.36, [F(5,54)=36.09,p<.05] and the effect size was large (Eta squared=.770). However, it showed that the p value of Wilk's lambda test for the interaction effects of proficiency and context was not significant, [F(5,54)=.997, p>.05), Eta-squared=.085]. Moreover, to determine which contexts had significant differences, a post-hoc comparison using Bonferroni adjustment was conducted. The results of the pair-wise comparison revealed that there was a significant difference between the following pairs: grammatical non-alternating figure verbs and grammatical non-alternating ground verbs; grammatical non-alternating figure verbs and alternating figure verbs; grammatical non-alternating figure verbs and alternating figure verbs; ungrammatical non-alternating figure verbs and grammatical non-alternating ground verbs; ungrammatical non-alternating figure verbs and alternating figure verbs; ungrammatical non-alternating figure verbs and alternating ground verbs; grammatical non-alternating ground verbs and ungrammatical non-alternating ground verbs; grammatical non-alternating ground and alternating figure verbs; and grammatical non-alternating ground verbs versus alternating ground verbs (p<.05). The results of between-subject Effects ANOVA indicate that there was not a significant difference between the two groups in the grammaticality judgment task [F(1,58)=2.91,p=.093)].

Figure (3) reveals the mean percentage of the subjects' judgments in the grammaticality judgment task for all 6 contexts.

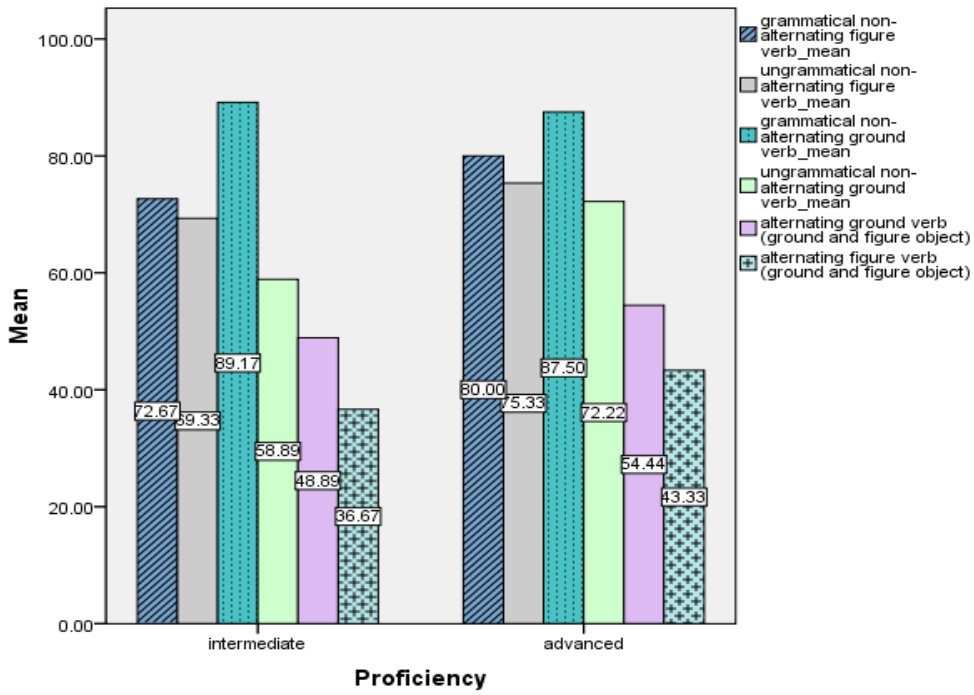


Figure 3. Subjects' overall judgments in Grammaticality Judgment Task

As it was obvious in the figure, both groups obtained higher means in judging grammatical verbs. However, they showed sensitivity to rejecting figure verbs in ground object and ground verbs in figure object structures (ungrammatical verbs) since in more than 50% (58-76%), they judged the ungrammatical forms correctly. This sensitivity decreased in alternating cases for just in alternating ground verbs the advanced group judged more than half of the verbs correctly (mean: 54.44%). Corresponding to the previous task, in this task, too, both groups showed better performance in non-alternating cases , that is both showed more sensitivity toward correct judgment of the structures which had semantic equivalents in Persian.

To investigate the possible differences between the performances of the two groups in the first and the second tasks, i.e. the production and grammaticality judgment tasks, a paired-comparison T-test was carried out the results of which were presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Paired – sample T-test on similar locative constructions in grammaticality judgment and production tasks

Level	Contexts	Mean difference	SD	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Intermediate group	Alternating ground verbs	**27.22**	**32.15**	**4.636**	**29**	**.000***
	Alternating figure verbs	**14.16**	**42.38**	**1.831**	**29**	**.077**
	Non-alternating figure verbs	**-8.666**	**31.37**	**-1. 513**	**29**	**.141**
	Non-alternating ground verbs	**-.8333**	**24.10**	**-.189**	**29**	**.851**
Advanced group	Alternating ground verbs	**-13.16**	**36.84**	**2.023**	**29**	**.052**
	Alternating figure verbs	**1.666**	**57.95**	**.158**	**29**	**.876**
	Non-alternating figure verbs	**-8.000**	**25.51**	**-1.717**	**29**	**.097**
	Non-alternating ground verbs	**1.666**	**28.56**	**.320**	**29**	**.752**

The results showed that there was no significant difference between the subjects' performance in the production and grammaticality judgment tasks. The only exception was related to the intermediate group who showed a significant difference in the alternating ground verbs. In sum, both groups had a similar performance in the production and comprehension tasks; that is, in both tasks they showed preference toward the structures which were similar to their L1 system. These whole results of the two task revealed that EFL learners had difficulty in acquiring narrow-range constraints since altogether they showed less tendencies toward performing in native-like fashion(less that 50%).

Test 3

The dependent variable in forced-choice picture selection task was the contexts which had four subsections: alternating figure verb figure object, alternating figure verb ground object, alternating ground verb ground object, alternating ground verb figure object; the independent variable was the proficiency level of the participants. For each picture, if the picture represented the sentence, it was scored 1; any other chosen options were scored 0. It is worth-mentioning that in cases where the ground object is presented as the direct object (figure verb ground object first or ground verb ground object first), the sentence conveys the holism effect semantically. In table 2 the mean percentage of producing figure and ground frames were represented.

Table 2. Mean Percentage and SD of alternating figure and ground verbs

Level	figure verb figure object construction	**figure verb ground object construction**	**ground verb ground object construction**	ground verb figure object construction
	Mean and SD	**Mean and SD**	**Mean and SD**	Mean and SD
Intermediate group	35% (28.3)	**65.8% (24.1)**	**70% (24)**	42.5% (36.6)
Advanced group	31.6% (28.5)	**71.6% (30)**	**79.1% (26.3)**	35.8% (33.3)

As the above table indicates, both group obtained higher means in choosing ground object frames in comparison with the figure object frames. They do indeed make a distinction between the objects which are wholly affected and those which are partially affected by the action encoded in the verbs. This shows that both groups had knowledge of holism effect in which the object of the verb is completely affected by the action of the verb.

A mixed between- within group ANOVA was conducted on the results of the holism effect and the following results were obtained: the results of the within- subjects Effects ANOVA revealed that there was a significant main effect for context Wilk's Lambda=.42, [$F(3,56)=25.26, p<.0005$] and the effect size was large (Eta squared=.575) . However, no significant interaction was observed between proficiency and context [$F(3,56)=.86$, $p>.05$]. The results of the pair-wise comparison using Bonferroni adjustment reveals that the following

contexts turned to be significant (p<.05): alternating figure verb figure object versus alternating figure verb ground object; alternating figure verb figure object versus alternating ground verb ground object; alternating figure verb ground object versus alternating ground verb figure object; and alternating ground verb ground object versus alternating ground verb figure object. Nonetheless, there was no significant difference between the structures indicating the holism effect. The results of the between-subject Effects ANOVA revealed that there was not a significant difference between groups in holism effect task [F (1, 58)=.075, p=.78) indicating that the L2 learners have acquired such a semantic distinction at earlier stages of language acquisition.

A paired sample T-test was conducted to compare the mean scores on partial-whole constructions for both intermediate and advanced group. The results of the T-test revealed that there was a significant difference between partial and whole performance among the intermediate group (p<.05) and the magnitude of the eta-squared was .46. The same results were gained for the advanced group. Similarly, there was a significant difference between their partial and whole performance (p<.05) (eta-squared=.61). Table 4.17 displays the subjects' performance on the paired partial-whole constructions for intermediate and advanced group discretely.

Table 3. The results of paired-sample t-test for partial-whole constructions

Level	Contexts	Mean difference	SD	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Intermediate	**Pair 1 partial-whole**	**-29.16**	**31.88**	**-5.011**	**29**	**.000***
Advanced	**Pair 1 partial-whole**	**-41.66**	**33.36**	**-6.839**	**29**	**.000***

Figure 4 depicts the results of producing all structures in holism effect task. The second and the third columns refer to the structures conveying holism effect. The total mean performance of two groups on the four contexts is displayed. As it is illustrated, the highest means are relevant to the ground verb ground object for both groups which indicates L2 learners' knowledge of holism effect.

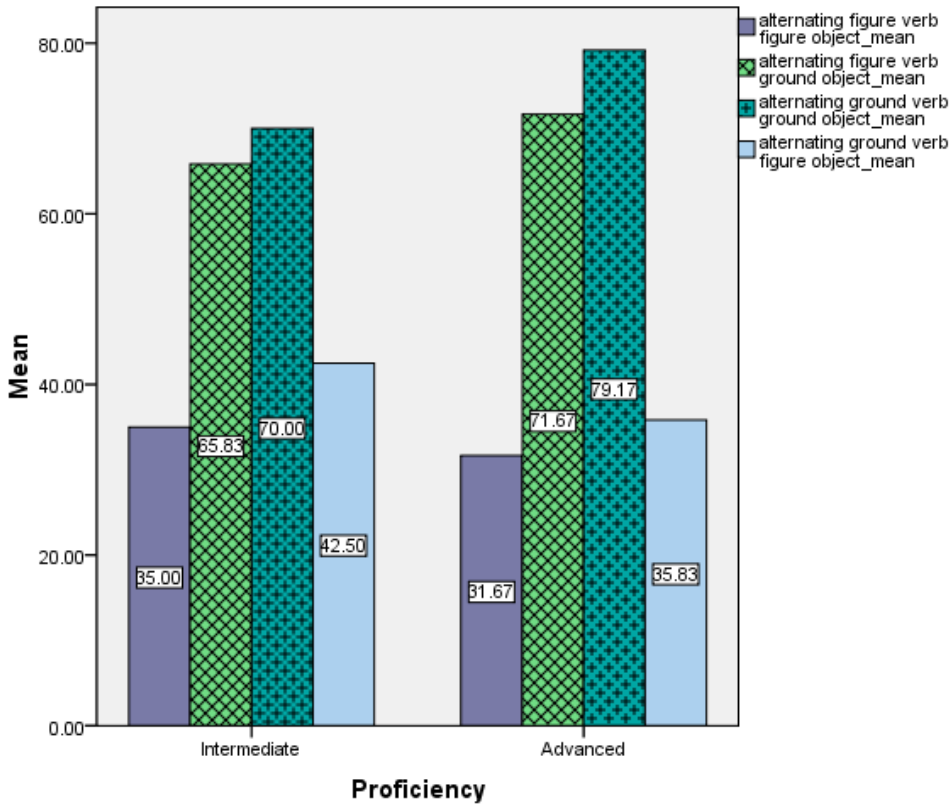


Figure 4. Overall subjects' mean performance in the holism task

As the figure 4 illustrated, both groups of participants were able to distinguish the wholly affected objects in more than 65% and indicated the knowledge of broad-range constraints in general.

Discussion

The results show that Persian learner of English have knowledge of the holism feature of the constructional meaning of the locative. That is they can learn the broad properties of constructional meaning, including such features as object holism. The reason of such performances is not certain since those cases of object holism in English for which we have evidence involve the class of non-alternating verbs in Persian. However, the concept of holism is supported at an abstract level by the native language grammar; that is, non-alternating ground verbs contain the holistic interpretation in Persian too. In contrast to holism, the narrow class constraints seem not to be acquired by EFL learners. There may be some reasons of such performances One can be pointed to the lack of correspondence between English and Persian

which creates a situation where L2 learners were not able to distinguish the language-specific semantic constraints. The other reason can be the deficiency in the amount of exposure to L2 in a communicative way, for in an EFL context like Iran English is restricted to educational school system and private institutes in an artificial way rather than natural setting. Thus the acquisition of such constraints may require something like noticing nonoccurrence (negative evidence problem). Our results are compatible with other results gained by Joo (2000), Bley-Vroman & Joo(2001), Joo(2003) in difficulty of acquiring narrow-range constraints in L2. Our results also showed that both groups had difficulty in learning narrow-range constraints, and though the more proficient group had better performance in alternating structures in both production and grammaticality judgment tasks the two groups did not perform differently in three implemented tasks. Therefore, the proficiency factor was not influential. Moreover, our results indicated that in producing alternating structures both groups produced structures which were semantically similar to the structures in their L1 more significantly, i.e. in producing alternating ground verbs they produced more ground first object structures and in producing figure forms they produced more figure first object constructions. They also produced and judged alternating structures at a lower rate compared to the non-alternating forms since alternating frames were absent in Persian. These results also support the influence of L1 in L2 acquisition. However, the fact that the advanced group outperformed the intermediate one can be accounted for via the accessibility to UG to some extent since they were not able to retreat completely from L1 at the level of lexical structure. It should be noted that this study neither claims that L2 learners cannot achieve a native-like knowledge, nor that they cannot retreat from L1 influence. Learners may be able to associate presented verbs with presented constructions, owing to more exposure to L2 forms or to explicit presentation.

References

Anderson, S.R. (1971). On the role of deep structure in semantic interpretation. *Foundations of Language*, *6*, 197–219.

Baker, C.L. (1979). Syntactic theory and the projection problem. *Linguistic Inquiry*, *10*, 533–81.

Bley-Vroman, R., & Joo, H. (2001). The Acquisition and Interpretation of English Locative Constructions by Native Speakers of Korean. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *23*(2), 207-219.

Choi, M., & Lakshmanan, U. (2002). Holism and Locative Argument Structure in Korean-English Bilingual Grammars. *Proceedings of the 26th Annual Boston University Conference on Language Development, I-II* (pp. 95-106). Somerville, MA: Cascadilla.

Gropen, J. (1989). Learning locative verbs: how universal linking rules constrain productivity. Unpublished PhD dissertation, Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT), Cambridge, MA.

Gropen, J., Pinker, S., Hollander, M. and Goldberg, R. (1991). Affectedness and direct objects: the role of lexical semantics in the acquisition of verb argument structure. *Cognition, 41*, 153–95.

Joo, H. (2000). Acquisition of the argument structure of locative verbs by Korean EFL learners. Unpublished MA thesis, University of Hawai'I at Manoa, HI.

Joo, H. (2003). Second Language Learnability and the Acquisition of the Argument Structure of English Locative Verbs by Korean Speakers. *Second Language Research*, *19*(4), 305-328.

Juffs, A. (1996). Syntax–semantics correspondences in second language acquisition. *Second Language Research ,12*, 177–221.

Kim, M., Landau, B., & Phillips, C. (1999). Cross-Linguistic Differences in Children's Syntax for Locative Verbs. *Proceedings of the 23rd Annual Boston University Conference on Language Development, I-II (pp. 337-348).* Somerville, MA: Cascadilla.

Lee, H.J. (1997). The meanings and acquisition of the Korean locative verbs. *Linguistic theories and Korean semantic and syntax acquisition I*. Seoul: Mineum-sa, 103–26.

Lee, J.S. (2009). The Acquisition of English Locative Constructions by Native Speakers of Korean: Pragmatic Competence or Syntactic Incompetence? *Cognitive and Linguistic Sciences, 4*, 3-16

Pinker, S. (1989). *Learnability and Cognition: the acquisition of argument structure.* Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Sawyer, M. (2002). 'She filled her brain with grammar': L2 acquisition of the English locative alternation. Paper presented at the Second Language Studies Colloquium, University of Hawai'i at Manoa, September 2002.

Title

From Ancient Fatalism to Modern Determinism: A Comparative Study

Author

Fatemeh Pourjafari (M.A)
Islamic Azad University, Kerman Branch, Kerman, Iran

Bio data

Fatemeh Pourjafari M.A. in English literature from Tehran University, Iran. She is a faculty member of the Department of English, Islamic Azad University, Kerman Branch, Kerman, Iran. She is interested in world literature, particularly the field of comparative literature.

Abstract

The controversy about free will – really a controversy about the character of the universe – is probably as old as man, and as far as the literature of every epoch is a reflection of the dominant spirit of that period, the study of great literary works can be a good way to come up with the idea of determinism. On the basis of this fact, this essay is intended to investigate two well-known literary works, both tragedies from two different historical periods: the ancient classic drama, and a modern tragedy. Whether tragedies, no matter from what literary epoch, have shown their characters as free human beings who can decide for their lives or the powerless creatures unable to shape their future is the aim of this study. In addition, the study endeavors to explore if the controlling forces of existence have been similar or different in the literary works from different periods of time. The investigation will show that while the ancient tragedians based on a fatalistic worldview dealt with man as the slave of gods, psychological and social determinism had always been a favorite theme for the modern dramatists. Moreover, the study attempts to discuss the historical trend with its different dominant ideologies and thoughts to determine the roots of this shift from fatalism to determinism in the works of literature.

Keywords: determinism, fatalism, ancient tragedy, modern tragedy

Introduction

Since his appearance on earth man has always been involved with the question of determinism or free will. There has always been much debate over this question and every new movement, religious, social, political, literary, or cultural has shown a tendency towards either determinism or a belief in free will and tried to justify it by all means. While the free– willists believe that the world has such a character that some true freedom for human beings is sometimes a real possibility, and man at times faces real and not illusory choices, the believers of the other view have always felt themselves chained by different controlling factors around them. As far as a literary work reflects the dominant mood and thought of the period in which it was produced, the study of literary works from different epochs can be a good way to come up with this controversy over the history.

Much of the Greco-Roman myths are centered on the subject of fate. Homer's epics, *The Iliad and The Odyssey* (1973) are two such examples. Thus in Homer, error, success, desire, even the flight of an arrow or the glance of a woman are directed by the immediate and explicit influence of divinities, and the whole Iliad is placed under the rubric of "the plan of Zeus" (Bulfinch, 1993:373). Among the dramatists, it was also common to tell of the twisted ways that fate worked and how the characters did something they might not want to, out of pure ignorance. The idea is best shown in the chorus song in *Orestia* (1956) by Aeschylus:

Woe, woe, through Zeus all – responsible, all – doing.

For what is fulfilled by men without Zeus?

What of this is not god – determined? (399)

The same theme and concept repeatedly occurs in the later dramas, but as we approach the modern time, the contemporary writers conceive of fate in a manner which has no parallel in any previous epoch. Modern man, by its modern philosophical heritage, can no longer believe in the Greek fatalism and instead, a modern determinism has emerged. Determinism is modern in that it is a philosophy of life that grows out of an understanding of life as an integral part of the universe, and not as something capable of extraordinary miracles or supernatural interferences. From this scientific point of view, the behavior of man is no more mysterious than the universe he lives in. in each case there might exist some unknown matters, but the assumption of science, according to the critic Sophus Keith Winther (1975), is that "should they ever be fully explained there will be nothing that does not fit into the scheme of what we already know" (p.150).

This tradition has led to a new theory of tragedy and novel which is characteristic of the twentieth century literature. Somerset Maugham expresses the same idea over and over again in his novel *Of Human Bondage* (1968). His leading character is "as though he were a leaf in the wind":

> … I act as though I were a free agent. But when action is performed it is all clear that all the forces of universe from all entity conspired to cause it, and nothing I could do have prevented it. It was inevitable. (Maugham, 1968, p.356)

The aim of this essay is to show that although determinism has always been among the most oft-used themes in literature and particularly in drama, it has found different forms and definitions in different epochs. On the basis of this discussion, two dramas are chosen from two very different periods: Ancient Greek time and Modern era. While elaborating on the nature of the determining forces of the character's life and their distinction in the two dramas, the present study attempts to discuss briefly the historical, philosophical and scientific developments that acted as crucial factors in such a shift from ancient fatalism to modern determinism in the world of literature.

Ancient Fatalism

The fatalist holds that man is the victim of circumstances over which he has no control. No matter what happens to the fatalist, he assumes that it was prearranged for him by a power outside the world (gods or spirit), and furthermore, he believes that power is a conscious force which acts arbitrarily and has a prevision of the end which it achieves.

In the world of the Greek drama, the gods have receded; they have already determined (more or less) the fate of human beings and are content to watch them from a comfortable distance. As Tom F. Driver in his book *On the Late Plays of Eugene O'Neill* (1975) discusses, the Greek tragedian's treatment of time was affected by the presence of several factors: (1) the future was closed by Nemesis, a moral agent serving to reinforce an idea of justice; (2) Nemesis did not overtake every man but only the tragic heroes, who therefore became useful examples for the populace at large; (3) the death of the hero usually brought some benefit to the society of which he was a part, so that the bleakness of his particular fate was transcended by the renewed or restored welfare of the community.

Hugh Rice in *Stanford Encyclopedia of philosophy* (2010) defines fatalism as a view in which "we are powerless to do anything other than what we actually do". Moreover, he considers three main ideas as the basis for this philosophical doctrine:

1- That free will does not exist, meaning therefore that history has progressed in the only manner possible.

2- That actions are free, but nevertheless work toward an inevitable end.

3- That acceptance is appropriate, rather than resistance against inevitability.

The Birth of the tragedy

J.P. Vernant and P. Vidal–Naquet in their *Myth and Tragedy in Ancient Greece* (1990) discuss the idea that tragedy as a genre appeared at a particular moment of an unresolved clash between two general views of man's place in the world which they called the "archaic" and the "legal" – the latter originating from the democratic context of Greek society.

Athens was no ordinary polis. Not only was it particularly large in population, territory, and ambition, but also its radical democracy affected all aspects of its culture throughout the fifth century. The main decision – making and legislative body was the assembly, which every citizen had the right to attend. The biggest difference between Athenian democracy and almost all subsequent democracies is that the Athenian version was remarkably direct rather than being representative. With a few exceptions, Athenians didn't vote for politicians to represent them; all Athenians voted on just about every law or policy that city was to adopt. Shall we fight the Spartan? Raise taxes? Or build a navy? The people decided and voted. It would be very hard indeed for an Athenian to speak of the government as "them". They were their government and there was no "us" versus "them". Therefore, the people had the opportunity to decide for their lives and felt the freedom of will. It is in this same context that democracy and tragedy interrelate: the legal system assumed that a man is responsible for his actions and can be judged as a responsible individual for those actions, and the punishment is to be weighed out according to that judgment.

In the mythical and heroic tradition of archaic society, however, it is the justice of gods that prevails. Homer (8thBC) depicted Jupiter as a supreme deity, got the throne as a conqueror, and ruling with a nod the subject world. There is a representation of Jupiter in the first book of *Iliad* which shows the effective and powerful state of gods in ruling the living universe:

He spoke and awful bends his stable brows,
Shakes his ambrosial curls and gives the nod,
The stamp of fate and sanction of the god.
High heaven with reverence the dread signal took,
And all Olympus to the center shook. (Homer, 1973, p. 374)

Tragedy takes place, then, at the moment of maximal unresolved tension between such systems of ideas. As Verant and Vid-Naquet write:

> The tragic turning point thus occurs when a gap develops at the heart of social existence. It is wide enough for the opposition between legal and political thought on the one hand, and the mythical and heroic tradition, on the other, to stand out quite clearly (Vernant & Vid-Naquet, 1990, p. 420).

In other words, tragedy began at the time when man became wise enough to feel the philosophical paradoxes of life. The paradox of human freedom on the one hand and fate or necessity on the other seems to be at the root of much traditional tragedy. There had always been a conflict between what man knew was the good life for him, and what tradition held to be god's opinion of the good life, and this is why fate has become an omnipresent element in most of the Greek tragedies, and a tool for building dramatic tension.

Daimon

Pindar (4th BC) was one of the poets who insisted strongly on the doctrine that both good and evil come from the gods or from a man's Daimon. John Jones (1962), the critic of the Greek tragedies, quotes from Pindar that, "It's according to the Daimon of their lives that men are born wise and good and it is the fate which is born with a man that decides the issue of all his doing" (p. 95).

Daimon is the Greek derivative for the term "demon". In this sense the term "demon" means "divine power", "fate" or "god". Daimons, in Greek mythology, included defied heroes. They were considered intermediary spirits between men and the gods. Thomas Bulfinch (1993) in *The Golden Age of Myth and Legend* explains that the good daimons were considered to be guardian spirits, giving guidance and protection to the ones they watched over. Bad daimons led people astray. Although their featuring actions seemed to be very different, they were the same in nature, in that both affected and directed man's actions.

Moirae

The Moirai (or Morae) were the goddesses of fate who personified the inescapable destiny of man. They assigned to every person his or her fate or share in the scheme of things. Their name means "parts", "shares" or "allotted portions", which may mean "a deity who assigns to every man his fate or his share" (Bulfinch, 1993, p. 373).

Moirai (as plural) were three sisters robed in white, who decided on man's fate: Klotho, whose name meant "spinner", spun the thread of life. Lakhesis, whose name meant "apportioned of Lots" – being derived from a word meaning to receive by lot – , measured the thread of life. Atropos (or Aisa), whose name meant "she who can not be turned", cut the thread of life.

At the birth of a man, the Moirai spinned out the thread of his future life, followed his steps, and directed the consequences of his actions according to the counsel of gods. They were usually

described as ugly old women, sometimes lame. They were severe, inflexible and stern. Klotho Carries a spindle or a roll, Lakhesis a staff with which she points to the horoscope on a globe, and Atropos a scroll, a wax tablet, a sundial, a pair of scales, or a cutting instrument.

There are some evidences which show that even Zeus had to obey these sisters. For example, Aeschylus in *Prometheus Bound* (1978) admits that Moirae were above Zeus:

Chorus: Who then is the helmsman of Ananke (Necessity)?

Prometheus: The three – Shaped Moirai and mindful Furies.

Chorus: Can it be that Zeus has less power than they do?

Prometheus: Yes, in that even he cannot escape what is foretold. (555-9)

The History of a Development: The Emergence of the Modern Determinism

The cosmic searching of the nineteenth century into the structure of the universe and, particularly, into the grim history of man's origin and development emphasized the importance of a causal chain. The effect of this scientific phenomena of cause and effect on philosophy was to search for the cause of the phenomena of life, the result of which was a gradual trend which led to the formation of one of the most important aspects of this new world which is philosophic determinism.

To understand modern literature, one has to put primary importance on this tradition which is as genuine and vital to our world today as was the religious and philosophic tradition of ancient Athens to the dramas of Sophocles and Aeschylus. The critic, Sophus Keith Winther (1975), clarifies this significance in this way, "Determinism plays the role of Hamlet in the drama of modern life, while free will has fallen from its high estate to the point where it barely stumbles through the part assigned to Osric" (p. 150). Contemporary literature attempts to deal with man – chained in his modern physical and intellectual environment and therefore, it finds no room for free will, nor any grounds for assuming an action as undermined by the whole complex of that environment.

Determinism is modern in that it is a philosophy of life that grows out of an understanding of life as an integral part of the universe, and not as something capable of extraordinary miracles or supernatural interferences. From this scientific point of view, the behavior of man is no more mysterious than the universe he lives in. in each case there might exist some unknown matters, but the assumption of science is that "should they ever be fully explained there will be nothing that does not fit into the scheme of what we already know" (Winther, 1975, p.158). In other words, in the modern world, one does not expect miracles and the god's significant role in determining the ordinary events of life, which was the dominant element in ancient Greek dramas has diminished.

This tradition which has led to a new theory of tragedy and has become a characteristic of the twentieth century literature has passed through different stages. There are certain figures whose ideas and theories were mainly influential in the formation of this concept in literature.

Charles Darwin

As the scientific researchers in the 19th century emphasized the phenomena of cause and effect, it affected the philosophers of the time to search for the cause of the life phenomena. The inevitable result of modern thought, or evolution, beginning with Darwin (1809-1882), would tend to question freedom of choice.

Darwin explained man on the basis of the struggle for existence and natural selection. The variation that happens in species is not always to the advantage of the variant and sometimes it is a detriment to it. So variation seems to be truly non-purposeful (this opposed the fatalistic principles). According to *The Cambridge Companion to Modernism* (p.28). "the theory of evolution expresses an antagonism toward the past. The pessimistic side of this theory stresses the limits of development and the staying power of our original condition". William James's famous definition of this theory in his *The Principles of Psychology* (1890) is that "the same emotions, the same habits, the same instincts are perpetuated without variation from one generation to another" (p. 678).

Darwin in his *The Descent of Man* (1930) expresses that human is a social animal whose life is guided almost exclusively by his instincts:

> … Consequently man would be influenced in the highest degree by the wishes, approbation, and blame of his fellow-men, as expressed by their gestures and language. Thus the social instincts, which must have been acquired by man in a very rude state, and probably even by his early ape-like progenitors, still give impulse to some of his best action; but his actions are in a higher degree determined by the expressed wises and judgment of his fellow–men, and unfortunately very often by his own strong selfish desires. (p. 97)

According to this view, man is what he is because of his heredity and environment, and every action has its definite cause, which in turn, was caused until the whole of man's life is an endless chain of cause and effect.

This idea conflicted not only with the long–established assumptions of values attributed to humanity's role in the world but also with the concept of creation derived from Bible. The result of this belief was that the belief in the old God as the conscious purpose in the universe with a prevision of an end either good or bad began to fade and instead, a cause – effect phenomenon took its place.

Carl Marx

Influenced by Darwin's theory of evolution, a scientific school of history emerged in Germany which believed that men are utterly powerless to shape their future, that the fate of nations is wholly predestined, that human aims and purposes are made delusions. Men are free only as they become the willing slaves of fate, "only as they hop on fates band–wagon" (Singer, 1995, p.110). The scientific historian is seldom so unmodern as to mention fate. Instead, he speaks usually of "social forces". They maintain that there is an inexorable necessity in human affairs, that laws of history there must be, that the historian must undertake to find them. Karl Marx (1818-1883), a product of German University education, subscribed to that theory. Economic forces, he believed, following their predestined patterns, are the ultimately decisive causes of historical events. In the preface to his book, *Capital* (1976), Marx wrote of "historical tendencies" which "work out with an iron necessity to an inevitable goal" (p.179). "The innermost secret, the hidden basis of the entire social structure" wrote Marx, is to be found in the "economic relation". Therefore, "The sum total of those relations constitutes the economic structure of the society – the real foundation, on which rise legal and political superstructures and to which correspond definite forms of social consciousness" (Marx, 1976, p.183).History advances through progressive stages of social development. The characteristics of each stage result from "determined and necessary" relations between classes. Development through the struggles of economic classes constitutes the basic law of history. All economic classes will, after a time, disappear; in this truly democratic classless society the State will vanish, organized force being no longer needed to control individuals, and we shall have an ideal, stateless, democratic world society. The position of individual within this predetermined frame is best shown in the following lines from *A companion to Continental Philosophy*. "In Marxism it is society or social class which determines the individual, leading to a general devaluing of the individual, who is reduced to a mere effect of 'socio-economic conditions'" (Schroeder, 1998, p.945).

With this pre-determined plan of man's life in the society, to be a rational man is, therefore, to understand that human reason is futile, that non – human forces govern mankind, that men can be free only by accepting their fate. For human freedom as Hegel (1770-1831) – whose faithful admirers were Marx and Engels – thought, does not consist of the power of man to exercise real choices; it consists of love of fate (Schroeder, 1998, p.1120).

Friedrich Nietzsche

The trend which started by substituting the social and economic forces for the gods, fates, and other supernatural forces as determining factors of destiny, reached one of its crucial phases by Friedrich Nietzsche, whose strength of thought is obvious in the transformation of many of the ideas and

values that have formed Western heritage. This strength is figured in part by the questions than Nietzsche generated concerning traditional concepts of reason, nature, God, time, religion, and morality. However, Nietzsche is best known in popular culture for his very famous declaration of "the death of God". This widely–quoted statement is stated in his classic work *Thus Spoke Zarathustra* (1914) as "God is dead. God remains dead. And we have killed him. How shall we comfort ourselves, the murderers of all murderers?" (p.85). Later, Nietzsche in his *Twilight of the idols* (1888) explained that he never meant the death of God in a literal sense, but he believed that the "God" of the times (religion and other such spirituality) is no longer a viable source of any received wisdom. God's life is measured by the degree to which the sense and image of God give creative energy and direction in human lives. Emphasis must fall on "creative", because according to Nietzsche God does not live in repetitions, rituals of remembrance, and reverence for texts that record what God has done. God's life is found in the creation of values and ways of life.

The death of God is a way of saying that humans are no longer able to believe in any such cosmic order since they themselves no longer recognize it. The death of God will lead, Nietzsche believes, not only to the rejection of a belief of cosmic or physical order but also to a rejection of absolute values themselves – to the rejection of belief in an objective and universal moral law, binding up on all individuals. Nietzsche calls human beings in their distance from God's creation "the last men", who are responsible for their own deeds without any hope of salvation from a powerful force outside themselves (Nietzsche, 1914).

Sigmund Freud

Nietzsche by his declaration of the death of God prepared the way for the emergence of one of the most effective proponents of modern determinism, Sigmund Freud (1856-1939), the prophet of modern psychology, "the queen of sciences" in Nietzsche's words. No prophet of our destiny, neither Marx nor Darwin, nor any other, has spoken with greater import to the human condition in general and yet spoken to it more intimately than Freud.

Two of the basic principles of psychoanalysis are, first, that there is an important element of pattern and continuity in the mental and emotional life of the individual, and second, that the explanation of this pattern is to be sought in the satisfaction of unconscious needs and goals. Here is a passage Freud italicized to make his point:

> The unconscious is the true physical reality; in its innermost nature it is as much unknown to us as the reality of the external world, and it is as incompletely presented by the data of unconscious as is the external world by the communication of our sense organs. (Freud, 1960, p.603)

Freud designated as unconscious "any mental process the existence of which we are obliged to assume but of which we are not directly aware" (Freud, 1960, p.340). The unconscious functions for Freud as a "god – term", to use Kenneth Burkes (1897-1993) suggestive epithet. It is the larger sphere which includes within it the smaller sphere of the conscious. However, it is actually through consciousness that we form an idea of our unconscious drives and motivations.

However, the principle of the psychoanalytical theory centers on conflict between the mind's conscious and unconscious parts. The unconscious part contains thoughts and wishes that would be painful and distressing if one were conscious of them. Indeed, their having become unconscious is itself due to the necessity of getting oneself rid of the pain and distress they cause. This process, Freud called, repression. But the unconscious thoughts and wishes are invested with a psychic energy, so the total mastery of the unconscious over them is impossible. Being blocked from becoming conscious, they exercise influence in other ways. The pressure they continue to exert finds alternative outlets and both their force and context, albeit in distorted and disguised forms are communicated through these outlets. The effect of their influence includes "emotions with inappropriate object, abnormally strong desires and urges, dream and delusions, and other disturbances of thought and behavior" (Rieff, 1961, p.46).

In order to get a better view of the conflicts within man, Freud outlined a new anatomy of the psyche in which mind is seen as consisting of three parts in conflict and balance: the agency of bodily appetite (id), the mediating agent (ego), and the guardian of moral prohibitions (super ego. Thus Freud writes, "Our mind … is no peacefully self-contained unity. It is rather to be compared to a modern state in which a mob, eager for enjoyment and destruction, has to be held down forcibly by a prudent superior class" (1927, pp.141-2). For Freud, the sole psychic force, the source of all thoughts and wishes is libido-the sexual instinct, while the puritans held the doctrine that life is essentially evil and sex is the source of all that is vile and degenerate in man. In this way, a puritan resorts to suppression, believing that what is not seen is therefore properly destroyed. But as John Dewey (1920), the famous psychologist, says, "Suppression is not annihilation. Psychic energy is no more capable of being abolished than the forms we recognize as physical. It is neither exploded nor converted, it is turned to lead a surreptitious, subterranean life" (p.87). Puritanism makes man deny the best part of himself in order to conform to the demands of a puritan society which professes values that are essentially destructive. Here Freud (1927) introduces two powerful instincts within man namely the death instinct (thanatos) and the life instinct (Eros). In every person there live these two instincts. Eros tends to sustain life but thanatos wishes death. Eros is the agent of joy and love, while thanatos is the destructive agency. However, each of these instincts can gain more power under particular

circumstances. The puritan doctrines, being life-denying, improve thanatos, so that man becomes empty of any life instinct, love, or sensuality. Otto Weininger argues in *Being and Not Being* (1996) that: "… The harsher and more punitive the super ego, the stronger and more destructive the death instinct" (p.13). He assumes, in other words, that they are connected and thanatos would destroy vitality, creativity, love and more aspects of life in order to preserve.

So in Freud's idea, which seems so pessimistic, man can never live happily because he is the sum of inner conflicts and complexes which were shaped in the time he could have no control over them, mostly during the childhood period. In other words, there are a lot of factors which shape the child's personality without his personal interference in shaping it. A lot of complexes, which are the determining elements of his later personality, are taking place within him, while he has no control over them. As an adult, he is chained by his past memories and childhood complexes which move him towards a determined destiny.

This is how the developing cultural and philosophical trend which started by Darwin reached its climax by replacing the ancient fatalism with the modern determinism, which is an important aspect of the modern world.

Method

Determinism as opposed free will is the focal point in this research. Although it is considered mainly as a philosophical concept, the effect of determinism on literature – as the reflection of the dominant thought and ideologies of certain epochs – is undeniable. Two points that are given the due time and care in this study are:

1. The distinction between the two concepts: determinism and fatalism. Fatalism refers to the philosophy based on the idea that an external force, mainly a metaphysical power outside man, controls his life and future over which he feels no control. Determinism is modern in that the controlling forces of existence find room within individual, including his complexes, emotions, desires, and even genes.

2. The trend led to the emergence of the modern determinism, which replaced the ancient fatalism. In this part four influential figures, a biologist, a sociologist, a philosopher and a psychologist whose controversial ideas affected the modern thought and literature to a great extent are discussed. An attempt is made to focus merely on those aspects of their theories and ideas which are in direct relation to the topic of this research.

This paper will apply the above concepts on two selected works, one from the ancient Greek era and the other a modern one. *Oedipus the King* (5th BC) by Sophocles and *Mourning Becomes Electra* (1954) by Eugene O'Neill are the two tragedies chosen for this purpose. While it is attempted to deal with *Oedipus the King* from the view point of god's dominance over the life of the ancient Greek man, psychological determinism and its significant role in O'Neill's dramas is considered as the central pattern for the characterization and major events in *Mourning Becomes Electra.*

Discussion

This section deals with the study of two tragedies, *Oedipus the King* and *Mourning Becomes Electra* to analyze the effect of determinism and to make clear the extent to which characters of each drama felt themselves free to choose for their own lives. It should be noted that the two works are chosen intentionally from two different historical and geographical eras in order to emphasize the significance and universality of the concept of determinism in regard with literature.

Odipus the King: The fallen hero

Oedipus the king was written by Sophocles in the 5th century BC. In this play, Oedipus is a great example of Sophocles' belief that fate controls a man's life no matter how much free will exists.

The tragedy begins with one of the best images of the drama which symbolically shows the main theme: the city in plague. Prayer and sacrifices have been unavailing, as is expressed through the voice of the Priest of Zeus :

Death is everywhere -
in the harvests of the land,
in the flocks that roam the pastures,
in the unborn children of our
mother's wombs. (Sophocles, 1970,18-22)

The city is entangled in plague and pestilence and this disaster has fallen on them by some external forces out of their control; by Fate. And this image conveys the theme of man's entanglement in god's power, and the hopeless condition of man in a very effective way that constitutes a background for all the events through the drama.

As told by the Priest, Oedipus has saved the city once before, from the malignant fate by answering the Sphinx's riddle. The riddle of the Sphinx is by far another important symbol through the play. Oedipus could solve the riddle by perceiving that it portrayed the human condition and that the answer was "man". *Oedipus the king* is the tragedy of man. The man who, despite all his

potentialities, is the slave of the god's will. It does not talk about the tragic hero's hamartia or personal failing but about a flaw inherent in life and in man as a being not attuned to his world or, what is the same thing, a flaw in the world in which man is abandoned to his failing, limited and utterly inadequate devices. This is the answer of the riddle of *Oedipus the King.*

The chorus also prays to gods to help him and be his companion to fulfill this hard task:

Come to my aid, you averters of doom!
Come to my aid as once you did, when you quenched
the fires of doom that fell on our life
Hear me, and come to my aid! (80-83)

They consider Zeus the only one who can bring peace and restore justice and Dike in their land, and this reflects the Greek ideology dominant in the ancient universe:

It is Zeus and Apollo who know,
who can see the affairs of men.
But the seer and I,
we are mortal, and blind.
Who is right? Who can judge?
We are mortal, our wisdom assigned in degrees. (89-94)

The ambitious and brave Oedipus decides to change calamity to prosperity, but every small effort he makes, the more he becomes entangled in the net of events that lead to a terrible recognition which is followed by his destruction. The truth he comes to know is that he is the cause of calamity in the city for the sin he had done unknowingly: murdering his father and marrying his mother. Although he is decisive in action, he cannot change reality, for in Teiresias' words:

It doesn't matter if I speak; the future
has already been determined. (340-341)

The terrible destiny of Oedipus is shown as one put upon him by supernatural powers in general, by comprehensive Fate which governs every man's life. Oedipus is indisputably a victim; that fact is at the very heart of the drama:

Ah! Ah! Where has this misery brought me? Is this my own voice I hear-carried on the wings of the air? O Fate! What have you done to me? (1298-1301)

This is the central cry of the play. A thorough thinking throughout the facts could have led only to an indictment of the gods, of the Chance, the instrument of the divine will which is addressed by Pindar as the "daughter of Zeus the liberator, and Foreknowledge" (Bowra, 1941, p.450). After Oedipus tells Iocasta of the terrible pronouncement of Apollo, he cries:

If any judge my life and find therein

A savage Daimon's work, he hath the truth. (863-864)

And this Daimon used to shape the central principle of the Greek ideology.

Mourning Becomes Electra: A Modern Representation of Ancient Electra Story

Passed from Nietzsche's death of heavenly powers, and what Freud ironically called "The family romance", the question becomes O'Neill's drama to show the characters of his drama controlled by sexual and family forces that reduce them to puppets with predetermined destinies. One of the first questions O'Neill asked himself when he began searching for a modern manner of treating the ancient Electra story is, "Is it possible to get modern psychological approximation of Greek sense of fate into such a play, which an intelligent audience of today, possessed by no belief in gods or supernatural retribution, could accept and be moved by?" (Winther, 1975, p.177). His answer, as it may be inferred from the play, is that determinism is the modern substitute for the Greek sense of fate. The Greek gods are dead as far as the theatre is concerned, and O'Neill could perceive and reflect it as the background of his works. He saw that the Electra theme by the special Greek treatment about it could be convincing to the ancient Greek audience, because the Fates could bear the heavy burden of responsibility and the people had enough faith in the old gods to believe the predetermined calamities of the tragic heroes, an order from them. However, the same theme must be treated by a far subtler psychological method if it were to appear valid to a modern audience.

Another big difference in O'Neill's modern representation of the Greek drama is that there is no future open to the characters, while in all the Greek tragedies a view of a peaceful and orderly world is expected at the end. As far as divinity is dead - in Nietzsche's proclaim - in the modern world, the modern man has become responsible for his own deeds and therefore there is no hope of salvation from a powerful force outside him. O'Neill's tragic curses do not end with the death of the sinner, as the curse on the House of Atreus, but they must be expiated in a long and solitary process. The curse of the modern man is his inner psychological complexes which pass from one generation to the other.

The puritan setting: The curse of the House of Mannons

From the beginning, the misfortunes of the Mannons grow out of an inability to face the reality of life. They lived by false puritan standards of behavior. They did not know and could not learn that man as a psychological phenomenon is doomed to disaster if compelled to live within the confines of a limited creed. One by one, death took them from the sunlight of a world they had never seen except through the colored glass of the "Meeting House" windows: "That's always been the Mannons' way

of thinking. They went to the white meeting house on Sabbaths and mediated on death. Life was a dying. Being born was starting to die. Death was being born" (O'Neill, 1954, 2. p.92).

This is the curse of Mannon family; the denial of life, and with it love, which is handed down from generation to generation: from old Abe Mannon, who had driven out and crushed his younger brother for loving and marrying a servant girl; from Ezra, for whom life was only a kind of death, who felt a numbness in his heart "like a statue of a dead man in a town square" (2. p.94), and whose loveless marriage drove his wife to find fulfillment in the arms of his misbegotten cousin; to the family's dead end in Orin and Lavinia.

Ezra Mannon, being brought up under the same strict puritan doctrines, was also the embodiment of that blighting New England Biblical tradition which repressed life. Although late, he turned to become conscious of this inner complex which had been unconscious so far, and said, "Something queer in me keeps me mum about the things I'd like most to say - keeps me hiding the things I'd like to show. Something keeps me sitting numb in my own heart" (2. p.94).

All his life, he had lived for the sake of the life after death and not for the life's sake, so that the life instinct - Eros, in Freud's term - within him was suppressed, and instead it was the death instinct (thanatos) that improved. As he confessed: "... life had only made me think of death ...." (2. p.96). It had made him believe that there was virtue in denying himself the real pleasure and beauty that might be possible in rare moments during his struggle with an unfriendly universe.

On the other hand, O'Neill describes Christine as having "... a fine, voluptuous figure and she moves with a flowing animal grace ...." (1. p.20). Through the play, she was associated with the bright colors which symbolically refer to her powerful life instinct and her eagerness to love and be loved. As far as she could not satisfy her need to love in her life with Ezra, she converted to Adam Brant, Marie Brantome's son, who in his turn, was the victim of childhood inner complexes.

Adam loved Christine because of her strange similarity between the two women and in this way gave the clue to the deterministic chain:

> BRANT - You're so like your mother in some ways. Your face is the dead image of hers. And look at your hair. You won't meet hair like yours and hers again in a month of Sundays. I only know of one other woman who had it. You'll think it strange when I tell you. It was my mother. (1. p.46)

Furthermore, by his marriage with Christine, he would finally be successful in taking his father's revenge from the Mannon family.

The house which Lavinia recognized as a "temple of death and hate" was to Christine equally horrible:

CHRISTINE - Each time I come back after being away it appears more like a sepulcher! The "whited" one of the Bible - pagan temple front stuck like a mask on puritan gray ugliness!

It's just like old Abe Mannon to build such a monstrosity - as a temple for his hatred. (1. p.34)

According to Winther (1975), The house becomes a symbol of the conflict between love and the moral code. This particular moral code determines the way the Mannons think about different matters and behave towards each other. It functions as a mask, under whose calm exterior, there appears a deep, passionate life which may be suppressed for a while but is never subdued:

It is these two forces in conflict that feed the flame of fury which springs from the fatal likeness of the Mannon women to Marie Brantome. It makes possible the love and the hatred that spread their deadly virus throughout their lives and determined their tragic destruction (Winther, 1975, p.182).

The Mannons wished happiness inertly and unconsciously, but the road which led to the good life was barred to them by the white walls of the Meeting House, The symbol of a ghostly past that survives in a culture that has changed all of its outward manifestation on surface, while it still mumbles the principles of the ancient law.

Oedipus complex: The ancestral Determinism

Besides the destructive role of the puritan doctrines in shaping the character's dreadful destiny, O'Neill made use of the Oedipal relation between the characters as another determining force to justify their behavior.

Orin's hostility towards the father as a strong rival and his inner hatred toward him, originating from the Oedipal complex, find manifestation within him. However, O'Neill emphasizes this inner feeling symbolically through the external circumstances such as Ezra Mannon's stiff, repressed personality at home, and their respective roles as commander and subordinate at war. Orin in aggression towards him, associated his father with war when he said, "I can't grasp anything but war, in which he was so alive. He was the war to me - the war that would never end until I died. I can't understand peace - his end!" (2. p.126). Here, we find an Orestes who is openly motivated not by revenge for his father but by frantic jealousy of the father surrogate, Brand; though he's disturbed by the accusation of murder of his father that Vinnie brings against Christine, he is only aroused to action by the cold proof of adultery with Brand. At the end of the second part, after he has shot Brand, he is fascinated by the resemblance between Brand and his father. "This is like my dream. I've killed him before - over and over... He looks like me too! May be I've committed suicide" (2. p.189). This is immediately followed by a fellow-feeling with his victim Brand as he declares, "If I had been the I would have done what he did! I would have loved her as he loved her - and killed

father, too - for her sake" (2. p.190).

Through this and others examples from the text of the drama, Oedipus complex is pictured as a significant determining force of human life, which is originated from one's childhood experiences.

Findings

The findings show that as science and technology have progressed in the Western hemisphere, faith in a conscious metaphysical force which controls man's behavior and determines for him his destiny has faded out. Modern philosophy presupposes determinism as man's natural state. It is not a curse which descends upon him and weakens him at a decisive moment of struggle (a sudden breaking down of the will under pressure which is common in human experience); it is a precondition, which makes the struggle useless, because even the desire to struggle is aimless.

Moreover, the study reveals the reason of the bitterness of the modern tragedy in comparison with the tragedies of other epochs: In the modern drama there is no hope in the re-established order, but the realization of man's powerlessness to deal with life in any way that he chooses. In the previous dramas, there had always been the hope of a re-established peace, a change of the situation, by the same gods who brought miseries. This cannot be seen in the life of modern man, who stumbles in the fog, seeking for a pathway that is not there. The tragedy of the modern man is inherent in the essence of existence and passes from one generation to the other.

The study suggests that one way to study literature is to take a certain recurrent concept – here determinism – and apply it to different literary texts while discussing the distinct forms and manifestations of the same concept through different historical periods. This can not be fulfilled unless one surveys the whole influential factors and key figures that have affected the process of the transformation of that concept. The writer of this research believes that there are many other fundamental concepts which have gone through principle changes in the history of English literature from beginning till now. To study literature from the view point of these concepts and the intervening historical trends is a good way to gain a holistic view of literature through time.

References

Aeschylus. (1956). *Orestia.* (Philip Vellacott, Trans.). New York: Penguin Books.

Aeschylus. (1978). *Prometheus bound*. (Oliver Taplin, Trans.). New York: Berkeley.

Bora, C.M. (1941). *Sophoclean tragedy*. Oxford: The Clarendon Press.

Bulflinch, T. (1993). *The golden age of myth and legend.* Hertfordshire: Wordsworth.

Darwin, C. (1930). *The descent of man.* New York: Blackwell.

Dewey, J. (1920). *Human nature and conduct*. New York: Modern Liberary.

Driver, T. F. (1975). *On the late plays of Eugene O'Neill.* New York: Macmillan.

Freud, S. (1927). *Repression: Complete works of Sigmund Freud.* New York: Modern Library.

Freud, S. (1943). *A general introduction to psycho analysis.* New York: Garden City Publishing Company.

Freud, S. (1960). *The interpretation of dreams.*:London: Hogarth Press.

Homer. (1973). *Iliad*. (J.H Kelles, Trans.). New York: W.W.Northon & Company.

James, W. (1890). *The principles of psychology.* New York: Free Press.

Jones, J. (1962). *On Aristotle and Greek tragedy.* London: Cambridge Press.

Levenson, M. (1985). *The Cambridge companion to modernism.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Marx, C. (1976). *Capital.* (Ben Fowkes, Trans.). New York: Penguin Books, 1976.

Nietzsche, F. (1914). *Thus spoke Zarathustra.* (Thomas Common, Trans.). London: Edinburgh.

O'Neill, E. (1954). *Mourning becomes Electra.* London: Johnathan Cape Ltd.

Maugham, S. (1968). *Of human bondage.* New York: Penguin Books.

Rice, H. (2010). Fatalism. In *Stanford encyclopedia of philosophy*. Retrieved from www.plato.Stanford.edu.html.

Rieff, P. (1961). *Freud: The mind of the moralist.* New York: Doubleday Company.

Schroeder, W. (1998). *A companion to continental philosophy.* New York: Blackwell.

Singer, P (ed). (1995). *Ethics.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Sophocles. (1963). *Ajax*. (Philip Vellacott, Trans.). New York: Penguin Books.

Sophocles. (1970). *Oedipus tyrannus.* (Luci Berkowitz & Theodore F. Brunner, Trans.). New York: W.W. Northon & Company.

Vernant J.P. & Vidal-Naquet, P. (1990). *Myth and tragedy in ancient Greece.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Weininger, O. (1996). *Being and not being: Clinical manifest of the death instinct.* London: International Universities Press.

Winther, S K. (1975). *Eugene O'Neill: A critical study.* New York: Russell & Russell Inc.

Title

Teaching Methodology, Motivation, and Test Anxiety: Comparison of Iranian English Private Institute and High School

Author

Mahbube Keihaniyan (M.A.)

Islamic Azad University, Najafabad Branch, Najafabad, Iran

Bio data

Mahbube Keihaniyan got her B.A degree in Teaching English from Islamic Azad University, Najafabad branch in 2006 and her M.A. degree in Teaching English from Azad University of Najafabad in 2009.

Abstract

This study investigated 50 state high school and private institute learners in Najafabad, 25 each, to see if there was any relationship between teaching methodology, motivation and test anxiety. These students were selected to answer a test anxiety and a motivation questionnaire. The analysis of the results gained through the check lists about teacher's role, learner's role, teaching objectives and teaching activities, showed that the teaching methodology in these settings was different. Although there was no significant difference between these two groups with regard to proficiency, the analysis of the learner's responses to the motivation questionnaire showed that the private language institute learners were more motivated to learn English than the high school learners. The results of Two Pearson Correlation Tests showed that there was a negative relationship between test anxiety and motivation. A *t*-test was used to analyze the results of the test anxiety questionnaire. It was clear that learners in the high school had more test anxiety. The findings of this study are useful for teachers to apply motivated methods to improve learners' motivation and in this way decrease their test anxiety.

Also, students who take responsibility for their learning enjoy freedom and power to make decisions in their learning. Knowing that learning is a product of one's own activities, a student feels more rewarded and enhances his courage to get involved in an active learning process.
Keywords: Teaching Methodology, Motivation, Test Anxiety, Private institute

Introduction

Language teaching came into existence as a profession in the twentieth century. Its foundation was developed during the early part of the twentieth century, as applied linguists focused on the fields of linguistics and psychology to support what was thought to be a more effective teaching methodology. Language teaching in the twentieth century was characterized by frequent changes, innovations and development of language teaching ideologies (Richards & Rodgers, 2003).

As methods link theory and practice, they represent a contribution of applied linguistics to language education. Methods do not necessarily arise from a priori theorizing, they could be derived from successful practice (Krashen, 1987). Richards and Rodgers (2003) describe methods in terms of three levels: approach, design, and procedure. Approach refers to the underpinning theory of language and language learning. Design covers the specification of linguistic content, the role of teacher and learners, and instructional materials. Procedure means the techniques and activities that are used in the classroom.

At the turn of the twentieth century there has been an uprising interest in the investigation of the role of learner's characteristics in a foreign and second language learning (hereafter referred to as FLL/SLL) process (Brown, 2000). A major trend in language syllabus design has been the use of information from learners on curriculum decision-making (Nunan 1993). Students should be active agents of their learning, not merely passive receivers of information. Learning is a product of learners' own actions and is based not only on the learners' prior skills and knowledge but also on their experience and interest. If learners have role in defining and choosing the goals, the course content, and methodology, learning will be more relevant to them (Decorte, 1993).

Although many teachers admit that learners differ in terms of needs and preferences, they may not consult learners in conducting language activities. The basis for such reluctance to

cooperate may be that learners are not capable to express what they need to learn and how they want to learn it.

The regular assessment of student's progress is a part of teaching and learning in the classroom. Such assessments may range from looking over pupils while they are writing during a normal class work to using exams (Kyriacon, 1991). Also, teachers need to evaluate constantly their teaching on the basis of students' reactions, interests, and achievements (Chastain, 1988).

While tests are valuable means for teachers and students, they are also obstacles for many of the students who suffer from test anxiety. Since students are taught from an early age that success equals high score, they become extremely anxious about test results. This often leads to high stress, which might lead to either failure on tests or cheating in order not to fail.

Statement of the Problem

Teaching methodology plays a significant role in the EFL learning process, and most learners may feel disappointed if the method of teaching is not appropriate for them.

Regarding language teaching in Iran, Bakhshi (1997) notes: ″One of the problems is an old belief that just knowing about the language and its grammatical patterns suffice teaching English, so there are no rooms left for advancement through insight of linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, methodology, and pedagogy″ (p.14). It seems that one of the deficiencies is that most teachers lack sufficient knowledge of various methods and skills to implement them. Teachers do not use classroom activities that increase students' commitment for learning English .This makes students feel reluctant to the task of learning.

This study attempts to investigate this issue in an Iranian context. In this study, the researcher wants to compare teaching methodology and motivation in the high school and the private language institute and the effect of these two variables on test anxiety because these factors are different in these two settings. In the high school teacher has the central role but in the private language institute learners have central role and in the private language institute learning English is an optional course but an obligatory one in the high school then the researcher wants to find the relationship between teaching methodology, motivation and test anxiety.

Objectives of the Study

The importance of testing in educational setting necessitates the investigation of its relationship with various factors involved in the process of teaching. Therefore, the present study was designed to show if there is any relationship between test anxiety experienced by a lot of learners when sitting an exam and teaching methodology as well as student's motivation. Methodology has been defined differently by scholars but, in this study, it is defined in terms of teacher's role, student's role, teaching materials, teaching activities, and teaching objectives based on Richards and Rodgers (2003). High school and private language institute were selected as two places where different approaches to the above mentioned factors were expected to be founded. Consequently, it was decided to see what teachers do in each setting, and then to see if there was any relationship between methodology, motivation and test anxiety in each setting. The objectives of the study are restated in the following research questions and null hypotheses.

With regard to what has been presented above, the present research will address four major questions:

1. Is the methodology used in high school different from the methodology used in Private language institute in terms of teacher's role, student's role, teaching materials, teaching activities, and teaching objectives?

2. If the answer to the first question is positive, is there any difference between learners' motivation in high school and Private language institute?

3. If methodology is found to be different in both settings, do learners experience different amount of test anxiety in each setting?

4. Is there any relationship between learners' motivation and their test anxiety in each setting?

Motivation, teaching methodology and test anxiety are important factors in language learning. Teachers should be aware of the relationship among these variables. In sum, this study is expected to enrich knowledge of English teachers about the relationship among teaching methodology, motivation and test anxiety and help them to handle test anxious students more skillfully.

Participants

The participants of this study ranged from 15 to 17 year-old students selected randomly from 50 high school female students and 50 female students studying English as a foreign language (EFL) in a private language institute in Najafabad. Learners in these two settings enrolled in the second grade and their major was computer. Since the number of students in each class in both settings was 25, the participants were selected from two classes with the same teacher and setting. Then, a Nelson test was administered to the students to select and homogenize the intended number of students for the study. Next, 50 students, 25 from Mahjub high school and 25 from Parto private institute, whose scores on the Nelson were between one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean, were selected to take part in the study; to answer questions of a test anxiety and a motivation questionnaire. Care was taken to choose those high school students who were not studying in the language institute simultaneously.

Instruments

Data in this study were collected through using instruments as follows:

1) A Nelson test (1999). It consisted of 40 multiple-choice items on grammar and vocabulary to estimate the proficiency level of the learners. The validity of the test was established by consulting with three experts.

2) A set of checklists to identify similarities and differences between teaching methodologies in the high school and the private institute. They were prepared by the researcher based on Richards and Rodgers (2003). The checklists consisted of teacher's role, learner's role, materials of the course, teaching activities, and teaching objectives, were used when the researcher and two other observers observed the English classes in the high school and the private language institute for three sessions. The observers' duty was to observe the procedures of the classrooms including the role of teacher, role of learners, materials used in the class, objectives of the course pursued by the teacher and activities used in the class to identify similarities and differences between teaching methodologies in these two settings.

3) A test anxiety questionnaire. It consisted of 29 questions, which were designed on a 4-point Likert scale. The participants were asked to respond to the statements by indicating whether they *never, seldom*, *sometimes or often* experienced the feeling mentioned in the

statement. The four alternatives were assigned the weight of 1, 2, 3 and 4 respectively. The reliability of the questions was estimated via Cronbach's alpha (r=0.92).

4) A motivation test. It was developed by Celce Murcia (1991) and consisted of 41 questions. This questionnaire was translated into Farsi to avoid participants' confusion. According to Seliger and Shohamy (1989), one of the main problems with questionnaires in a foreign language (FL) is that participants often have problems in providing answers in FL and there is no assurance that the questions are properly understood and answered correctly. The participants were asked to rate their attitudes on a 5-point Likert scale. The researcher measured its reliability via Cronbach's alpha (r=0.81).

Data Collection and Procedure

Data were collected through the following stages: At first 100 students from the high school and the private institute, 50 each, were selected randomly. Then, via the administration of the Nelson test, 50 students (25 from the high school and 25 from the private institute) were selected as the participants of the study. Then the test anxiety and the motivation questionnaires were distributed among the participants. They were asked to read the questions carefully and express their feeling by choosing one of the alternatives written in front of each statement. They were told nothing about the aim of the study to avoid halo effect. Also it was optional for the students to write their names at the top of the papers. The selected students were tested in terms of the relationship between teaching methodology, motivation, and test anxiety.

The Results of the Analysis of the Observers' Responses to the Teachers` Role Checklist

Table 1 gives a summary of the observers' findings for both groups, that is, the high school (group1) and the private institute (group2) classrooms, on the teachers' role checklist.

Table 1. *Descriptive Statistics of the Two Groups on the Teachers`Role Checklist*

Group Statistics

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
teacher as a facilitator and a counselor	1	16	.25	.447	.112
	2	16	1.25	2.236	.559
teacher as having central role	1	16	3.06	2.265	.566
	2	16	2.63	1.668	.417

As Table1 shows, the mean and the standard deviation scores for teacher as a facilitator and a counselor in the private institute are respectively 1.25 and 2.23. The mean and the standard deviation score of the central role for the teacher in the high school are respectively 3.06 and 2.26. By comparing the means of the two groups shown in the above table it can be said that the teacher in the high school has the central role in the classroom and decides what to teach and how to teach but in the private institute, she is as a facilitator and counselor in the class.

The Results of the Analysis of the Observers' Responses to the Learner s` Role Checklist

Table2 gives a summary of the observers' findings for both groups on the learners' role checklist.

Table 2. *Descriptive Statistics of the Two Groups on the Learners`Role* Checklist

Group Statistics

	GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
active	high school	9	2.00	2.598	.866
	language institution	9	6.33	7.566	2.522
passive	high school	9	8.33	7.906	2.635
	language institution	9	3.67	3.905	1.302

As Table 2 shows, the mean and the standard deviation scores for active role of learners in the private institute are respectively 6.33 and 7.566. The mean and the standard deviation scores for passive role of learners in the high school are respectively 8.33 and 7.90. By comparing the means of the two groups shown in the above table, it can be said that learners have an active role in the private institute but a passive role in the high school.

The Results of the Analysis of the Observers' Responses to the Material Checklist

Table 3 gives a summary of the observers' findings for both groups, that is, the high school and the private institute classrooms, on the material checklist.

Table 3. *Descriptive Statistics of the Two Groups on the Material Checklist*

Group Statistics

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
task based materials	high school	5	.20	.447	.200
	language institution	5	1.00	2.236	1.000
using realia	high school	5	.20	.447	.200
	language institution	5	1.00	2.236	1.000
text based materials	high school	5	1.00	2.236	1.000
	language institution	5	.80	1.789	.800
audio visual materials	high school	5	.40	.548	.245
	language institution	5	2.00	2.739	1.225

As Table 3 shows, the mean scores of task based, realia and audio visual materials in the private institute are respectively 1.00, 1.00 and 2.00. The mean of text based materials in the high school is 1.00. By comparing the means of the two groups shown in the above table it can be said that task based, realia and audio visual materials are common in the private institute but text based materials are common in the high school.

The Results of the Analysis of the Observers' Responses to the Teaching Activities Checklist

Table 4 gives a summary of the observers' findings for both groups on the teaching activities checklist.

Table 4. *Descriptive Statistics of the Two Groups on the Teaching Activities*

Group Statistics

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
different drills	1	22	2.73	1.956	.417
	2	22	3.09	1.540	.328

As Table 4 shows, the mean and the standard deviation scores for different drills in the private institute are respectively 3.09 and 1.540. The mean and the standard deviation scores in the high school are respectively 2.73 and 1.956. By comparing the means of the two groups shown in the above table, it can be said that the focus of teaching activities in the private language institute is on different kinds of drills (elicitation, restatement, replacement,…). In the high school practice on different kinds of imitations (choral and individual imitation) are common activities.

The Results of the Analysis of the Observers' Responses to the Teaching Objectives Checklist

Table 5 gives a summary of the observers' findings for both groups on the teaching objectives checklist.

Table 5. *Descriptive Statistics of the Two Groups on the Teaching Objectives Checklist*

Group Statistics

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
oral skills	high school	15	.27	.458	.118
	language institution	15	1.67	2.440	.630
language components	high school	15	.67	1.345	.347
	language institution	15	1.47	2.200	.568

As Table 5 shows, the mean and the standard deviation scores on oral skills (speaking and listening) in the private institute are respectively 1.67 and 2.44. The mean and the standard deviation scores of language components (vocabulary and grammar) in the high school are respectively 1.47 and 2.20. By comparing the means of the two groups shown in the above table it can be said that command of oral skills, practice on fluency and accuracy, are common in the private language institute but command of language components, such as vocabulary and grammar are common in the high school.

Teaching methodology consists of the role of teacher, the role of learners, teaching objectives, teaching activities and materials used in the classroom (Richard and Rodger, 2003). According to these tables and graphs, it is clear that teaching methodologies are different in the high school and the private language institute.

The Analysis of the Learners' Responses to the Motivation Questionnaire

Table 6 gives a summary of the findings for both groups, that is, the high school and the private institute learners, on the motivation questionnaire.

Table 6. *Descriptive Statistics of the Two Groups on the Motivation Questionnaire*

High School					Language Institute				
Min	Max	Mean	SD	variance	Min	Max	Mean	SD	variance
99	205	183.08	20.845	434.493	153	230	195.24	18.622	346.773

As Table 6 shows, the mean and the standard deviation scores of the high school students on the motivation test are respectively 183.08 and 20.84. For the language institute students the mean and the standard deviation scores are 192.24 and 18.62 respectively. In the high school group, the highest score and the lowest score are 205 and 99, but in the private language institute the highest score is 230 and the lowest score is 153. The above table shows that the mean score for the motivation obtained by the language institute students is higher than that obtained by the high school learners.

In order to find out whether or not this difference is statistically significant, a *t*-test was run. Table 7 shows the results of this *t*-test.

Table 7. *The Results of the t-test for the Motivation Questionnaire*

Group	No.	Mean	SD	SEM	df	t	p
High School	25	183.08	20.845	4.169	48	-2.229	.031
Institute	25	195.24	18.622	3.724			

Table 7 reveals that the amount of *t*-observed (*t*= -2.229) is significant at the probability level of p= .031, which is smaller than .05. In other words, motivation is significantly higher for the language institute students than for the high school students. In the previous part, it was identified that teaching methodologies were different in these two settings then it seems there is a relationship between teaching methodology and motivation.

The Analysis of the Learners' Responses to the Test Anxiety Questionnaire

In order to analyze the test anxiety questionnaire, the performance of two groups of learners on this questionnaire was compared. Table 8 gives a summary of the findings for both groups, that is, the high school and the private institute learners on the test anxiety questionnaire.

Table 8. *Descriptive Statistics of the Two Groups on Test Anxiety*

High School					Private Institute				
Min	Max	Mean	SD	variance	Min	Max	Mean	SD	variance
42	110	73.8	23.402	547.667	34	101	61.2	19.736	389.5

As Table 8 shows, the mean and the standard deviation of the private institute students on the test anxiety are respectively 61.2 and 19.73. The mean and the standard deviation of the high school students on the test anxiety questionnaire are respectively 73.8 and 23.4. The highest score for the high school learners on the test anxiety is 110 and the lowest score is 42. For the private language institute learners the highest score on the test anxiety is 101 and the lowest score is 34. By comparing the means of the two groups shown in table 8, it can be said that the amount of anxiety when taking an English exam is not the same for the private language institute learners and the high school EFL learners. A *t*-test was applied to find out whether or not this difference is statistically significant. Table 9 reveals the results of this *t*-test.

Table 9. *The Results of the t-test for Test Anxiety*

Group	No.	Mean	SD	SEM	df	t	p
High School	25	73.8	23.402	4.681	48	2.085	.042
Institute	25	61.2	19.736	3.947			

It can clearly be seen in Table 9 that the amount of *t*-observed (t= 2.085) is significant at the probability level of p= .042, which is smaller than .05. In other words, the amount of test anxiety is significantly higher for the high school students than for the private language institute students then it seems there is a correlation between test anxiety and teaching methodology.

Relationship between Test Anxiety and Motivation

In order to test the fourth research question i.e., to find out if there is a correlation between test anxiety and motivation, two Pearson Correlation Tests were employed. Table 10 shows the correlation for the high school students.

Table 10. *The Results of Correlation Analysis for the High School Students*

		Anxiety	Motivation
Anxiety	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.448
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.025*
	N	25	25

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

The above table shows that test anxiety is high and motivation is low for the high school learners.

Table 11 shows the results of the analysis for the language institute students.

Table 11. *The Results of Correlation Analysis for Private Institute Students*

		Anxiety	Motivation
Anxiety	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.490
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.013*
	N	25	25

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

The above table shows that motivation is high and test anxiety is low for the private language institute learners.

Both Table 10 and Table 11 depict a significant negative correlation between the test anxiety and the motivation (r= -448, and r= -.490 for high school and institute respectively). In other words, in both cases it can be said that the higher the test anxiety, the lower the motivation, and vice versa.

Discussion

The First Research Question: Is the methodology used in high school different from the methodology used in Private language institute in terms of teacher's role, student's role, teaching materials, teaching activities, and teaching objectives?

The analysis of the observers' responses to the checklists show in the high school teacher has the central role and she decides what to teach and how to teach. Learners are considered as receivers of information, listeners, and imitators. They do not have any role in teaching process and they just repeat new structures and new words. The only material in the high school is English text book. Teaching activities and objectives are limited to repetition of structures and vocabulary. Instead, in the private language institute, teachers are not at the center of the class. They are as facilitators who help students to master on language. Besides, learners have active role and they can make new short stories and conversations. Materials in the private language institute are not limited to English textbooks. Teachers use audio visual materials and realia in the class also learners can bring interesting materials that are related to their lesson. Teaching activities and objectives are not limited to different drills (question and answer drills, group work drills,…) but also mastery on language skills (listening, speaking, writing, and reading) is very important.

The Second Research Question: If the answer to the first question is positive, is there any difference between learners' motivation in the high school and the Private language institute?

To answer this research question, a *t*-test was used and the results show that motivation is higher in the private language institute learners than the high school learners. As it was said, teaching methodology is different in these two settings then it seems there is a positive relationship between teaching methodology and motivation. Also, Boggiano *et al* (1992) found that if teachers be as facilitators in the class, use interesting materials (photographs, objects,…) and give learners an active role that learners can decide what to teach and how to teach, learners motivation will increase and their test anxiety will decrease.

The Third Research Question: If the answer to the first question is positive, is there any difference between learners' test anxiety in high school and learners' test anxiety in Private language institute?

To answer this research question, the researcher used a *t*-test and the results show that high school learners have more test anxiety than the private language institute learners. The results of analyzing the teaching checklists showed that teaching methodologies were different in the high school and the private language institute then it seems that there is a relationship between teaching methodology and test anxiety. A previous research by Ferrando *et al* (1999) shows the same results. According to their research, by using a method that pays attention to the psychological aspects of learners (motivation and need); teachers can decrease learners' test anxiety.

The Last Research Question*: *Is there any relationship between learners' motivation and their test anxiety in each setting?

Two Pearson Correlation Tests were used to answer this research question. The analysis of the results indicated that there was a significant negative correlation between test anxiety and motivation. In other words, it can be said that the lower the test anxiety the higher the motivation, and vice versa. As previous results show, test anxiety is higher in the high school students than the private language institute learners so motivation of these students is lower than the private institute learners. Also, Boggiano *et al* (1992) found that if learners have enough motivation for learning they can do better in their tests. A previous study by Giles and Coupland (1991) found that integrative and instrumental motivations are very useful factors to engage learners in learning process. Integrative motivation comes from the learner and it has a very strong power to move learners toward learning. Also, if learners want to have a good position and a good job in their society they are engaged in learning process. The result of Giles and Coupland's research is similar to the results of the present study. Then, it seems that motivation is useful factor to engage learners in learning process and to decrease their test anxiety.

Implications for English Teachers

Jenus and Lens (2005) believe that teaching a foreign language has problems to which teachers must pay attention in order to improve learning process: 1) Language teaching requires not only skillful teachers but also innovative teaching techniques. 2) Teachers have to find practical ways to motivate students to learn the language and at the same time to sustain students' interests in the language learning process.

As this study shows high school learners do not have a chance to select their materials and are as listeners in the classroom. Their motivation is low and their test anxiety is high. Then,

teachers should know that a “unidirectional” learning process in which learning is assumed to flow out from the teacher and students are passive is not good. Students should be active participants in the learning process. In other words, learners must have control over both information and interactions i.e., learners choose what to learn and how to learn it. As Littlewood (1992) believes, ″the ultimate interest of education is not in whether answers are correct, but whether attempts are made to stimulate a useful learning process for finding answers″ (p. 106).

Teachers should know that factors such as poor quality of teaching, poor class behavior, and no interest are learners' reasons not continuing to learn English as a foreign language. Therefore, teachers should look upon themselves as one of the factors which involves in creating dull classes where their student’s attention and interest are not drawn towards learning English. High school teachers often put emphasis on teaching vocabulary and grammar. They try to explain language by the grammatical elements like future tense, passive voice, subjunctive mood, etc. Such activities may be boring and do not draw the students’ attention toward learning the language. Teachers must use methods to give learners an active role. In most cases, learners learn better if they are interested in what they learn and how they learn it. To ignore students in such cases is the opposite of student-centeredness.

Implications for Students

According to this study if learners have an active role in learning process, their motivation will increase and their test anxiety will decrease. Then, Students should take responsibility for their learning. They should ask for freedom and power to make decisions in their learning. It is also necessary for students to know that learning is a product of their own activities and it is based on their prior skill, knowledge, and interest. Therefore, it seems that the effective language learning occurs when students collaborate with teachers and textbook writers in designing useful materials by expressing their attitudes and opinions.

References

Bakhshi, Ali. (1997). Problems of teaching foreign languages in Iran. *Teacher and School Quarterly, 1,* 14-16.

Boggiano, A. K., Shields, A., Barrett, M., Kellam, T., Thompson, E., & Simons, J. (1992). Helpless deficits in students: The role of motivational orientation. *Motivation and Emotion*, *16*(3), 271-296.

Brown, H. D. (2000). Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy. New York: Pearson Education.

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

Chastain, K. (1988). *Developing second language skills*: *Theory to practice.* Chicago: Rand McNally.

De Corte, E. (1993). Learning theory and instructional science. In P. Pollari, (Ed.), *Portfolios in EFL teaching in Finish upper secondary school*. Engl. Teaching Forum 34. 1-2.

Ferrando, P. J., Varea, M. D., & Lorenzo, U. (1999). A psychometric study of Test Anxiety Scale for Children in a Spanish sample. *Personality and Individual Differences, 27*, 34-44.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Newbury: Massachusetts.

Giles, H., & Coupland, N. (1991). *Language: context and consequences*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Jesus, S. N., & Lens, W. (2005). An integrated model for the study of teacher motivation. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 54*(1), 119-134.

Krashen, S. (1987). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. New York: Pergamon.

Kyriacou, C. (1991). *Essential teaching skills.* England: Basil Blackwell Ltd.

Littlewood, W. (1992). *Foreign and second language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D. (1993). *Syllabus design*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2003). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Selinger, H. W., & Shohamy, E. (1989). *Second language research.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.