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Foreword

We proudly present the new issue of *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*; *Volume 10, Number 2, 2014*. In this issue, we publish 12 original articles which promise a lot for the scientific enquiry in language and linguistics research. The first article is "Writing approaches of student teachers of English" by Selma Karabınar. She investigates students' conception of writing within the writing approach framework as deep and surface processes.

Another contribution to the issue is from Nathan J. Devos with her article "A framework for classroom observations in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teacher education" in which she presents a comprehensive six step framework that aids EFL student-teachers in carrying out classroom observations independently, allowing classroom observations to make a more valuable contribution to overall professional growth.

There are two great articles on the importance of pragmatic competence in language learning and teaching in two different contexts. Boudjemaa Dendenne investigates pragmatic transfer in interlanguage requests performed by Algerian EFL learners and discuss practical implications for intercultural communication and speech acts' pedagogy. Besides, Seyyed Hatam Tamimi Sa'd and Mohammad Mohammadi investigate the extent to which Iranian learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) learners are sociolinguistically competent in performing the speech act of refusal and reveal a need for the development of sociolinguistic competence of these learners.

We also publish three articles which have an experimental or quasi-experimental research design. In the article titled "The effect of short stories on teaching vocabulary to very young learners (aged 3-4-year): A suggested common syllabus", Aslı Özlem Tarakçıoğlu and Hatice Kübra Tunçarslan show the effect of short stories on teaching vocabulary to very young learners. In addition, Behzad Nazari and Saeed Mansouri conducted a study on "Dynamic assessment versus static assessment: A study of reading comprehension ability in Iranian EFL learners" and reveal that dynamic assessment was statistically more significant and effective for the low skilled readers than static assessment. Another article is by Marzieh Nezakat-Alhossaini, Manijeh Youhanaee and Ahmad Moinzadeh on the "Impact of explicit instruction on EFL learners' implicit and explicit knowledge: A case of English relative clauses" and reveal a positive effect of explicit instruction for both implicit and explicit knowledge.

Using an interaction-based methodology, Mehmet Sercan Uztosun and İsmail Hakkı Erten investigate communication strategies employed by Turkish EFL learners in order to reveal the relationship between language proficiency and the use of communication strategies in their article titled "The impact of English proficiency on the use of communication strategies: An interaction-based study in Turkish EFL context".

 Oktay Akarsu and Tevfik Darıyemez explore the current reading habits and attitudes of university students studying English Language and Literature at Atatürk University in their study titled "The reading habits of university students studying English language and literature in the digital age".

Ceyhun Yükselir and Leyla Harputlu present an interesting research article titled "An investigation into EFL prep-class students' academic emotions" in which they explore EFL prep-class students' academic emotions in learning and taking a test with reference to departments and gender.

In their article "Motivational behaviors of teachers in Turkish EFL classes: Perception of students", Elçin Ölmezer Öztürk and Selami Ok present some significant insight into the most and least teacher motivation behaviors that would serve teachers as a guide for classroom implications.

Lastly, Shahzad Karim and Naushaba Haq conducted a study titled "Culture of language learning: A comparative study of English language textbooks used in Pakistan" which is concerned with the evaluation of two English language teaching (ELT) textbooks from the point of view of hidden curriculum.

To conclude the foreword and leave you alone with the works published in *Volume 10 Number 2* of *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, we would like to thank the researchers, reviewers, and editorial team members who contributed to our journal, and invite new authors to submit to our journal which now owns the privilege and experience of ten years of academic publishing. Therefore, we are pleased to announce a "call for papers" for our future issues.

On behalf of the editorial board,

Best regards,

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Arif SARIÇOBAN

Editor-in-Chief

Writing approaches of student teachers of English

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Abstract

Complex and multifaceted nature of writing has led the study of writing to fall into wider frameworks of analysis. "The approaches to writing framework" (Biggs, 1988; Lavelle, 1993) presents a different perspective based on the notion that strategies used by the writers are determined by deep or surface level approaches. The aim of this study is to investigate students' conception of writing within the writing approach framework as deep and surface processes. The research was conducted in a Turkish university with 78 final-year student teachers enrolled in English language teaching department. Students' deep and surface level writing approaches were measured through the *Inventory of Processes in College Composition* (IPIC) developed by Lavelle (1993, 1997). 13 participants were interviewed to further investigate their experiences of writing and thus to check whether qualitative data would provide support for the deep and surface approach measured by the inventory. The study provided support for the cross cultural validity of the IPIC applied to a sample of Turkish learner population. The results of the study indicated that majority of the student teachers had deep writing approaches in English language. It was also found out that more female learners tended to have deep approach in their writing compared to male learners. The results of the study may help teachers and curriculum planners in the design of writing environment and development of writing practices. Diagnosing surface approach among learners as a weakness may help teachers to direct their learners' attention to deep processes.

Keywords: Writing approaches; academic writing; deep approach; surface approach; student teachers of English

1. Introduction

Complex and multifaceted nature has led the study of writing to fall into wider frameworks of analysis. Those conceptual frameworks of writing can be classified into three broad categories that are principally concerned with texts, writers and readers. In text oriented research, writing has been viewed as textual products. From this view, writing is disembodied. In other words, context and personal experience of the writer is ignored because meaning can be encoded in texts and decoded by anyone who can focus exclusively on linguistic and rhetorical knowledge (Hyland, 2002).

Reader oriented research expands the concept of writing by drawing attention to semantic potential of a text. In such a view, writing is viewed as social interaction in which power and ideology are shaped by reader and writer through "negotiation in a textual space" (Nystrand, 1989, cited in Hyland, 2002, p. 35). Accordingly, a text makes sense within the community for which it is written because it reflects the

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sociocultural understandings of that community rather than individual choice of writers (Nystrand, Greene & Wiemelt, 1993).

On the other hand, writer oriented research addresses the personal creativity of the individual writer, cognitive processes of writing and writer's immediate context (Hyland, 2002). In writer oriented research, writing is mainly highlighted as personal expression and writing has been defined as a vehicle for self expression or in other words, "the externalization and remaking of thinking" (Applebee, 1984; Emig, 1977, cited in Lavelle & Zuercher, 2001, p. 373). In such a definition, writing has been considered as a reflective tool for making meaning since writers have their own intentions and beliefs which are reflected in their writing (Lavelle & Zuercher, 2001). Interest in the writer's composing processes has been extended and developed by research which focuses on the cognitive aspects of writing. Borrowing the techniques and theories of cognitive psychology, it generated an enormous body of research. A number of cognitive models attempted to describe writing processes in terms of problem solving (Flower & Hayes, 1979), memory (McCutchen, 1996) and cognitive development (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000). In line with those attempts, the approaches to writing model (Biggs, 1988; Lavelle, 1993) brought a different perspective to understanding how students engage in academic writing tasks by emphasizing the role of writers' beliefs and intentions related to writing processes. Basically, the model aimed to explain how students' beliefs affect their choices of strategies in academic writing and consequently learning outcomes.

1.1. Literature review

1.1.1. Approches to learning

Among the early researchers, Marton and Saljo (1976, cited in Christina, Kirby & Fabrina, 2003) used the term 'approach' in order to describe students' personal experiences of learning and concluded that students may adopt either deep or surface level processing depending on what they intend to get out of a learning task. When students have deep approach, they are able to relate their existing knowledge to new information by the help of specific learning strategies and to form opinions at the end. On the other hand, the surface approach requires students to focus on rote memorisation aiming at verbatim recall of the text with an extrinsic motivation generally originated from fear of failure. Biggs (1987) and Entwistle and Ramsden (1983) have expanded the notions of deep and surface approaches to learning incorporating motivational factors and study strategies. According to Entwistle (1988) deep approach is associated with intrinsic motivation that is driven by the learner's own desire to learn and the need for success whereas the surface approach is related to extrinsic motivation where the student's goal is just to complete the task.

The deep and surface paradigm has been researched through psychometric investigations (Biggs, 1988; Ramsden & Entwistle, 1981; Schmeck, Geisler-Brenstein & Cercy, 1991) and applied to studying (Schmeck, 1988), to academic reading (Marton & Saljo, 1976) and to writing (Biggs, 1988; Hounsell, 1997; Lavelle, 1993,1997).

Recently, Kırkgöz (2013) investigated the approach(es) to learning adopted by the first and final-year university students studying in the medium of English language. The results of the study revealed a tendency towards surface learning during their first-year and a mixture of surface and meaningful learning during the final-year. Senemoğlu (2011) compared learning approach of Turkish and American students studying at college of education. The results of the study revealed that majority of both Turkish and American pre-service teachers preferred deep and strategic approaches to learning, and as the school year increased, the use of deep approach increased.

1.1.2. Approaches to writing

Biggs (1988, 1999) reinterpreted and applied approach perspective to college writing when he described the interaction between the student and the environment of learning. In order to refine conceptualisation of the model in writing research, deep and surface level processes were distinguished in writing tasks. As Lavelle and Zuercher (2001) pointed out, in deep approach the focus is at a higher conceptual level and the intention of writers is a full engagement in the task with a need to know and it requires "seeing the task as a whole and proactive engagement in learning" (p. 374). On the other hand, in surface approach, writers' "goal is just to comply with the task demands, the learning activity involves a low level cognitive engagement" and it requires only "reproduction of information and memorization" (Lavelle & Zuercher, 2001, p. 374). In the composition research, similar to deep and surface dichotomy, various classifications were used for different age groups. For example, in the studies with children, the distinction was made between '*reactive and reflective*' (Graves, 1973), '*symbolizers and socializers*' (Dyson, 1987), '*knowledge telling and knowledge transforming*' (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1982) and '*reflexive and extensive*' (Emig, 1971). In studies with young adults, some other terms were used to distinguish between writers with deep and surface approach such as '*engineers and sculptors*' (Torrence, Thomas & Robinson, 1994) and '*planners and revisers*' (Biggs, Lai, Tang & Lavelle, 1999).

As one of the major proponents of the deep and surface approaches model in writing research, Lavelle (1993, 1997) developed the Inventory of Processes in College Composition (IPIC) and she conducted a number of studies to support the content, concurrent and predictive validity of the instrument. The results of the validity study conducted by Lavelle in 1993 revealed that the scales in the Inventory can be used as predictive measures of college student learning styles and composition grades. Another study conducted by Lavelle in 1997 supported the scale scores to be predictive of college students' performance of narrative writing, complexity of essay outcome and writing apprehension. In addition to quantitative methods used in the previous studies, Lavelle and Zuercher (2001) used the interview technique with the students enrolled in two freshmen composition classes at a university in the United States to further validate the IPIC. Their study gave support for the five factor structure of deep and surface approaches. In another study, using a confirmatory factor analysis procedure Lavelle and Guarino (2003) proved the construct validity of the five-factor model of the IPIC, as well as second-order structure as deep and surface approaches.

The writing approaches of secondary students were investigated by Lavelle, Smith and O'Ryan in 2002 through IPISC (Inventory of Processes in Secondary Composition). This study revealed that the IPISC was three dimensional and only two of them were the same as the college model with five dimensions. More recently, the writing approaches of graduate students were also investigated through IPGW (Inventory of Processes in Graduate Writing) by Lavelle and Bushrow in 2007. This study revealed that there were seven factors in IPGW based on the writing-related beliefs and strategies of graduate students and only one of them 'Intuitive' was found to be predictive of the quality of writing.

1.1.3. Lavelle's Inventory of Processes in College Composition (IPIC)

According to Lavelle's (1993, 1997) theoretical model in the IPIC inventory, there are five factors shaping writing approaches; Elaborative, Reflective-Revision, Low Self-Efficacy, Spontaneous-Impulsive and Procedural. Of these five factors, Elaborative and Reflective-Revision strategies form deep approach. On the other hand, Low Self-Efficacy, Spontaneous-impulsive and Procedural strategies

form the surface approach. Core characteristics of writers with deep approach were as follows: (Lavelle &Zuercher, 2001; Lavelle & Guarino 2003)

- being reflective, engaged, thesis driven, autonomous and teacher independent
- having high or alternating level of focus, hierarchical organization, audience concern, revision and coherence
- thinking about essay as an integrated whole
- concern for going beyond assignment, feeling of satisfaction, actively making meaning and transforming

On the other hand, core characteristics of writers with surface approach were summarised by Lavelle and Zuercher (2001) and Lavelle and Guarino (2003) as follows:

- being reproductive, detached, data-driven, rule-bound and teacher independent
- having focus on the local level, linear sequential structure, less audience concern
- seeing essay as an organized display
- concern for editing, cohesion, passive ordering of data and telling within the given context

On the basis of the core characteristics of deep and surface approach, different motives and strategies applied by the writers with deep and surface approach were also summarized by Lavelle and Zuercher (2001) and Lavelle and Guarino (2003) under the five main factors.

As the first factor of deep approach, 'Elaborative' strategy suggests a search for personal meaning and self investment. It requires the writer to view writing as symbolic, a deep personal investment and to employ tools such as visualization. It indicates manipulation of audience and voice, extending the work or going beyond the requirements of the task, self referencing and bringing oneself to the situation of writing. The motive for Elaborative writers is *to self express* and the common strategies are visualizing and concern for audience. Sample items in the inventory include statements such as: "Writing makes me feel good." "I put a lot of myself in my writing." "At times, my writing has given me a deep personal satisfaction." "I imagine the reactions that my readers might have to my paper. " "I sometimes get sudden inspirations in writing" (Lavelle &Zuercher, 2001, p. 387).

The second factor of deep approach 'Reflective-Revision' suggests a more sophisticated way of revision in which one can rebuild his or her own thinking – logical reasoning. It requires "willingness to take charge in writing to make meaning for oneself and for the audience " (Lavelle & Zuercher, 2001, p. 376). The level of focus is high and involves thematic and global concerns. "These students adopt the '*sculptor'* rather than '*engineer'* strategy (cf. Biggs et al., 1999). Writing and revision are intertwined in a dynamic process geared toward making meaning" (Lavelle & Zuercher, 2001, p. 377). The motive for Reflective Revision writers is *to make meaning* and the common strategies are revision, reshaping and drafting. Sample items from the inventory include statements such as: "In my writing, I use some ideas to support other, larger ideas." "I complete each sentence and revise it before going onto the next." "I re-examine and restate my thoughts in revision." "Revision is the process of finding the shape of my writing." "It is important o me to like what I have written." "The question dictates the type of essay called for" (Lavelle &Zuercher, 2001, p. 388).

The first factor of surface approach 'Low Self-Efficacy' is based on a fearful approach considering writing as a painful task. These writers have poor writing self-concept with a high degree of learned helplessness and they do not use writing as a tool for self expression and meaning (Lavelle & Zuercher, 2001). Their motive in writing is *to acquire the skill and to avoid pain* and their common strategies are studying grammar, collaborating and finding encouragement. Items referring to Low Self-Efficacy in the inventory include statements such as: "Studying grammar and punctuation would greatly improve my writing. " "Having my writing evaluated scares me. " "If the assignment calls for 1000 words, I try

to write just about it." "I need special encouragement to do my best writing." "I like to work in small groups to discuss ideas or to do revision in writing." "I cannot revise my own writing because I cannot see my own mistakes" (Lavelle &Zuercher, 2001, pp. 387-388).

The second factor of surface approach 'Spontaneous- Impulsive' suggests an unplanned defensive approach with minimal involvement in writing. These writers view writing as a one-step procedure. The motive for Spontaneous-Impulsive writers is *to get done* and the common strategies are writing at the last minute, writing without planning or revision and writing just like talking. Therefore, in the inventory, Spontaneous-Impulsive writers are hypothesized to show strong agreement with the statements such as: "My writing 'just happens' with little planning or preparation. " "Often my first draft is my finished product." "I never think about how I go about writing. " "I plan, write and revise all the same time." "Revision is one time process at the end" (Lavelle & Zuercher, 2001, p. 388).

The third factor of surface approach 'Procedural' suggests strict adherence to the rules and emphasis on 'control' in writing. Such writers try to please the teacher rather than to communicate or reflect. Lavelle and Zuercher (2001) comment that procedural emphasis on 'control' perhaps acts as a barrier for theme and voice to emerge in writing and take writers' attention to the task under time limitations. The motive for Procedural writers is *to please the teacher* and the common strategies are observing rules, organizing and managing writing. Procedural scale of the IPIC Inventory includes statements such as: "When writing an essay, I stick to the rules." "The teacher is the most important audience." "I worry about how much time my essay or paper will take. " "The main reason for writing an essay or paper is to get a good grade on it. " "An essay is primarily a sequence of ideas, an orderly arrangement" (Lavelle & Zuercher, 2001, p. 389).

The purpose of the present study was to investigate student teachers' conception of writing within the writing approaches framework as deep and surface approaches. Students' deep and surface level approaches were measured through the Inventory of Processes in College Composition (IPIC). Furthermore, a group of participants was interviewed about their experiences in academic writing tasks in order to examine whether their comments would provide further support for the deep and surface approaches identified by the IPIC. Lavelle and Zuercher (2001) applied the IPIC in combination with an interview procedure in the United States to a sample of Freshman students using English as a native or second language. On the other hand, the present research replicated the interview and analysis procedure of Lavelle and Zuercher's (2001) study with a sample from Turkish university students enrolled in English language teaching department and using English as a foreign language. Therefore, the present research intended to compare the results gathered from two different countries and educational settings because "cross-cultural comparisons provide for researchers a valuable basis for testing the external validity and generalizability of their measures, theories and models " (Marsh, Hau & Kong, 2002, p.727).

1.2. Research questions

The study aimed to address the following research questions:
1. What is the frequency of deep and surface writing approaches among student teachers?
2. Is gender a factor in deep and surface writing approaches?
3. Do student interviews about their writing experiences provide support for deep and surface approach determined by the inventory?

2. Method

2.1. Participants

The participants of the study were 78 final-year student teachers from the Faculty of Education – Department of English Language Teaching at Marmara University. The average age was 21. Of the total, 55 were female while 23 were male. They learned English as a foreign language for about 9 years. In most of their courses, English is used as the medium of instruction. They were provided with compulsory writing courses in English in their freshman year to ensure high level of academic writing skills as they were trained to be English language teachers. They were all native speakers of Turkish language.

2.2. Instruments

The self-report Inventory (IPIC): The Inventory of Processes in College Composition (IPIC) developed by Lavelle (1993, 1997) is based on a 4 point Likert-type scale (from 4= strongly agree to 1= strongly disagree). Although the participants' language proficiency was high enough to understand the items written in English, Turkish translations were provided for a few of the items which were identified as difficult for their understanding during the piloting of the Inventory.

Interview protocol: The aim of the interviews was to investigate students' experience of writing and analyze their comments in relation to their writing approaches measured by the IPIC. Following the suggestions made by Lavelle and Zuercher (2001), four questions were used in the interview protocol. The questions were designed to elicit comments about student teachers' preferences and their self-concepts, feelings, attitude, strengths and shortcomings related to writing. The last question was intended for identifying surface approach through questioning learners' perception of 'time' as a factor in writing. Wordings of the first and second questions were exactly the same as the ones used by Lavelle and Zuercher (2001). However, the third and fourth questions were changed slightly keeping meaning the same (3. Describe your experience of writing. Does your thinking change in writing? Your interpretation of the task? 4. Are you concerned about how much time your writing task takes?)

Following questions were posed and some probing questions were added when needed during the interviews:

1. Who are you as a writer?
2. What type of writing tasks do you prefer? Why?
3. How do you write? Do you change what and how you write? Does your thinking change while writing?
4. Are you concerned about time when writing?

2.3. Data Collection and analysis

The IPIC was administered to 78 participants during their regular class period. After a brief instruction, students responded to the original 75 items. Mean completion time was 25 minutes. Data was analyzed through SPSS 20.0 software program. Descriptive statistics and chi square test for independence were used in the analysis of quantitative data.

In order to answer the first research question and to find out which approach, deep or surface, is more common among students, mean scores of deep and surface approach were calculated for each student first. Then, each student was identified as a writer having either deep or surface approach. The decision was made by comparing the mean scores of deep and surface approaches. Higher mean score determined

which approach each individual had. In order to answer the second research question which is about the effect of gender on deep and surface writing approaches, chi square test was applied.

Replicating the interview and analysis procedure of the study conducted by Lavelle and Zuercher (2001), 7 students from each approach with the highest scores were chosen to be interviewed. Interestingly one of the students scored highest on both deep and surface approach scales; therefore a total number of 13 students were interviewed individually. After a brief introduction and warm up, interviews were tape-recorded upon participants' agreement. Interviews were conducted in a semi-structured format. Students were not informed about their scores in order not to cause them to be biased during the interviews. Although the participants were proficient users of English language as final-year student teachers of English, the interviews were conducted in students' mother tongue to provide them with as much comfort as possible and elicit as much information as possible. Interviews with each student took about 5-7 minutes in researcher's private office. During the analysis process, pseudonyms were given to interviewees.

Data was transcribed and analyzed through content analysis. Core characteristics in deep and surface approaches were the basis of content analysis. Pre-determined themes were identified in the qualitative data in terms of motives and strategies applied by the writers with deep and surface approach summarised in the related literature by Lavelle and Zuercher (2001) and Lavelle and Guarino (2003). Under the five main factors, the following themes were determined to be analyzed in the interview data:

Elaborative writers and *self expressing* (visualizing and concern for audience)

Reflective Revision writers and *making meaning* (revision, reshaping and drafting)

Writers with Low self-efficacy and *acquiring skill and avoiding pain* (studying grammar, collaborating and finding encouragement)

Spontaneous-Impulsive writers and *getting done* (writing at the last minute, writing without planning or revision and writing just like talking)

Procedural writers and *pleasing the teacher* (observing rules, organizing and managing writing)

3. Results

In order to provide an estimate of the internal consistency of the Inventory, reliability coefficients for each subscale namely deep and surface approaches were calculated.

Table 1. Reliability estimates of the inventory

	Mean	Range	SD	Alpha
Deep Approach	105	62-129	13.2	.88
Surface Approach	106	73-136	10.9	.82
Total	211	143-254	20.5	.88

As Table 1 demonstrates, coefficient alpha reliability values were .88 for deep approach and .82 for surface approach. The overall reliability of the Inventory was .88. Reliability analysis showed that coefficient values for both subscales (deep and surface) indicated acceptable level of internal consistency.

3.1. Frequency of deep and surface writing approaches

In order to find out which approach, deep or surface, is more common among student teachers, frequencies and percentages were calculated according to the highest score from each scale. The results of frequency were presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Frequency of deep and surface writing approach

	f	%
Deep Approach	57	73
Surface Approach	21	27

As Table 2 illustrates, of the total 78 participants, 57 (73 %) had deep approach while 21 (27 %) had surface approach. Therefore, it is concluded that the frequency of student teachers with deep approach is higher than the frequency of student teachers with surface approach.

3.2. Effect of gender on deep and surface writing approaches

In order to find out whether there is a significant relation between gender and writing approaches, a chi square test was conducted. Table 3 presents the number and percentages of learners who have deep and surface approach according to gender.

Table 3. Frequency and percentage of writing approaches according to gender

	Female		Male		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Deep Approach	44	56.4	13	16.7	57	73.1
Surface Approach	11	14.1	10	12.8	21	26.9
Total	55	70.5	23	29.5	78	100

The result of chi square test revealed that there is a significant relation between gender and writing approaches. More female learners have deep approach than male learners. In other words, proportion of female learners who have deep writing approach is significantly higher than that of male learners (chi square=4.544, df=1, p=.033).

3.3. Results of interviews

Table 4 presents means, standard deviations and range for the IPIC scale scores.

Table 4. Means, standard deviations and range for the IPIC scale scores

	Mean	SD	Range
Elaborative	68.9	11.2	30-88
Reflective-Revision	36.5	3.1	28-44
Low Self-efficacy	34.7	4.7	25-45
Spontaneous-Impulsive	37.1	5.1	22-50
Procedural	28.9	4.3	14-36

Table 5 presents individual students' scores. According to the highest scores received by the participants, 13 students were identified as representing students with deep or surface approach.

Table 5. Students with high scores on deep and surface approach

Deep		Surface		
Elab.	R.R.	L.S.E.	S.I.	Pr.

Ayse	88				
Ece		41			
Fatma	86				
Tuba		40			
Gul	83				
Can	84				
Ada			40	49	
Hakan					36
Tamer				50	
Seda					34
Ebru				47	
Dilek					34
Nur		38	41		35

Elab: Elaborative, R.R: Reflective-Revision, L.S.E: Low Self Efficacy
S.I: Spontaneous-Impulsive, Pr: Procedural

Among the participants with deep approach, there were 4 Elaborative and 2 Reflective Revision writers. Among surface approach participants, there were 3 Procedural and 2 Spontaneous-Impulsive writers. Other 2 participants scored high on more than one scale. One of them, Ada, had high scores on two different surface approach scales but the other student, Nur, interestingly scored high on both surface and deep approach scales.

Ayse Elaborative
Ece   Reflective-Revision
Fatma Elaborative
Tuba   Reflective-Revision
Gul   Elaborative
Can   Elaborative
Ada   Low Self-Efficacy/Spontaneous-Impulsive
Hakan Procedural
Tamer Spontaneous-Impulsive
Seda   Procedural
Ebru   Spontaneous-Impulsive
Dilek   Procedural
Nur   Reflective-Revision/ Low Self-Efficacy/ Procedural

3.3.1. Interview results of students with deep approach

Interview data of students with deep approach was analyzed according to the two main themes derived from the motives and strategies of deep approach writers. When the data was analyzed, it was observed that there was no clear cut distinction between Elaborative and Reflective-Revision writers in terms of the themes emerged in their comments about their writing experiences because similar themes were identified in their data. Therefore, both Elaborative and Reflective-Revision writers included in the following two themes 'self expressing' and 'making meaning' which were originally intended to be for Elaborative and Reflective Revision writers respectively.

3.3.1.1. Self expressing (visualizing and concern for audience)

Students who had deep approach (scored high on Elaborative or Reflective-Revision scales) described writing as a way of expressing themselves. Writing gives them a feeling of satisfaction. They also frequently expressed emotional connection to writing. Ayşe whose approach was Elaborative stated "I have a style. I follow some grammar rules and some other conventions according to the type of writing; however I always try to add something from me. "

Another "Elaborative " Fatma said:

> *I like to write things in which I can express myself such as journals or book reviews ....when you finished writing and see the outcome you say 'vow! I wrote this'. You do not know what will come out. And what you produced makes you feel happy at the end.*

Ece who scored high on Reflective-Revision reported:

> *In my academic writing, for example when I write term papers, I collect information and then I wait a couple of days. I wait till I can find something different and original. It is like problem solving and I try to find out an answer to this problem as a writer.... I try to write things which are not written before and totally belong to me.*

Gul who had an Elaborative approach reported her positive feelings about writing by saying "I can express what I know better in writing … I like the way of planning and writing according to that plan. That`s why I enjoy academic writing. " Tuba (Reflective-Revision) as another deep approach learner stated that "I remember that once we commented on an article and I liked such type of writing in which I can add my own thoughts. "

3.3.1.2. Making meaning (revision, reshaping and drafting)

Elaborative writers reported concern about audience and manipulation of voice. For example, Gul stated "I make a lot of changes. Of course, I plan my writing but I continuously think about my writing in terms of what needs to be changed and what was not really good." Another Elaborative Fatma stated "The first thing that I produced never satisfies me. I do change the outline I made. I never keep the outline as it is." Similarly Ayse (Elaborative) commented "As we learned drafting in our writing class, I write my first draft and check it myself and get it checked by some others then I rewrite it."

The students who scored high on Reflective-Revision scale reported a sophisticated understanding of revision. For example, Ece who scored high on Reflective-Revision reported "I make frequent changes in my writing because I go on thinking while writing and generate new things in the flow of ideas. " Along the same line, the students with Reflective-Revision approach reported a more thematic and global concerns. For example Tuba said:

> *Writing is not so easy for me. The topic or the subject of writing should be interesting first. I need to have background information on the topic then I need to edit my thoughts. Starting is the most difficult. After I start, I can go on and succeed to finish.*

Nur who was both Reflective and Procedural with Low Self-Efficacy sounded Reflective when saying "I am able to express myself well when writing. ... and I like literary styles. "

Among deep approach learners, there was only one exception, Can who interestingly scored high on Elaborative scale did not reflect any signs of deep approach characteristics. He sounded more like 'Spontaneous Impulsive' in his comments during the interview. He used the following sentences when talking about his writing experiences at university:

> *I am not the person of rules. I do not like the things that limit me. Academic writing is difficult in that sense... My writing changes a lot from beginning till the end. I do not think much*

> *while writing. I can spend a day for a page full of writing. I can have a plan neither in my writing nor in my life.*

3.3.2. Interview results of students with surface approach

Interview data of students with surface approach was analyzed according to three main themes: *'Acquiring skill and avoiding pain'*, *'pleasing the teacher'* and *'getting done'*. These themes were derived from the motives and strategies adopted by writers with surface approach.

3.3.2.1. Acquiring skill and avoiding pain (studying grammar, collaborating and finding encouragement)

The students who scored high on the three surface scales confirmed their approach identified by the IPIC during the interviews. Ada who was identified as a person scoring high on Low Self Efficacy scale and also Spontaneous-Impulsive scale showed her unwillingness and said "Academic writing is something we have to do … I think a little bit of my writing but it does not take too long. " She tried to just write and comply with task demands. There was no sense of involvement as she reflected it by saying: "I never overestimate writing and never get stuck… "

Although Nur scored high on both deep and surface scales, her comments did not reflect much sign of Low Self Efficacy. The only clue about her lack of self efficacy was observed when she said: "I felt worried before writing exams and assignments. "

3.3.2.2. Getting done (writing at the last minute, writing without planning or revision and writing just like talking)

Tamer as a Spontaneous-Impulsive writer showed his unplanned approach by saying: "Academic writing does not suit my personality because as I said before it requires a lot of search for relevant information. " He also summarized how he applied 'getting done' strategy in his following sentences: "If I can concentrate, I can write and I do not make any changes. When I finish my writing, it means I wrote what I wanted. "

Ebru, another Spontaneous-Impulsive responded: "Academic writing is difficult for me …. I do change my sentences a lot. Sometimes writing a sentence may take a lot. "She added that she preferred spontaneous styles: "I keep a diary and write about my own memories etc."

Ada who was also identified as a Spontaneous-Impulsive writer commented that:

> *I start with a general idea then go into minor details ... I do not plan much about what I will write in paragraphs. I think about my writing for a while but it never takes too much. ... and I never get stuck while writing since I do not overestimate what I write.*

3.3.2.3. Pleasing the teacher (observing rules, organizing and managing writing)

Hakan who had a Procedural approach showed how rule bound he was by saying "I have an outline I try not to go beyond that outline. If it is really necessary to change my outline I do, but I do not prefer it."

Similarly, Seda as another Procedural stated "I do not write as long as there is no such strict requirement…. It depends on my mood but I change things a lot …. I do not think much and do not plan much. It comes naturally while I go about writing."

Furthermore, Dilek who had a Procedural approach said:

Writing is the most difficult way of expressing yourself ... I never prefer writing over speaking ... I have a problem of organizing my ideas. I try to start as early as possible since I am worried about time.

Nur who was both Reflective and Procedural with Low Self-Efficacy gave clues about her Procedural approach by saying "I like writing … There needs to be an outline to follow. And I do not make much change in my writing. "

Although there are 4, only 2 writers who were identified as having Procedural approach commented on their concern about time. For example Dilek said: "Although I start quite early to write, I may not be able to put things together in my writing and have problem with time management. " In the same way, Hakan said: "If there is a deadline for an assignment, it worries me because I may not finish on time."

4. Discussion and conclusion

The current study indicated that most of the student teachers had deep writing approach in writing in English language. This was not surprising since the participants were proficient users of the English language as student teachers of English language. Secondly, they were at their last year of university education and up to that year they had taken academic writing courses and some other reading and literature courses in which they practiced different writing tasks related to negotiation of meaning and self-reflection. Although the context was writing approaches in the present study, this result was in line with two other studies conducted with Turkish university students in the context of learning approaches. The first study which had a similar result was conducted by Senemoğlu (2011) who found that both Turkish and American students studying at college of education preferred deep approach to learning. In the second study with similar results, Kırkgöz (2013) compared first and final-year university students studying in the medium of English language at different departments and she found out that final-year students had a tendency towards deep approach and more meaningful learning during the final-year.

Regarding the gender differences, the results of the study partly provided support for the study conducted by Lavelle and Bushrow (2007). In their study, the participants were graduate students and the instrument was IGWP (Inventory of Graduate Writing Processes) which was comprised of deep and surface approaches. Their results revealed no significant difference based on gender. However, in the current study while there was a statistically significant difference between female and male learners in deep approach, there was not any significant difference in surface approach. Female learners may tend to be more elaborative and self-reflective compared to male learners in their writing.

In general, the present study confirmed the findings of Lavelle and Zeurcher's (2001) study in which the student interviews gave additional support to the validity of deep and surface approaches measured by the IPIC. Similarly, in the current study, all students' interview comments matched with how they scored on the inventory except one student, Can. He scored high on the Elaborative subscale. On the other hand, he sounded more like an Impulsive Spontaneous writer in his interview. This may be a result of his careless and superficial way of reading items in the inventory and he might have used 'getting done' strategy while responding to the inventory.

When the subscales of deep approach were analyzed, in contrast to Lavelle and Zeurcher's (2001) findings, there was not much difference observed between Elaborative and Reflective-Revision writers in the present study. Lavelle and Zeurcher (2001) found a basic distinction between Reflective-Revision and Elaborative approaches. They concluded that while Elaborative writers referred more about their feelings (interviews were longer and in-depth) Reflective-Revision approach writers did not report much about personal expression. In the present research, both Elaborative writers and Reflective-Revision approach writers expressed their self-referencing and referred to their feelings about writing.

Interviews confirmed the validity of three surface scales namely, Low Self-Efficacy, Procedural and Spontaneous-Impulsive. Similar to Lavelle and Zeurcher's (2001) findings, none of the surface approach writers commented on self expression and high level of focus and revision but instead they expressed their dislike and lack of full engagement with writing tasks. On the other hand, participants did not mention much concern about time. This might be because they were not given timed writing tasks in the classroom but they were assigned more long-term projects submitted to teachers as written reports at the end of the courses.

From an instructional perspective, psychometric measures may present an alternative to identify learners' approaches as an additional tool to teachers' informal observation. Diagnosing surface approach among learners as a weakness may help teachers to direct their learners' attention to deep processes. As Lavelle and Guarino (2003) suggested, it is important to consider writing as a recursive process involving a global focus with bird's eye view rather than discrete, isolated micro skills. When writing was considered as a tool for reshaping thinking, writers will take an agentic position and there will be personal involvement and self-referencing during the drafting and revision of writing. Attention to theme, genre, voice and audience can be keys to teaching writing.

In terms of educational implications, to promote a deep conception of writing, instructors might encourage authentic tasks such as e-mail exchange, web-based activities and journal writing. Those tasks with collaborative opportunities would help students find relevance and use deep approach strategies such as high level of focus, getting involved in meaning and autonomy. As many researchers pointed out, self-regulation has been a critical factor affecting motivation and academic learning, managing writing processes, managing constraints, and audience (Graham & Harris, 1997; Graham & Harris, 2000; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994; Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 1999). Thus, self-regulatory activities over long periods of time such as self-scheduling, reflective engagement with ideas, and creative effort can have priority in the design of instructional plans.

Deep processes such as synthesizing, being critical and evaluating differing perspectives may need to be modeled and practiced prior to writing. As addressed by Smith, Campbell and Brooker (1999), feedback from critical readers with a more sophisticated analysis of the essays contributes a lot to students' ability in critical thinking, writing and evaluating.

As Lavelle, Smith and O'Ryan (2002) stated writing approaches are linked to 'students' reactions to the instructional situations. Instruction should involve more sophisticated strategies such as autonomy and reflection rather than prescriptive writing tasks in which learners engage in surface features of writing such as mastery of grammar through the tasks of fill- in- the blanks.

A number of studies have been conducted to highlight the role of self-efficacy in writing (Meier, McCarthy & Schmeck, 1984; Pajares and Johnson, 1996). A positive correlation was found between self-efficacy in writing and deep approach to studying by Prat-Sala and Redford (2010). Similarly low self-efficacy in writing was hypothesized as closely linked to surface approach in Lavelle's (1993, 1997) inventory. In the current study, the interviews with the participants who were identified as holding surface approach supported this hypothesis. The comments made by those students during the interviews clearly revealed their low self efficacy in writing. As suggested by Lavelle and Bushrow (2007), providing collaborative opportunities such as supportive group work and peer reviews may foster higher level of writing self-efficacy in students.

As Howie and Bagnall (2013) claim in their critique, despite the model being underdeveloped, the model of deep and surface approaches to learning has had many positive impacts on teachers, teacher training and teaching institutions. It may lead to a surge in critical reflection on teacher training, rethinking of teaching practices, assessment and evaluation processes, and curriculum and syllabus designs.

In summary, the present research gave support for deep and surface dimensions of the IPIC by measuring student teachers' writing approaches in English. Measuring writing approaches might hopefully help teachers to understand what students do and which strategies they apply while writing. It may also help teachers to decide about learners' need and to design writing tasks and instructions accordingly.

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İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının yazma ile ilgili yaklaşımları

Öz

Karmaşık ve çok yönlü yapısı nedeni ile akademik yazma süreci birçok değişik açıdan analiz edilmiştir. "Yazma yaklaşımları modeli " (Biggs, 1988; Lavelle, 1993) yazma süreci sırasında kullanılan stratejilerin derin ve yüzeysel yaklaşımlara göre belirlendiği görüşünden yola çıkan farklı bir bakış açısı sağlamaktadır. Çalışmanın amacı öğrencilerin derin ve yüzeysel olmak üzere yazma ile ilgili yaklaşımlarını araştırmaktır. Araştırma Türkiye'de bir üniversitede İngilizce Öğretmenliği bölümünde son sınıf öğrencisi olan 78 öğretmen adayı ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Öğrencilerin yazma yaklaşımlarını ölçmek için Lavelle (1993, 1997) tarafından geliştirilen IPIC envanteri kullanılmıştır. Ayrıca öğrencilerin akademik yazma ile ilgili görüşlerini daha iyi irdeleyebilmek ve envanterin ölçtüğü derin ve yüzeysel yaklaşımları ne kadar yansıtacaklarını görmek amacı ile 13 öğrenci ile yüz yüze görüşme yapılarak nitel veriler toplanmıştır. Araştırma sonuçları öğrencilerin çoğunluğunun derin yazma yaklaşımlarına sahip olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Erkek öğrencilere göre kız öğrenciler arasında derin yazma yaklaşımları daha yaygındır. Yüz yüze görüşmelerde, öğrencilerin yaptığı yorumlar envanter sonucu ortaya çıkan yüzeysel ve derin yaklaşımların geçerliliğini destekler mahiyettedir. Öğrencilerin yazma yaklaşımlarının irdelenmesi öğretmenlerin ve ders programı yapan eğitimcilerin yazma derslerini planlamasına yardımcı olacak ve yüzeysel yaklaşımların tespit edilmesi durumunda derin yaklaşımları ortaya çıkaracak eğitim faaliyetleri düzenlemeye teşvik edecektir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Yazma yaklaşımları; akademik yazma; derin yaklaşım; yüzeysel yaklaşım; İngilizce öğretmen adayları

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A framework for classroom observations in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teacher education

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Abstract

This article presents a framework for implementing classroom observations in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teacher education. It is an effort to provide a comprehensive six step framework that aids EFL student-teachers (ST) in carrying out classroom observations independently, while simultaneously minimizing potential interpersonal conflicts with other participants involved. The aim of this paper is to provide ST and educators in EFL teacher education a workable framework for the independent implementation of classroom observations, allowing classroom observations to make a more valuable contribution to overall professional growth.

Keywords: Classroom observations; language teaching; teacher education; professional development

1. Introduction

In all subject fields of teacher education, classroom observations are a significant component for the professional growth of student-teachers (ST) during teacher training. Classroom observations provide ST the possibility to observe, document and learn about classroom life. Effective experiences from observations during teacher training ease the transition from teacher education into the reality of daily teaching. The ability to critically and effectively observe in classrooms is a learned skill but crucial to becoming a teaching professional and a life-long learner. It is often difficult, however, for ST to observe EFL classroom activity through lenses that actually allow them to grow as teaching professionals. One reason is that EFL classrooms are incredibly complex places. Richards and Farrell (2005) describe language lessons as "dynamic and, to some extent, unpredictable events. They involve many different participants and often several different things are happening simultaneously. Classroom events sometimes unfold very quickly, so taking note of multiple events in real time is often impossible" (p. 88); consequently, filtering out something worth observing for their professional growth remains challenging for ST.

Another reason classroom observations remain difficult is the effect of the ST's own cognition. Borg (2003) describes teacher cognition as the "unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe and think" (p. 81). This unobservable cognitive dimension includes the processing cycle teachers experience as they detach from their student role and emerge into professionally qualified teachers. On an affective level, for many teachers the notion of classroom observations often conjures up negative feelings of evaluation. Richards and Farrell (2005) also report that "observation tends to be

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identified with evaluation, and consequently it is often regarded as a threatening or negative experience" (p. 85). This must not be the case as only some observations are meant to be evaluative in teacher education, while others are for teacher development or a better understanding of classroom dynamics. In fact, nonevaluative observations should occur more frequently in teacher education than evaluative observations as these are the types welcomed by teachers and foster personal as well as professional growth for ST. Hence, in order for more nonevaluative observations to occur, and for these to be fruitful, a transparent process of observation for both the observed and observer from the initial purpose to the end product must be developed.

2. A framework for classroom observations in EFL teacher education

The presented framework serves to act as a roadmap, guiding ST through six steps for implementing and participating in productive and less threatening classroom observations. It differs from other observation schemes (e.g. COLT by Spada & Fröhlich, 1995) in that it does not preconceive what ST should observe in the classroom by providing items for time or event sampling, rather it focuses primarily on the sociocultural process of internalization as the ST externally observe classroom interactivity (emotions) and internalize this knowledge by amalgamating it with existent knowledge schemata (thinking). This relates closely to the Vygotskyan notion that one cannot separate emotions from thinking, an area in language teacher education also explored by Johnson (2013). However, by applying this framework, ST can begin to disengage from the tumult of interaction in the classroom, as well as the emotions these conjure based on current or prior experiences, and focus more clearly on the concrete activities that can be observed for professional growth. Thus, this framework is meant to serve ST's cognitive dimension in particular as it cognitively and systematically prepares them for conducting, reflecting and internalizing their classroom observations for professional growth.

In other words, it is meant to increase ST's consciousness and critical thinking during this important component of their teacher training and ultimately improve their chances of reaping greater rewards from classroom observations. It additionally includes suggestions that could reduce tensions between observers and observed participants, as resentment occasionally arises when the former provide feedback to the latter despite helpful intentions (Fanselow, 1988). Tensions in observation are not uncommon as teachers' feel exposed when others observe them in their teaching arenas. Richards and Farrell (2005) underscore the need for transparent procedures for both the observer and the observed: "Because observation involves an intrusion into a colleague's classroom, procedures for carrying out observations need to be carefully negotiated between the participating parties" (p. 94). It is my belief that interpersonal conflicts about classroom observations can be reduced if all the participants are working with the same framework like the one presented here.

Although this observation instrument has yet to undergo rigorous testing, initial feedback from undergraduate students studying in EFL teacher training programs at two separate European universities (in Denmark and Germany) suggests that it increases ST awareness about the effectiveness of classroom observations, especially when introduced shortly before their initial classroom observations during their teacher training.

2.1. 6P framework for EFL classroom observations

In detail, the 6P framework includes recommendations for pre-, while- and post-observation steps, outlining how ST should contemplate the (1) purpose, (2) predicate, (3) perceived parties, (4) participants, (5) profiters and (6) products of their classroom observations. A further element of this framework is that it is self-monitoring. It suggests that the process of classroom observations is cyclical

as the end product of an observation reflects back onto its initial purpose (Graphic 1). This cycle allows the observer to regulate whether or not the initial purpose of the observation is found again in its product. As a result, ST conducting observations can ensure that what they gain from the observation includes purposeful results that can foster their development as teachers.
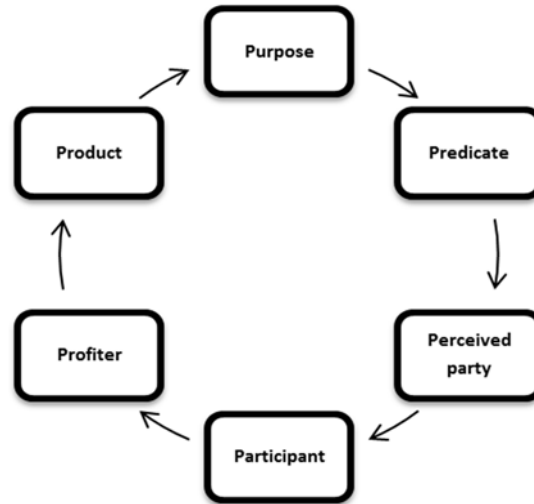
Graphic 1. The cyclical nature of classroom observations in the 6P framework

Zacharias (2012) suggests three pedagogical reasons for observing in EFL teacher education that are supportive for ST during pre-service phases of their education. Her suggestions include: (1) observing to learn, (2) observing to describe and (3) observing to evaluate. In this paper, I would like to elaborate on these three purposes and expand on them for the subsequent framework. I have also reformulated these purposes from verb phrases into nouns in order to separate them from the actions that lead to the products. Table 1 illustrates how the initial step for deciding for which purpose one conducts observations is followed by five interlinking and consecutive steps. These steps all connect in that the decisions about Step 1 should be made before Step 2 and so forth. These steps are also divided into three main temporal categories represented on the left of Table 1: pre-observation, while-observation and post-observation steps. Therefore, the table should be interpreted from the top-down.

Table 1. The 6P framework for classroom observations in EFL teacher education

			Development	*Understanding*	*Improvement*
Pre-observation	1	**Purpose**	*Development*	*Understanding*	*Improvement*
	2	**Predicate**	Learn	Document	Evaluate
	3	**Perceived parties**	From capable others	What is happening	People or activities
While-observation	4	**Participants**	Expert (observed)-novice (observer)	Peer (observed)-peer (observer)/ self (observed and observer)	Expert (observed)-expert (observer)/ novice (observed)-expert (observer)
	5	**Profiters**	Observer	Observed and observer	Observed

Post-observation	6	**Product**	Developing as teaching professionals	Understanding classroom dynamics	Improving teaching and learning

2.1.1. Observing for development

The first step ST should take as part of their pre-observation planning is to consider *why* they would like to observe a particular classroom. I have delineated the *purposes* in the 6P framework into three types: (1) development, (2) understanding and (3) improvement. That is, before they conduct a classroom observation, ST should pose the question: 'What is the purpose of my observation?' At any point where ST reflect on such questions, they should be supported by teacher educators with signposts that guide them in their decision-making process. For instance, deciding for which purpose they want to observe, it may be beneficial for teacher educators to first suggest observations for development (i.e. watching others), before observing to understand, and then for personal improvement. In this paper, development refers exclusively to professional development, involving gaining a greater understanding about what it means to be a good EFL teacher. It is understood, however, that becoming a teaching professional is not a process that begins and ends with teacher training.

For ST, however, developing a professional mind often begins the first time they find themselves in the back of a classroom having to observe a lesson no longer through the lens of a student, but through the lens of an aspiring teacher. Thus, in order to develop as professionals, ST need to learn to observe not *what* teachers are teaching, but *how* they teach the material. At this point, supervisors can introduce structured observation schemes in order to guide ST's attention to relevant aspects for professional growth. These can take the form of established observation schemes, but they can also include customized observation schemes, developed by the ST themselves. In terms of professional growth, it is important that ST are conscious of how to observe experienced teachers' classroom conduct (Zacharias, 2012). Gebhard (2009) points out that "understanding what experienced teachers do and the professional discourses they use is an essential aspect of developing professional expertise" (p. 252). This may involve watching general teacher behaviours such as body language, position in the classroom, use of voice, appearance, classroom management, etc. More specifically for the EFL classroom, items such as teacher talk, including error corrective feedback techniques, first language (L1) and second language (L2) use in the classroom, teacher questions, teaching subskills, etc. can be observed for professional development purposes. Zacharias (2012) suggests that novice teachers can "observe a more senior teacher […] and learn from the way she structures her lesson or how she uses feedback, for example" (p. 135). Fanselow (1988) brings the benefits of observing others for learning purposes to the point nicely:

> When we observe others to gain self-knowledge and self-insight and when we generate our own alternative based on what we see others do, we construct own knowledge and engage in the type of learning Freire has advocated [consisting of acts of cognition, not transferals of information]. (p. 116)

The next P in the pre-observation planning is the *predicate*. By considering the predicate of the observation, ST recognize early on which activity should guide their observation. The predicate refers to the primary activity that is guided by the purpose of the observation. If the purpose of the observation is professional development, then this is predicated on *observing in order to learn* about being a good EFL teacher. This then refers to the principal mind-set the observer should have while conducting any observation. It is helpful to enter into this second step by premeditating on the question: 'How can I

learn from the person I am observing?' In theoretical terms, the ST are still in the process of gathering declarative knowledge by observing and analysing experienced others, however the purpose of observing for development is to take that further step toward gaining procedural knowledge about *how* to teach. In this step, it is important to anchor the mind-set that while observing for development purposes the observer must not evaluate the quality of the teaching, but rather be looking for instances that can enhance their own professional development as future EFL teachers.

The third step in the pre-observation planning is to consider *who* needs to be observed. That is, who are the *perceived parties*? This P also relates to the second in that there must be a receiving object to the predicating action. In other words, the observer must watch someone or something in order to obtain information. This may sound trivial, but it refers to the actual observables in the classroom. Watching skilled and experienced teachers helps ST acquire information that is related to teaching and learning in general, also called "action-system knowledge" (Zacharias, 2012, p. 134). This relates back to the principle mind-set of the ST mentioned earlier and the 'how' question while observing other capable teachers. However, mere unfocused watching of the teacher is not enough to actually learn something. The observables for development are the teacher's actions worth noticing for the purpose of gaining a greater understanding about how to become a teaching professional.

Noticing behaviours that could lead to learning is one of the most difficult steps in classroom observations for ST (Weyland, 2013). The selection of teacher behaviours that are valued as important is sometimes difficult as ST often seek to observe the more interesting, but difficult high-inference variables, meaning items that include a high level assumption about teacher behaviours or actions. Unobservable teacher behaviours include, for example: decision making, engagement, problems and teaching principles (Richards & Farrell, 2005). For purposeful observations, ST need background knowledge about low-inference, more observable items, so that they may notice and recognize characteristics of good teaching from which they can learn. For example, EFL ST should be informed about different types of error feedback such as repetitions, recasts, explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, elicitations and clarification requests (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) as well as their implications for learning in order to interpret theoretically how these may affect their own future actions.

Other observables in EFL teaching include broad categories such as teacher behaviour and teacher talk, but ones that can be divided into more observable items like: timing, activities and questioning techniques (Richards & Farrell, 2005). The observer should plan ahead of time about what they would like to learn from the more capable teacher. In sum, characteristics of good teaching are of course numerous, and ST should reflect on what they believe valuable to learn from more capable others before entering the classroom for observation.

This leads to the fourth P in the model: *participants*. This is the first while-observation step ST should take. While observing for professional development, the ST conducting the observation should *always* take the role of the novice, considering the observed as the expert no matter which social, educational or power relationships may exist (e.g. native speaker–nonnative speaker, male–female, third year university student–teacher with ten years of experience). One reason for clarifying these roles is to reduce any possible tensions between the observed and the observer. For instance, Malderez (2009) suggests that conflicts may arise in EFL teacher education when ideologies about traditional and communicative language teaching methods differ. She goes on to recommend that during a ST's experience at school expert-novice roles need to be clear or support for the ST will be less effective.

Ambiguity about roles during classroom observations may result in the ST assuming the less appropriate role of observing expert, tending to the purpose of improvement, thus dwelling on aspects of the teacher's behaviours or teaching approach that differ from their own. This may lead to unsolicited remarks or criticism about the observed lesson. If the ST has understood the predicate and perceived

parties, then evaluative comments about the lessons should not occur. This is beside the point that some experienced teachers may benefit from ideas about language learning and teaching that ST could offer, nevertheless, it is neither the role of the novice observer nor the proper arena to provide this. Therefore, a mutual understanding between the observed expert and the observer novice about the purpose of the observation must be reached before any observations begin.

When the expert knows that the purpose of the observation is development, he or she can confidently assume the expert role and become a valuable resource for learning for the novice, instead of having the feeling of being evaluated. This means for the experts that they too need to be provided with opportunities to prepare for their new roles and given practical suggestions for offering constructive feedback like those suggested by Fanselow (1988, pp. 116-117). In the case of classroom observations for professional development, it must be clear that the novice is there to *learn* (the predicate) from a more capable other (the perceived party) in order to develop professionally from the observation.

This then points to the fifth P of the framework, that is, the *profiter*. In this framework the profiter is the person receiving the most benefit from the observation in terms of professional growth, and it is the participant who has the most potential to yield valuable knowledge about learning about language learning or teaching as a result. This may include reflecting on potential issues or needs the ST have before the observation in order to focus the observation on a particular observable item. Nonetheless, consciousness about personal teaching issues during the observation leads to greater awareness and thus a greater opportunity for attaching new knowledge to already existing knowledge. If the previous four steps are followed, then the benefits for the profiter should be easier to obtain and almost automatic, as previous understandings of the reason, leading action, observable item and participant roles help construct the scaffold that prepares the way for profitability. Helpful for this step is when the profiters consider how observing others aids them in seeing their own teaching differently (Fanselow, 1988).

Whether profit has been made can be found in the *product* of the observation. This final step of the observation takes place after the observation in either an analysis of the developed observation scheme, self-reflection on observation or in a discussion with the observed teacher, mentor or peer afterwards. As Richards and Farrell (2005) emphasize, "observation as a component of teacher development […] involves discussions and reflection in order to arrive at a valid understanding of the meaning of the events observed" (p. 87). In terms of professional development, the observer/profiter of the observation should return to the activity predicating the observation and ask him or herself: 'What have I learned from the person I have observed?' and 'How has what I have learned helped me with my own professional development?' In a discussion with others, the observer may want to describe significant moments during the observation, and then answer questions about how these could lead to their own professional development, essentially using the others in the discussion as a sounding board. In the case that the observer carries out a discussion with the observed, the observer could ask some 'why' questions about the lesson without being evaluative or negative. For example, it is important to avoid questions like: 'Why didn't you help that student?' or 'Why didn't you use a video projector instead of an overhead projector?'. The observer should be sure that he or she does not ask questions about things the observed teacher has little or no control over, or put the observed teacher on the spot.

Again, it is important to remember the purpose of the observation set out at the beginning and remain in the mind-frame of observing to learn and not observing to evaluate. It is during this reflection stage that the observer can compare the product of the observation with the initial purpose, thereby coming around full circle and monitoring whether the observation has fulfilled its objective or not. It may be the case that the observer finds the product and the purpose are not comparable. If the observer feels that he or she has not learned something, then it is important to reflect on why this may be the case. It is important for observers to be reflective about their own actions at this time and consider whether perhaps

the observation scheme they used needs adjusting, the observable item they chose to observe was in fact unobservable or they need to improve on their ability to find those observable moments. In addition, ST may find there are some experienced teachers they cannot learn from for whatever reasons. These are all probable causes for an unproductive observation. More important is that these causes are identified and the proper steps are taken to improve the situation for subsequent observations.

2.1.2. Observing for understanding

The second column in the 6P framework involves observing for *understanding*. This is the first P of this observation type. To understand classroom dynamics from a nonparticipant observer's perspective is a highly effective way to grow as a professional as it allows ST to experience classroom life without being directly involved. Here the purpose of the observation is to "help narrow the gap between one's imagined view of teaching and what actually occurs in the classroom" (Richards & Farrell, 2005, p. 94). Predicating this purpose is the activity of documenting classroom happenings. Thus, the second P in the framework is *document*. I have purposely avoided using the term "describe", because it is important in all three types of observations to describe what one sees. Documenting, however, provides a better impression of the objective action the observer should be carrying out during the observation. I stated earlier that the ideas presented here are oriented toward teacher-education and are not research-based. However, this type of observation resembles most closely observations done in second language acquisition research, in particular in action-based research. In action-based research one aim of the classroom observation is, according to Burns (2010), "seeing things that are before our eyes in ways we haven't consciously noticed before [and] about becoming 'strangers' in our own classrooms" (p. 57). It is the activity of distancing oneself from one's own actions and seeing things through someone else's eyes.

In order to achieve this, ST main activity should entail objectively documenting what is happening in the classroom by either watching video recordings from their own lessons or by observing peers during peer-learning activities. Burns (2010) suggests looking for "critical incidents" (p. 60). However, this may be too vague for ST who do not have much experience with a group or teaching. According to McKay (2006), there are four central items that one can observe in the classroom: settings, systems, people and behaviour. Obviously these are very broad and complex categories, meaning observers must consider in their pre-observation planning which subcriteria, or subcriterion even, of these categories they would like to specifically observe. For example, under setting, an observer can focus on what McKay (2006) refers to as activities, suggesting guiding questions such as: "Do certain activities take place in one place as opposed to another? Is there, for example, a particular place for less structured activities?" (p. 80). She also refers to particular roles within settings, posing questions like: "Does certain space designate a specific role? Do students sitting in particular positions in the classroom have any specific roles?" (McKay, 2006, p. 80). By looking at the classroom dynamics through the lens of a stranger, observers should be able to document such items objectively. In regards to systems, McKay alludes to rituals and other ways classrooms are run. She refers to how books may be distributed in the classroom, but these may also involve how homework is handed back, how classroom chores are distributed and conducted or how teachers are greeted. According to MacKay, the more formal the systems, the more structured the classroom usually is.

Furthermore, if an observer chooses to observe people, it is the task of the observer to document the roles and interactions of the people in the classroom. By watching which roles students in the classroom assume and with whom they interact or do not interact through the lens of an outsider, the observer can identify things such as peer groups, class leaders (McKay, 2006) or group outsiders. This information

can lead to a better understanding about why certain people work well, or do not work so well, with particular people during group work, for example.

Finally, observing what is happening in the classroom also includes watching peoples' behaviour. This might be the most complex category, and when documenting teachers' behaviours, it overlaps with observing for professional development. I suggest that the focus during observing for understanding should primarily be on the students and their actions in the classroom. This may include items that involve the teacher, but do not involve the teacher as the primary focus. Important observable features in the language classroom include, for example, students' reactions to teacher questions, L1 and L2 usage, uptake on error correction, use of body language, etc. The list here is long and the observer should be well-informed before the observation about which student behaviours are worth observing for a better understanding of classroom dynamics and could lead to professional growth. Always recommended is a consultation with the observed party beforehand to discuss which student behaviours he or she would like the observer to document.

The next P in the framework is the first while-observation step of *participants*. In order for this type of observation to be most effective, I recommend that the participants in this observation are either the self, through the use of audio-visual equipment, or peers. In regards to the former, Burns (2010) defines self-observation as the "observation of your own behaviours, thoughts, actions, ways of communicating as a teacher" (p. 58). Experience shows, however, that this might be an ineffective mode for ST, as they often have difficulties simultaneously monitoring their behaviour as well as the behaviour and actions of the students. Furthermore, while observing themselves for the first time, ST often evaluate themselves, rating their own actions as being 'good' or 'bad', or look at what they are wearing, or at their body language. Although being critical of our own behaviours is an important part of professional growth, it is not the aim of this type of observation. Therefore, if the observed and the observer are one and the same person, I would recommend that ST try observing the events in the classroom through the lens of a stranger, and in particular watching how students react, interact and behave in the presence of the teacher, or how groups interact amongst each other. These all relate to the items decided on in pre-observation steps.

The other participant roles suitable for this type of observation are peer-observations. Richards and Farrell (2005) define peer observation as "a teacher or other observer closely watching and monitoring a language lesson or part of a lesson in order to gain an *understanding* of some aspect of teaching, learning, or classroom interaction" (p. 85; my emphasis). Richard's definition underscores the purpose I set out earlier for this type of observation, suggesting that the main activity of such observations should be to documenting in order to understand classroom dynamics. According to Zacharias (2012, p. 134), peer observations are can be effective for three reasons: (1) they provide the observer an opportunity to see how others deal with problems teachers face on a daily basis, (2) observers can learn effective (or new) strategies they themselves have not seen or tried, (3) peer observations can cause the observer to reflect on their own teaching practice. Although Zacharias is suggesting these from a research-oriented perspective, I submit that these are deeply relevant for professional growth in language teacher education. In addition, any objective documentation of classroom happenings can be helpful information for the observed peer, as well, making peer observations "useful for both the observer and the observed teacher" (Zacharias, 2012, p. 134). This leads nicely to the fifth P in this observation: *profiters*.

Peer observations can be beneficial for both the observed and the observer if information is shared between the participants. According to Richards and Farrell (2005),

> Observing another teacher may also trigger reflections about one's own teaching. For the teacher being observed, the observer can provide an 'objective' point of view of the lesson and can collect information about the lesson that the teacher who is teaching the lesson might not otherwise be able to gather. (p. 86)

In order for both participants to profit equally, consultations before the lesson are recommended. In pre-observation consultations, the observed teacher can suggest on which items he or she would like to have the observer focus, while the observer may suggest items he or she would like to focus on for their own professional growth. Zacharias (2012) suggests a general account, meaning the observer writes down "whatever is going on when you are teaching" (p. 134). However, it must be emphasized that the peer-peer roles mean that the observation is *not* evaluative, meaning the observer should not be documenting the quality of the teaching, but rather objectively documenting what is happening in the classroom. It is important before and during this step that the roles of the participants in peer observations are clear in order to reduce any tensions about the goals of observation. The observed should at no time feel nervous each time the observer's pen hits paper, as is often the case when observed participants feel evaluated. It is exactly these reasons that have led me to recommend peer-peer observations, as expert-observers and novice-observed constellations almost automatically result in a certain level of evaluation. Collaborative peers, on the other hand, are capable of mutually sharing knowledge and ideas on an equal plane and within because of cognitive proximity and common experiences.

Finally, the last P in this dimension is the *product*. The product of this type of observation is an improved understanding of classroom dynamics. Again, the product of the observation is discovered once the participants have analysed their results from observation schemes, self-reflected or engaged in post-observation discussions about the lesson. Possible general questions the participants could ask themselves at this stage include: 'What do we know now about the classroom dynamics that we did not know before the lesson?' or 'What have we discovered about classroom life that we were not aware of beforehand?'. More specific questions about the predetermined criterion or criteria may also be helpful at this stage. Participants can compare the product with the purpose that was set before the observation. If the participants find in their reflection that no new information has emerged from the observation, then adjustments to their approach should be made. Sometimes these adjustments are moderate, such as merely specifying more precisely an observed item. For instance, student behaviour such as 'attentiveness' could be specified with 'eye-contact with teacher' or 'raises hand in class'. In other instances, these adjustments are more acute and include finding another peer to work with or another learner group to observe.

2.1.3. Observing for improvement

The last dimension of classroom observation in teacher education involves the purpose: *improvement*. This is the type of observation that ST, experienced teachers, and teacher trainers often think of when considering observations in teacher education (Zacharias, 2012). Furthermore, it is also deemed the most threatening and frightening of the observation types (Richards & Farrell, 2005). For ST, these feelings may be the result of previous experiences during their studies or in other situations. It is predictable that ST will feel evaluated when others observe them teaching during training phases of their education. However, I hope that it has been made clear in the previous sections that not all observations involve being evaluated. In fact, I have emphasized that the participants must be conscientious about *not* evaluating during development and understanding observations.

In observations for improvement, the situation is markedly different. The leading activity of such an observation is to *evaluate*. Zacharias (2012) suggests also synonymous actions such as "monitor" or

"supervise". The idea here is that in order to improve ST's teaching, they must at some point during their training receive feedback about the actual quality of their teaching. This often includes suggestions about how they could improve their teaching behaviour, teacher talk, methodology, etc. This relates to the perceived parties of this type of observation: *people and activities*. The mind-set of the observer should not only be to evaluate to find everything wrong about the people or activities, but to evaluate through encouragement, meaning praising the observed for positive aspects in the lesson.

Finding items to observe can be discussed during the pre-observation phase collaboratively with the observer and the observed. By doing so, the problem mentioned by Richards and Farrell (2005) that evaluative observations are observer-centred, whereas the observed teacher has no voice in the evaluation can be avoided. In other words, it should be made clear to the observed person what the observer would like to observe, and the observed should also include items that he or she would like the observer to watch in order to improve. For example, EFL ST often find it difficult to manage time or provide clear task instructions. Therefore, it might be beneficial for the observer to take notes about how long actual sequences in the lesson take or the note the exact wording of task instructions for later evaluation. It is essential during this step that what is being evaluated is transparent for the observed person. This may include a highly structured set of a limited number of pre-determined criteria that both the observed and the observer have access to prior to the observation (Zacharias, 2012). Furthermore, in order for reliable evaluations to occur, the relationship between the participants of the observations for improvements must be made clear. This usually involves a *novice-expert* or an *expert-expert* constellation.

This constellation is supported again by Zacharias (2012) who suggests that observations for evaluation are often "conducted by those who are considered more experienced on those who are considered new in the field" (p. 135). This is especially the case in teacher education and differs from research-based observations for improvement whereby novice teachers could evaluate experienced teachers for data collection purposes. However, in teacher education it would be inadvisable to have novice ST evaluating experienced teachers during their practicums as the power relationship is too imbalanced in favour of the teacher, and any suggestions for improvement by novices would likely lead to resentment. Therefore, opposite to the observation for development, the participant relationship in improvement observations suggests that the novice always assumes the observed role, while the expert assumes the role of observer. These roles could be reversed; however, only upon the request of the expert, who then receives feedback from the novice observer. The other participant relationship plausible for this type of observation is the expert-expert constellation. This usually involves a situation when an experienced teacher invites another colleague into his or her class to evaluate his or her performance. However, it may also be the case that two equal ST peers would like to conduct a form of observation for improvement during their practicums. The term "expert" is then perceived more flexibly. Zacharias (2012) suggests for such situations that peers evaluate using a specific account, meaning the observer focuses on "specific things about your teaching that you feel need improvement" (p. 135). Nevertheless, the profiter of the observation remains the same regardless of how the constellations are formed. The main profiter of the observation for improvement should be the observed participant, and in most cases this is the novice ST.

The profiter of observations for improvement is exclusively the *observed*. This is the only observation form in which the observed teacher is also the main profiter of the observation. This puts the observed teachers in the most vulnerable position as they are conscious that their activity and the activity of their students are the focus of the predicating action of the observer. At times, it is difficult for the observed/profiter to see the benefits of such observations for their professional growth during observed lesson. However, if the criteria of observed items are made transparent in the third step prior

to the observation, then the value of the observation during its process should be apparent. In addition, if the ST keeps in mind that the aim of the evaluation is for them to improve, then it can be viewed positively, and understood as a constructive step toward professional growth as an EFL teacher.

The actual benefits of the observation are again often discovered in the product. This is more so the case for observed/profiters in observations for improvements, as during these observations ST are engrossed in their own behaviour and their students' behaviour that they cannot evaluate their own actions or those of the students during the process. Once more, the product of the observation is often discovered during post-observation reflections with the other participants involved in the observation. At this point, it is important that the observed takes the time to self-reflect on the lesson, receive positive encouragement from the expert/observer, as well as contemplate collaboratively the quality of the lesson and how this can lead to improvement for subsequent lessons. Questions for reflecting and discussing in this step include: 'What did the observed do well and how can this be built upon?' or 'Why did the students react differently than expected? What caused them to do so?', or 'Why did a certain sequence not work out so well, and how can the observed improve this for next time?'. It is the job of the expert to recognize during such post-observation interactions where the novice's independent performance level is, meaning the knowledge level the novice can reach on his or her own, and how to help that novice reach an assisted performance level that he or she could not have achieved on his or her own. For example, upon reflecting on the observation, the observed may recall relevant moments, but be unable to explain why or how this occurred, it is then the job of the expert to elaborate on this moment and help the novice find explanations for it. This relates strongly to what Johnson (2009) advocates, stating that teacher education is no longer a process of translating theory into practice but "a dialogic process of co-constructing knowledge that is situated in and emerges out of participation in particular sociocultural practices and contexts" (p. 21). This co-constructed knowledge should then ultimately lead to improvements in teaching in subsequent lessons. The observation's purpose can be reflected on if this knowledge is transferred successfully in these following lessons, allowing the observed to compare the product of their observed lesson with its original purpose.

3. Conclusion

The purpose of this paper was to outline a workable framework for EFL ST in implementing classroom observations. ST often find it difficult to focus and grow professionally from their classroom observations due to the complexity of classroom activity, influencing past experiences, and possible tensions between participating parties. This 6P framework serves as a roadmap for preparing, conducting, and reflecting on classroom observations while also avoiding interpersonal conflicts with participating parties. As Richards and Farrell (2005) emphasize, "if observation is to be a positive experience […] it needs to be carefully planned and implemented" (p. 88). Therefore, the aim of this framework is to help ST critically and carefully plan different types of observations with three varying purposes: development, understanding and improvement. Within this framework, each of these observations is pre-planned with clear actions and known observables. Furthermore, during observations, the particular roles of the actors are clarified as well as the participant or participants who should profit the most from particular observations. Finally, classroom observations are a cyclical process as the end product is uncovered post-observation and should reflect the initial purpose of the observation.

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İngilizce öğretmen eğitiminde sınıf içi gözlemler için bir taslak önerisi

Öz

Bu çalışma İngilizce öğretmen eğitiminde sınıf içi gözlemlerin uygulanması için bir taslak sunuyor. Bu, öğretmen adayı öğrencilerin sınıf içi gözlemleri bağımsız bir şekilde yerine getirmelerinde ve aynı zamanda diğer katılımcılarla ortaya çıkacak muhtemel kişiler arası çatışmayı minimum düzeye indirmede yardımcı olacak 6 basamaklı kapsamlı bir taslak sağlamak için bir çabadır. Bu makalenin amacı, öğrencilere ve eğitmenlere yabancı dil öğretmen eğitiminde, sınıf içi gözlemlerin baştanbaşa profesyonel büyümeye daha değerli bir katkıda bulunmasına izin vererek sınıf içi gözlemlerin bağımsız uygulanması için uygulanabilir bir taslak sağlamaktır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Sınıf içi gözlemler, dil eğitimi, öğretmen eğitimi, profesyonel büyüme.

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"Could you help me with these bags brother? My shoulders are falling."
Transfer in interlanguage requests performed by Algerian EFL learners

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Abstract

The present study attempts to investigate pragmatic transfer in interlanguage requests performed by Algerian EFL learners. The data of the study was gathered by means of a three-item Discourse Completion Task. The task was administered to two controlling groups of native speakers: Arabic and English and two learner groups at two proficiency levels: low and high. The responses were coded and then analysed by counting the frequency of request strategies and exploring their wording at levels of head acts, request perspective and modification. The findings showed that the performance in Arabic and English exhibited two types of differing politeness systems: positive-face-based and negative-face-based respectively. In learners' production, both types of pragmatic transfer were evident. The pragmalinguistic type was operative in the employment of linguistic structures inspired by the mother language and word by word translation. The sociopragmatic type was extant in the employment of the request strategies and the perception of the situational variables that were in line with the learners' mother language. In addition to transfer, interlanguage production was affected by lack of pragmatic knowledge, interlanguage-specific features, and language constraints. The factor of language proficiency did not give marked advantage to the high-proficient learners over the low-proficient. The paper also sheds some light on practical implications for intercultural communication and speech acts' pedagogy.

1. Introduction

Though speech acts are a universal phenomenon, their realizations differ across languages and cultures (Gass and Neu, 1996). This cross-cultural variation can be a source of communication breakdowns when members of different cultures come in contact (Wierzbicka, 1991). As defined by Trosborg, (1995,p. 187), "a request is an illocutionary act whereby a speaker [S] (requester) conveys to the hearer [H] (requestee) that he/she wants the requestee to perform an act which is for the benefit of the speaker." Request are typical examples of face-threatening-acts (FTAs) i.e. threatening the public self-image of both the requester and the recipient (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They can be divided into core request or head act (HA) and supporting move (SM) or modification (internal and external):

> *I forgot my wallet at home and I need some money to make photocopies* [external]. *Do you think* [internal] *that you could lend me 30 cents?* [HA].

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Interlanguage pragmatic (ILP) studies suggest that learners of English might have access to the same request strategies as native speakers (NSs), but still experience difficulty in controlling the linguistic structures and cultural assumptions (e.g. Jung, 2004; Tagushi, 2006; Al-Ali & Alawneh, 2010), under the influence of their first language (L1), often. Despite the fact that ILP flourished decades ago, in Algeria, due to the dearth of published studies, this field is, seemingly, still in infancy. This has been an encouraging reason to conduct the present study in order to contribute to our knowledge about the ILP behavior of the Algerian learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) with a special attention paid to pragmatic transfer. The study, in this respect, aims at addressing the following questions:

1. Are pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic transfers extant in EFL learners' production?

2. If any, what other features that characterize ILP of Algerian EFL learners?

3. Does language proficiency help in better the pragmatic performance in EFL?

2. Theoretical Background

2.1. Pragmatic Transfer and Proficiency

Pragmatic transfer is to be understood as the impact of pragmatic input from L1 or other languages known to the learner other than the target language (TL) in his attempt to comprehend, perform, and learn a pragmatic input in TL (Kasper, 1992, p. 207). Pragmatic transfer is categorized into pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic. The pragmalinguistic type is at play when the politeness value of a linguistic structure in L1 impacts the production and comprehension of the form-function mapping in TL. The sociopragmatic type is at play when the social perceptions guiding interpretation and production in L1 influence the evaluation of contexts in TL (Kasper, 1992, p. 209). These types of transfer lead, respectively, to pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic failure (Thomas, 1983).

To evidence pragmatic transfer, Ellis (1994) emphasized gathering of three types of data. These are illocutionary force from L1, TL, and IL. According to her, "[o]nly in this way it is possible to determine to what extent learner performance differs from native-speaker performance and whether the differences are traceable to transfer from the L1." (p. 162). As for the interpretation of the three datasets, similarity in response statistics in L1, IL, and TL evidences positive transfer; and similar response statistics in L1 and IL with different response statistics between L1 and TL and between IL and TL evidences negative transfer (Takahashi 2000, p. 109).

Many factors can affect pragmatic transfer. In the present study, we attempt to measure the effect of three situational variables: power (P), social distance (SD), and the ranking of imposition (R) besides language proficiency (LP). P refers to "the vertical disparity between the participants in a hierarchical structure." Like between a boss of a company and an employer (Scollon & Scollon 2001, p. 52). SD is "the degree of familiarity and solidarity they [S and H] share (Brown & Levinson 1987, p. 74). As for R, certain considerations contribute in heightening or lowering the degree of imposition in a given culture like the expenditure of goods and/or services by the H.

Regarding LP, findings in the ILP literature have not been conclusive as whether it correlates positively or negatively with transfer. Takahashi and Beebe (1987) hypothesized that the proficient learners are likely to transfer L1's pragmatic style to IL, because they have acquired the linguistic means. This was arisen out of their investigation of IL refusals of Japanese ESL learners which indicated that the higher proficient learners maintained a typically Japanese formal tone. Adversely, Maeshiba, Yoshinaga and Kasper (1996) suggested that the low-proficient Japanese ESL learners are more likely to lay back on their L1 in performing the apologizing act. In a similar vein, Robinson (1992) stated that learners at low-proficiency level were prone to pragmatic transfer of the Japanese style; meanwhile, the

high-proficient showed an ability to approximate the American refusals. Sabaté and Curell i Gotor's (2007) findings suggested that the low-proficient Catalan learners exhibited more sociopragmatic transfer, while the advanced and the intermediate ones exhibited more pragmalinguistic transfer, in English-L2 apologies.

2.2. Politeness and Face

The seminal work of Brown and Levinson (1987) was built on the notion of *face*. For them, *face* is "the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself" (1987, p. 61). It consists in two related aspects: *negative face* and *positive face*. *Negative face* reflects the basic claim to territories, personal preserves, right to nondistraction i.e. to freedom of action and freedom from imposition. *Positive face* reflects the positive consistent self-image or 'personality' (crucially including the desire that this self-image be appreciated and approved of) claimed by interactants. The first aspect is the want of every 'competent adult member' that his actions be unimpinged by others. The second is the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others. (p. 62). From this distinction, *negative* and *positive politeness* can be distinguished. *Positive politeness* seeks to satisfy the negative face needs, while *positive politeness* seeks to satisfy the positive face needs (p. 70). Thus, negative politeness is more polite than positive politeness (p. 60). Brown and Levinson named Face Threatening Acts (FTAs), the "acts which run contrary to the face wants of the addressee and/or S [speaker] (1987, p. 70). The speaker may find himself in a dilemma whether to seek to communicate efficiently or to maintain his own *face*. In order to manage this conflict of interests, there are certain strategies which they called 'superstrategies' that mitigate the adverse effect of FTAs. These are *bold on record* (e.g. using direct requests), *positive politeness* (e.g. exaggerating sympathy with H), *negative politeness* (e.g. using conventionally indirect requests), *off record* (e.g. giving hints), and *not performing the FTA*. In a similar vein, Scollon and Scollon (2001) emphasized the fact that "there is no faceless communication" (p. 48). They categorized face and politeness into *involvement face/politeness* and *independence face/politesse* which for them are displayed simultaneously in communication. These two types of politeness are parallel to Brown and Levinson *positive* and *negative politeness*.

2.3. Studies on the Speech Act of Request

Numerous studies have dealt with English IL requests as performed by learners from different linguistic backgrounds. However, relatively few studies paid specific attention to transfer in IL requests and only referred to transfer in interpreting the findings.

Tagushi (2006) investigated the requestive performance of Japanese learners of English in role plays as regards appropriateness and linguistic expressions. The findings suggested that the high-proficient had better control of linguistic items than the low-proficient. As for hints, they increased considerably in accordance with the difficulty of the scenarios in both learner groups. This, for the author, signified 'sociocultural sensitivity' of situational factors. The author supported the claim that proficiency fosters better quality of speech act production. Woodfield and Economidou-Kogetsidis (2010) investigated the requestive act modification in the performance of advanced ESL learners; most of them were Greek. The learners seemed to overuse zero-marking (absence of internal mitigators) due to the difficulty in using these modifiers. Additionally, the authors related the underuse of *consultative devices* to L1 influence as Greek is a culture that values solidarity, informality, and in-group relations. *Grounders* were the most used external mitigator as they are acquired early and do not require idiomatic forms. It was also reported that IL-users overused *preparators* and *imposition minimizers*, but underused *apology*. The overuse is an indicator of a lack of confidence which stems from lack of LP and the underuse is an L1-driven, since Greek is a positive-politeness culture that encourages spontaneity and involvement,

unlike the British one. IL-users opted for S-perspective due to the preponderance of certain HA strategies, namely *query preparatories*.

So far as the studies that examined IL requests of learners from Arabic-L1 background, Alfattah and Ravindranath (2009) gave special attention to the politeness strategies in IL requests performed by Yemeni EFL learners. Learners favored *query preparatory* realized oftentimes by the modals *can* and *could* along with *mood derivables* and *want statements*. The overuse of *can* and *could* was seen as an outcome of L1-influence, because Arabic does not pragmatically differentiate between the present and past forms of modal verbs. The employment of direct forms, with or without softeners, was interpreted as a transfer from L1 too, given solidarity and closeness between interlocutors. Moreover, this was related to the fact that Arabic employs formulae that resemble *please* and *excuse me* in conjunction with bare imperatives (e.g. *Allah yerrda aleik/May God be pleased with you*) which are usable to any kind of addressee. In their study of mitigating devices in English requests performed by Jordanian learners, Al-Ali and Alawneh (2010) indicated that three main factors influenced IL performance: language ability, L2 pragmatic knowledge and L1 transfer. For pragmatic transfer, it was evidenced at the pragmalinguistic level in over-initiating the request by expressions like *excuse m*e (from Arabic *afwan*) and *hello* (from Arabic *marhaba*). Jordanians also transferred certain cultural assumptions in expressions of *gratitude*, *well-wishing*, *obligation* etc. which are typical to the Arab culture.

3. Method

3.1. Instrument

The corpus of the study was gathered using a Discourse Completion Task/Test (DCT). The DCT contains descriptions of real-like scenarios and space for informants to respond by means of a would-be appropriate request. We prepared English and Arabic versions respective to three situations (SITUs). The author designed a three-item DCT, because he aims to measure the effect of only three variables: P, SD, and R by means of SITU 1, 2, and 3 respectively.

> SITU 1: *Asking a university professor to lend a book*. [S<H; SD=close; R=Low]
> SITU 2: *Asking a stranger to help in carrying bags of groceries*. [S=H; SD=Distant; R=High]
> SITU 3: *Asking a classmate to lend a sum of money*. [S=H; SD=Close; R=High]

The DCT is widely used in ILP studies. The usefulness of this method lies in the fact that it is time saving and allows gathering large amounts of data (Beebe & Cumming, 1996). It also permits the focus on specific speech act realizations and to manipulate the social and the situational variables (Cohen 1998, p. 390). Thus, it makes it easy to statistically compare responses from native and non-native speakers (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). Nonetheless, this tool cannot capture the prosodic and the non-verbal features of face-to-face interactions while respondents are free from time pressure, unlike real encounters. Furthermore, responding in writing as if speaking may inhibit respondents from producing long responses (Cohen 1996, p. 25). The debate on the merits of the DCT in speech act data collection is seemingly still an ongoing issue among those who are for (e.g. Cohen 2005; Cohen 2006) and whose who have reservations about it (Golato, 2005; Garcés-Canejos, 2006).

3.2. Participants

The sample informants of this study totals 116. It comprised four groups. The first group consisted of 32 informants of Algerian native speakers of Arabic (henceforth ANSs); they are students at the Department of Letters and Arabic Language (University of Constantine I). These informants provide the L1 baseline data i.e. Arabic. The second group consists of 20 informants of native speakers of

English, Americans and British (henceforth ENSs). They were all educated, but came from different walks of life (officials, graduate and post-graduate students, and teachers). This group provides the TL baseline data. The third group consists of 36 EFL learners; they are first year students at the Department of Letters and English Language (University of Constantine I). This group provides the IL baseline data and represents the low-proficiency level (freshmen). These learners have been studying English, on average, for 7 years. The fourth group consists of 28 EFL learners; they are Master I students at the same department. This group too provides IL baseline data and represents the high-proficiency level (seniors). These learners have been studying English, on average, for 11 years.

It is worth mentioning that none of the EFL learners participating in the present study has ever been in an English speaking country. Three of the groups enjoy a degree of homogeneity in terms of age: ANSs, freshmen and seniors groups. This was revealed by the calculation of the age M (mean/average) and SD (standard deviation): 22.84/2.57, 18.25/3.04, and 23.89/4.02, respectively. The remaining group (i.e. ENSs) comparatively lacks age homogeneity: 28.95/13.91. Furthermore, females outnumbered males in all the groups: ANSs (28/4), ENSs (17/3), freshmen (30/6), and seniors (23/5). This was totally by mere chance; gender is not a variable in this study. However, this needs not be understood as it has no influence in such studies.

3.3. The Coding Manual

3.3.1. *HA/Core Request*

For coding the core requests, we adapted the model developed by Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989, pp. 278-280) as displayed in in Tab. 1. It is noteworthy that we confine ourselves to merely the categories that were attested in our data.

Table 1: HA strategies

Type	Sub-Type	Definition	Example
Direct	Mood derivable	The grammatical mood of the locution conventionally determines its illocutionary force as a *request*.	*Leave me alone.* *Clean up the kitchen.*
	Want statement	The utterance expresses the requester's desire that the event denoted in the proposition come about.	*I'd like to borrow your notes for a little while.*
Conventionally Indirect	Query Preparatory	The utterance contains preparatory condition of ability, willingness, or possibility, as conventionalized in a given language. Very often, the requester questions rather than states.	*Could I borrow you notes?* *I was wondering if you would give me a lift.*
Hints	Strong	The locutionary intent is not immediately derivable from the locution; however, the locution refers to relevant elements of the intended illocutionary act.	*Will you be going home now?* (intent: getting a lift home)

3.3.2. *Request Perspective*

H-oriented: *would <u>you</u> help me carry a few of these bags?*
S-oriented: *may <u>I</u> borrow your book?*
Impersonal: *<u>would it be possible</u> to borrow it for a while?*

According to Blum-Kulka (1991, p. 266):

> [T]he choice of request perspective is another source of variation for manipulating the request's degree of coercive force. Choice of perspective is one of the ways in which the native speaker signals his or her estimate of the degree of coerciveness required situationally.

In this respect, avoiding the reference to the H as the bearer of the action, like in the employment of S-perspective, can minimize the degree of imposition (Blum-Kulka & Levenston 1987, p. 158). Except from some studies, request perspective is not often tackled in request research (Woodfield & Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2010). Accordingly, this aspect has acquired the status of the neglected area in request research. We would claim that the present study is unique in dealing with perspective in Arabic requests and also the transfer of it in IL performance.

3.3.3. Modification

The Taxonomy we employ here was inspired by various works, namely, Blum-Kulka et al. (1989), Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), Alcón, Safont, and Martínez-Flor (2005), and Schauer (2007). Illustrations belong to our English responses (TL and IL).

Table 2: Internal Modifiers

Type	Definition	Example
Openers	Elements by means of which the S seeks to involve the H and bids for his/her cooperation	*Would you mind lending me little change to make copies?*
Understaters	*Diminutives* or *minimizers* that serve in softening the imposition	*Would you mind if I borrow this book for a while?*
Downtoners	Modifiers used for the modulation of the impact of the requestive act on the H?	*Could you possibly loan me enough moolah?*
Intensifiers	Used to aggravate the impact of the request	*Would you mind terribly if I borrowed this book?*
Hesitators	Type of fillers used when the S is uncertain of the impact of his request	*So…maybe…I thought… you could lend me a book of yours.*
Attention-getters	Used for to alert the requestee before directing the request	*Hey Kim; excuse me; hello …*

Table 3: External Modifiers

Type	Definition	Example
Preparators	Used to prepare the addressee for the issuing of the request	*Can you do me a favour?*
Grounders	The requester gives reasons, explanations, or justifications for his/her request	*It would help me in my research*
Disarmers	Signal awareness of the potential offense and aims at the removal of objection	*I should not say that*
Promise of reward	Offering the H something in return for the potential fulfillment of the request	*I'll be your best friend…I'll even pay you back*
Please	Used to reduce the imposition inherent in the requestive act	*Could you please help me in my research?*
Imposition Minimizers	Used for reducing the imposition placed on the H that is inherently associated with requests	*I will take a good care of it and return it as soon as possible*
Sweeteners	Compliments, flattery, or exaggerated appreciation of the H's abilities	*sir, you are a professional professor*
Apology	The S apologizes for minimizing the cost to the H	*sorry for the trouble*

Closings	- Appreciators: employed at the end to reinforce the request	*I would appreciate being allowed to use this resource*
	- Considirators: show consideration to the H's situation	*Would that be okay?*
	- Thanking expressions	*Thank you so much*
Small talk	Used at the beginning to create a positive atmosphere	*thank you for taking time to talk to me*

3.4. Procedures

The author prepared first the English version of the DTC. Then he translated it into Arabic. We tried to keep the source version as functionally equivalent to the target one as possible. The two versions' compatibility was further checked by a translation studies teacher (from the Department of Letters and English Language, University of Constantine I) before forwarding them to the informants. The English version was written in two styles: British and American so as to suit the ENSs of both varieties. Variables of the study in the English version were highlighted using *italics* to draw the informants' attention to them and written in bold in the Arabic version. For all informants, the author gave enough time to perform the task. As regards the task submitted on printed copies, they were all printed on one-sided format and written with clear font size. The informants were asked to write as much or as little as they want. The author coded and analysed each response individually. As for the Arabic responses, they will be reported by means of transliteration and/or word-by-word translation into English, besides the English functional equivalent might be provided when necessary. Among the problems we encountered in the coding and analysis, two ones are worth citing. The first is seeking the appropriate literal translation as well as the English equivalent of certain words and expressions in Arabic which have a pragmatic consequence. As regards this point, the author asked the assistance of one of the teacher in the Department of Letters and English Language (University of Constantine I). The second is that we found one semantic formula may fit more than one category. For instance, sometimes there was not a clear-cut distinction between *disarmers* and *imposition minimizers.* In such cases, the author referred to previous publications in the field of ILP among the ones cited here as well as others.

4. Results

It is noteworthy that we are going to report a detailed results and discussions of one sample situation (SITU 1) and, for the two others, we suffice with the main conclusions. Given the fact that the four language groups include unequal sample sizes, the researcher relied on the *M*, not the raw frequencies, so as to know what score is typical to the group as a whole.

Table 4: HA Strategies in SITU 1

	ANSs		ENSs		Freshmen		Seniors	
	%(N)	*M*	%(N)	*M*	%(N)	*M*	%(N)	*M*
Mood Derivable	9.38(3)	.09	0.00(0)	.00	.00(0)	.00	3.57(1)	.04
Want Statement	6.25(2)	.06	5.26(1)	.05	2.78(1)	.03	.00(0)	.00
Query Preparatory	78.13(25)	.75	78.95(15)	.79	97.22(35)	.97	89.29(25)	.86
Strong Hint	6.25(2)	.06	5.26(1)	.05	.00(0)	.00	3.57(1)	.04
Opting Out	.00(0)	.00	10.53(2)	.11	.00(0)	.00	10.71 (2)	.07
Total	100(31)	1.00	100(19)	1.00	100(36)	1.00	100(28)	1.00

Apparently, the four groups seem to favor *query preparatories* or, say, conventionally indirect requests. Statistically speaking, there was not a significant difference between the controlling groups. As for IL-users, they overused *query preparatories* in comparison with ANSs and ENSs. This accords

with the finding of previous studies (e.g. Faerch & Kasper, 1989) indicating that learners employ this strategy more than any other. Regarding the direct HA strategies, ANSs employed *mood derivables* (bare imperatives) in few cases. *Opting out* strategy (i.e. not doing the FTA) was used by ENSs and seniors only. The employment of this choice denotes that the perfomance of the request was deemed socially inappropriate. *Want statements* were attested in few cases in L1, TL and IL (freshmen). In Arabic, *want statements* are commonplace (Abdulwahid, 2003). Regarding the strong hints, participants only referred partially to the object requested (e.g. asking the professor about the title of the book). It is worth mentioning that hints in Arabic are disfavored (Alfattah & Ravindranath, 2009) as, we assume, they suggest that the interlocutor is not that approachable.

Having dealt with frequency, we consider the wording of the above strategies. Regarding *query preparatories*, the four groups mostly employed modals to realize them. In L1, we came across, e.g., *halyumkinunii ?isti3aarat = can I borrow*; *halyumkinuka ?an tu3iiranii= can you lend me*. ENSs employed these modals: *would*, *may* and *could,* ordered in terms of frequency, besides the so-called *mind modal* which we discuss in internal modification under *openers*. IL-users employed mostly *can*, *could*, *would*, and *may*. *Can* was only employed by learners. This choice is consistent with the findings of Alfattah and Ravindranath (2009) in Yemeni learners IL requests and Abdul Sattar et al. (2009) in Iraqi ones. The modal *may* evidences linguistic constraints in freshmen's performance (*may you give me your book?*). Bare imperatives were attested in L1 (e.g. *?i3Tiini 3unwaan hathaa ?alkitaab/give me the title of this book*) and IL (e.g. *if you don't mind <u>borrow [lend]</u> me this book*).

Another important aspect of the requestive act is request perspective. As can be seen from Tab. 5, ENSs, in comparison with ANSs, avoided the reference to the H as the bearer of the action as a typical way to minimize coerciveness. Like L1, IL-users opted for H-oriented requests

Table 5: Request Perspective in SITU 1

	ANSs		ENSs		Freshmen		Seniors	
	%(N)	M	%(N)	M	%(N)	M	%(N)	M
H-Oriented	46.88(15)	.47	11.11(2)	.11	61.11(22)	.61	88.00(22)	.88
S-Oriented	50.00(16)	.50	83.33(15)	.83	38.89(14)	.39	8.00(2)	.08
Impersonal	3.13(1)	.03	5.56(1)	.06	.00(0)	.00	4.00(1)	.04
Total	100(23)	1.00	100(18)	1.00	100(36)	1.00	100(26)	1.00

Turning to S-perspective, ENSs were more prone to using it. As for freshmen, it could be maintained that their performance was much in line with L1 than TL. As compared to freshmen, seniors employed fewer S-oriented requests and overused the H-oriented ones. It is worth to note that ENSs extensively employed the verb *to borrow* with S-perspective (e.g. *I would love to borrow*, *may I borrow*), but learners failed to assign it to the right perspective due to proficiency. They employed *to borrow* in lieu of *to lend* (e.g., freshmen: *can you borrow me…, would you please borrow it to me…, may I ask you to borrow…*; seniors: *please borrow me this book…, if you don't mind borrow me this book…*). In comparison with freshmen, seniors had more control on these two performative verbs. As for the third category, only few instances of impersonal perspective were recorded.

The above requests were modified internally by means of the strategies displayed in Tab. 6. *Attention-getters* were extensively used across the four groups. There was significant difference between the controlling groups. The amount of *attention-getters* in IL request was fairly in line with TL and the influence of L1 will best be captured in the wording of this strategy. There was a statistically significant difference in the employment of *openers* in L1 and TL. Freshmen employed very few *openers* and seniors showed awareness of their importance, though their wording in both groups was not definitely

a native-like. ENSs utilized more *understaters* than ANSs. IL-users overused this category. Bardovi-Harlig (1999, pp. 690-691) states that the use of *understaters* requires enough syntax for placing them properly in a sentence; it is evidenced that learners have this potential. Intensifiers were only utilized by ENSs (e.g. *would you mind* terribly *if I borrowed this book?).* The absence of certain categories in our data could be an effect of the instrument as the DTC does not capture certain aspects of spoken language, namely, fillers (e.g. *hesitators*). Woodfield and Economidou-Kogetsidis (2010), likewise, interpreted the absence of *cajolers* in their data as an instrument-effect (p. 97).

Table 6: Internal Modification in SITU 1

	ANSs		ENSs		Freshmen		Seniors	
	%(N)	M	%(N)	M	%(N)	M	%(N)	M
Openers	3.13(1)	.03	29.41(5)	.29	7.14(2)	.07	17.24(5)	.17
Understatement	6.25(2)	.06	17.65(3)	.18	28.57(8)	.29	31.03(9)	.31
Intensifiers	.00(0)	.00	11.76(2)	.12	0.00(0)	.00	.00(0)	.00
Hesitators	.00(0)	.00	.00(0)	.00	3.57(1)	.04	.00(0)	.00
Attention-getters	90.63(29)	.91	41.18(7)	.41	59.26(16)	.59	51.72(15)	.52
Total	100(32)	1.00	100(17)	1.00	100(28)	1.00	100(25)	1.00

In terms of content, we coded as an *attention-getter* in L1 any occurrence of a term of address by itself or in company of the politeness marker *minfadhlik* (literally, *it will be very generous of you/if you can do it as a favor*) in initial position, which is the pragmatic counterpart of the marker *please.* ANSs were prone to mostly using the honorific term *?ustaath/teacher* in conjunction of the lexical softener *minfadhlik* (e.g., *minfadhlik ?ustaath/?ustaathii= please (my) teacher*), in addition to others like *3afwan/forgiveness =excuse me* and *ba3da ?ithnik/after your permission=excuse me.* It is worthy of note that the use of the *possessive mode* is a typical way in Arabic to soften the impact of one's words on the H. As for ENSs, they used ones that signal distance: *professor* (*Waters*), *excuse me* (*Dr...*), and *sir.* In learners' production, pragmalinguistic transfer is operative in the use of *please* with address terms and the possessive mode (e.g., freshmen: *please professor*; *sir please*; seniors: *my professor please*; *please teacher.* Furthermore, there are cases where *please* was used twice in one utterance (e.g., freshmen: *professor please, this book on the table is on my research. Please, would you borrow ...;* seniors: *I beg your pardon sir please, can you lend me this book...that will help me in my research please.* We would argue that the first *please* was employed for attention cues under the influence of L1 while the second is a TL-proper. As far as *openers* are concerned, ANSs employed *hallasamaht/do you allow=would you mind.* ENSs employed *mind modals* (*would/do you mind*). On the whole, IL-users did not use native-like *openers* (freshmen: *I was wondering if I can; if you would like*; seniors: *would you mind; I will be very grateful if..., if you don't mind, I should be grateful*). *Understaters* were employed by ANSs (e.g.*qaliilal/for little time*), ENSs (e.g. *for a while*), freshmen (e.g. *for some time, for the weekend* and *for few days*), and seniors (e.g. *for some time; for just few days; for a little time*). *Some time* and *a little time* are, perhaps, a translation from L1.

As for the external mitigators, they modify the illocutionary force indirectly i.e. they have no impact on the request itself (Faerch & Kasper, 1984, as cited in Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984, p. 204). By way of summary, Tab. 7 shows types of SMs encountered in our data. Freshmen employed more SMs than any other group (*M*= ANSs/ENSs: 0.23/0.20 vs. freshmen/seniors: 0.35/0.022).

Table 7: External Modification in SITU 1

	ANSs		ENSs		Freshmen		Seniors	
	%(N)	*M*	%(N)	*M*	%(N)	*M*	%(N)	*M*
Preparators	.00(0)	.00	6.90(2)	.07	5.33(3)	.06	12.90(4)	.13
Grounders	60.61(20)	.61	31.03(9)	.31	33.33(17)	.33	38.71(12)	.39
Disarmers	0.00(0)	.00	0.00(0)	.00	0.00(0)	.00	3.23(1)	.03
Please	15.15(5)	.15	10.34(3)	.10	45.10(23)	.45	25.81(8)	.26
Minimizers	6.06(2)	.06	31.03(9)	.31	.00(0)	.00	3.13(1)	.03
Sweeteners	.00(0)	.00	.00(0)	.00	1.96(1)	.02	.00(0)	.00
Apology	.00(0)	.00	.00(0)	.00	1.96(1)	.02	.00(0)	.00
Closings	11.76(6)	.18	13.73(4)	.14	3.92(2)	.04	16.13(5)	.16
Small Talk	.00(0)	.00	6.90(2)	.07	7.84(4)	.08	.00(0)	.00
Total	100(33)	1.00	100 (29)	1.00	100(51)	1.00	100(32)	1.00

As expected, *grounders* are the most used mitigators across the four groups. They are constituent strategy in request modification (Trosborg, 1995; Martinez-Flor, 2007; Woodfield & Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2010; Al-Ali & Alawneh, 2010). ANSs opted for more *grounders* than ENSs. The IL data showed that learners control the amount of *grounders* respective to TL. *Please* was also used across the four groups with varied frequencies. In the Arabic data, the following items were coded as equivalents of *please*: *minfadhlik* and *raja?an/?arjuuka* (literally, *I hope from you*). The overuse of this politeness marker in the learners' data is widely noticed in ILP; studies mentioned above, but Woodfield and Economidou-Kogetsidis (2010), all reported this trend. *Closings* were used across the four groups. Both cultures seem to acknowledge the interlocutors efforts to comply with the request. As for *imposition minimizers*, ENSs were, apparently, more prone to using them than ANSs. Seniors opted for as few *imposition minimizers* as in L1. Few *preparators* were employed in TL and IL. One instance of *disarmer* was employed by seniors and one instance of *sweetener* and *apology* by freshmen.

Turning to content, *grounders* were identical across the language groups (requesting the book because it is helpful in research). We relate this mainly to the phrasing of the DCT which contains justification for the request. So far as *closings* are concerned, ANSs used *considirators* (e.g. *lawsamaht=if you allow*), *supplications* (e.g. *baaraka lahu fiik= may God bless you*), *thanking expression* (e.g. *shukran=thank you*), and *thanking with supplication* (.e.g. *shukran jaziilan wa baaraka lahu fiik=Thank you very much and may God bless you*). ENSs used *considirators* (e.g. *would that be okay?*), *thanking* (*e.g. thank you again*), and an *appreciator* (e.g. *I would appreciate being allowed to use this resource*). From freshmen data, we have a *considirator* (e.g. *if it does not embarrass you)* and an *appreciator* (e.g. *it will be very kind of you*). From seniors' data, we have *appreciators* (e.g. *it will be very nice if you allow me to borrow it from you*) and a *considirator* (e.g. *if you don't need it*). It seems that learners maintained discourse patterns of L1 i.e. the conditional form. For minimizing the imposition, participants ensured giving the book back as soon as possible and taking a good care of it. Seniors used one *disarmer* (*I should not say that*).

5. Discussion

At the level of core requests, in SITU 1, the tendency towards conventionally indirect requests is typical in English requests, and is widely reported in the literature (e.g. Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Fukushima, 1996; Cenoz & Valencia, 1996; Wierzbicka, 1991. In this respect, it can be said that the

Arabic and the Anglo-American cultures seem to perceive P-variable in the same way. It means that requesting something from a person of such authority requires a lesser degree of imposition and the most tentative form possible. As for this point, Màrquez Reiter (2000, p. 173) stated that the conventionally indirect level balances "clarity and non-coerciveness" so as the utterance has "the correct interpretation and the right impact, thus leading to success." IL-users tend to overuse this category, as, we suggest, they found it accessible since it is realized by modal items which were overlearnt before, namely, *can*, *could,* and *would*. From a pragmatic point of view, modal verbs in Arabic differ from English. All modals are pragmatically equivalent in Arabic and do not have past forms, meanwhile in English they have a pragmatic consequence; they are indicators of politeness and register (Al-Aqra' 2001, p.7-8). Presumably, modals of ability in IL can be a result of cross-linguistic influence, because in Arabic the modals employed often question the H's ability. There is also another claim. The overuse of these two modals might be an outcome of textbooks. In a previous study, the author showed that Algerian secondary school textbooks tend to over-represent modals like *can* and *could* (Dendenne, 2013)*.* This may hold true, at least, for freshmen. The use of direct forms realised by *bare imperatives* was presented in L1 and IL. In Arabic there is no taboo against using them as they are not a sign of impoliteness as in English, but rather a sign of spontaneity and connectedness.

Though both controlling groups extensively employed modal verbs, Arab speakers employed them, in almost half of the requests, with reference to the H as the doer of the action. In Arabic, encounters are often characterized by solidarity so there is no offense in emphasizing the role of the H achieved by means of the H-perspective. ENSs avoided the reference to the H through the preponderance of the S-perspective. IL-users seem unaware of what role perspective plays in minimizing the face-threat in TL. This is justified by the overrepresentation of the H-perspective under the L1 influence, most probably. So, here negative pragmatic transfer is operative. As compared to freshmen, seniors appeared to favor the H-oriented requests. To account for this, we would say that seniors tend to play it safe via employing the forms they feel confident about (e.g. *can you*, *could you*, *would you*), unlike freshmen who strived for approximating the native-use, despite the linguistic barriers (e.g. *may you lend me your book*).

At the level of internal modification, we relate the extensive use of *attention-getters* in Arabic to the fact that terms of address and lexical softeners are part and parcel of the politeness system in Arabic and they are among the typical ways to minimize the adverse effect of communicative acts. We noted a frequent use of *openers* in English requests. *Openers* or *consultative devices* are speech routines in the TL which are considered more polite and considerate (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Trosborg, 1994) as far as the H authority is concerned. For Woodfield and Economidou-Kogetsidis (2010, pp. 96-97), in English these linguistic forms are negative politeness devices whose role is to minimize impositions and imply distance between interactants. In this respect, the absence of *mind modals* in learners' production may cause it to sound brusque for ENSs. We would argue that the scarcity of *openers* in Arabic may be explained by the presence of *attention-getters* which may replace them in softening the coercive force of the request. Concerning *understaters*, several studies reported that learners often overuse *understaters*, in addition to the politeness marker *please* (e.g. Faerch & Kasper, 1989; Al-Ali & Alawneh, 2010; Woodfield & Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2010). In order to communicate efficiently, requests in English require the employment of intensifiers; a feature which was only traced in TL.

Turning to external mitigating devices, the oversuppliance of SMs by freshmen could be a sign of verbosity and violation of the quantity maxim from the ENSs' point of view. Verbosity is a common tendency in IL production (e.g. Al-Ali & Alawneh, 2010, in requests of Jordanian IL-users; Jung, 2004, in apologies of Korean IL-users). Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) explained this trend by the fact that learners are "uncertain of the effectiveness of their communicative interaction (p. 177)." The predominance of grounders in phrasing the requestive act is commonplace. For Faerch and Kasper (1989, p. 239) "the Grounder stands out as the single most frequent external modifier." Regarding the

higher use of this mitigator in Arabic requests, we would relate this to cultural traits. According to Al-Ali and Alawneh (2010), from a cultural point of view, a university professor in the Arabic society is one who has gained much academic knowledge and, hence, he/she occupies a high position in the social and academic hierarchy. We assume that ANSs were inclined to providing *grounders* so as to convince him/her of the importance of the object requested which causes them to perform the FTA. Learners seem to control the use of grounders in frequency as well as type. The reason is that *grounders* are acquired quite early and they do not need idiomatic (native-like) forms to build them; all they need are simple clauses (Woodfield & Economidou-Kogetsidis 2010, p.99). Additionally, they are syntactically less demanding and pragmalinguistically less complex (Hassall 2001, p. 274). We would further argue that the comparative easiness in using this mitigating device might be the fact that it could be easily transferred from L1. The marker *Please* and its equivalents in Arabic were less frequently used in the controlling groups, because they are freely usable with any interlocutor in both languages; so using them when interacting with a professor might not be an apt choice. To account for the overuse of this mark in IL requests, Faerch and Kasper (1989) explain this by the nature of this marker which can be utilized both as an illocutionary force signal and a transparent mitigator which adds a directive force to the request. Another reason, according to them, is that the other alternatives like *downtoners* (*perhaps, possibly, kindly* etc.) are not as accessible as they require a pragmalinguistic competence. Ellis (1997) stated that it is the syntactically uncomplex intensifier 'par excellence'. As mentioned earlier, Algerian EFL learners sub-consciously used *please* twice in one request, at the beginning and in medial or final position. Additionally, the use of this politeness marker with such high frequency, especially by freshmen, is, probably, due to the fact that it was over-learnt. Salazar Campillo (2007) stated that external modifications "almost exclusively center on the use of *please* in final and medial position within the request (p.219)" in ELT textbooks. Similarly, the author has already cited his own paper which suggests the overuse of this marker in Algerian ELT secondary school textbooks (Dendenne, 2013). The over-suppliance of one strategy has come to be called the *waffle* phenomenon (Edmondson & House, 1991); learners resort to extensive use of a given strategy in compensation for the lack of pragmatic routines. ENSs were prone to using *imposition minimizers*, a strategy that is a typical in negative politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987) or independence politeness system (Scollon & Scollon, 2001). At the level of closing moves, It is obvious enough that disparity between the two cultures lies in religious-bound expressions employed in Arabic (e.g. *may Go bless you*) that emphasize the notions of generosity and cooperation which are highly valued in the Arabic and Islamic societies. Similarly, Muslims usually refer to God's will when they talk about future events (promise of reward) as, in the Islamic traditions, it is believed that nothing happens unless God wills (e.g. *I'll give it back as soon as possible if God wills*). The employment of this Qur'anic verse is not only done on a normative base, but it also serves a pragmatic function, which is minimizing the adverse effect of one's actions on the interlocutor (Nazzal, 2005).

5.1 Measuring the Perception of the Situational Variables

Presently, we need to measure how the three situational variables under question (P, SD, and R) were perceived across the four language groups.

In the first scenario, at the core request, both L1 and TL opted for conventionally indirectness. L1 tend to strike a balance between the two main perspectives, H- and S-perspective, meanwhile TL favored the latter. Concerning modification, internal modification appeared to be balanced. That is, L1 showed consideration to the interlocutor status by means of honorific terms of address in conjunction with softeners, while TL used *openers*, as a sign of distance, besides *understaters,* to soften the request. Regarding external mitigators, ANSs were prone to justifying the request unlike the ENSs who strived

for imposition mitigation. On the whole, the pragmatic behavior of L1 and TL in the present scenario stands to reflect two politeness systems. In the former, the requester seeks to maintain the interpersonal relationship with the addressee. In the latter, he/she attempts to mitigate the face-threat. Nonetheless, both cultures seem to give a *high value* to the P-variable by means of strategies of pragmatic weight respective to the politeness patterns that apply in each culture. As for IL-users, actually, their requests have tendencies from both L1 and TL, besides IL-specific ones and, hence, we cannot say they are either approximating one of the languages or totally differing from them. In freshmen's performance, we assume that the employment of *query preparatories*, *understaters*, and the politeness marker *please* is due to the comparative easiness of these strategies and thus meant as an avoidance tactic. The scarcity in *openers* (mainly *mind modals*) is to be understood as lack of pragmatic competence. The use of *attention-getters* (frequency and type) and the absence of *imposition minimizers* appear to be L1-driven. Meanwhile, S-perspective and *grounders* align with TL. Seniors tend to play it safe using mostly the strategies they find accessible. These are *query preparatories*, H-perspective, *understaters*, and the marker *please*. The utilization of *attention-getters* and *imposition minimizers* is, presumably, L1-driven. Meanwhile, they approximated the TL use regarding *openers* and *grounders*. We suggest that this hybrid IL behavior displays learners' efforts to cope with the difficulty of the situation and, thus, evidences sensitivity to the P-asymmetric relationship in the present scenario like in the controlling groups. Yet, neither positive nor negative transfer could be claimed in weighing this variable.

In SITU 2, the four groups' performance is summarized as follows: ANSs hardly ever felt an offense in performing the FTA. Additionally, they employed bare imperatives and H-perspective. They sought to minimize the SD by means of kinship terms (*my brother/sister*) that are metaphorically extended to address non-acquaintances (strangers) to seek social rapprochement (Maalej, 2010). As for external mitigation, it was centered on lexical softeners. TL tends to employ strategies of more weight from a pragmatic standpoint. The majority of the respondents opted for not performing the FTA (e.g. *I normally wouldn't ask for help from a stranger in this situation; I would never do this. Ever; I would not ask the stranger for help*), besides indirect requests, *openers*, *understatements*, *grounders*, *imposition minimizers* and *apologies*. The juxtaposition of these tactics would suggest that TL seems to give *higher* value to the SD. As for IL performance, disregarding the strategies which do not appear to follow pragmatic variation (*query preparatories*, *grounders* and *please*), it was much in line with L1. Learners did not feel an offense in performing the act, referring to the H as the doer of the action, heavily relying on terms of address, and under-employing independence strategies. In consequence, we could claim that negative sociopragmatic transfer was at play. It goes without saying that the R was weighed high (costly service) and it could also affect the performance.

In SITU 3, Arab speakers tend to overplay direct forms, H-perspective, *attention-getters* (kinship terms, in-group markers, and lexical softeners), and *grounders*, on the one hand. On the other hand, they were not inclined to using *promise of reward*, besides they used none of the independence strategies (*imposition minimizers* and *apology*). Quite the opposite, Anglo-Americans favored conventionally indirect requests, S-perspective, *consultative devices*, *understatements* and *downtoners*. For external mitigators, they signaled their independence from the requestee using independence strategies. In this respect, it is reasonable to claim that TL stands out to give *higher* value to the R-variable. Regarding IL-users, their performance is a great deal in line with that of L1, because they employed direct requests, H-perspective, and a*ttention-getters*. Additionally, the *promise of reward* along with the absence of *imposition minimizers* and *apology* sounds to be L1-driven. To this end, it could be claimed that negative sociopragmatic transfer was operative in the perception of the favor requested.

Having reported the results of the study and discussed them, we presently come to answer the study's research questions.

5.2 Answering the Research Questions

On the whole, Arabic and English requests reflect two types of politeness system. In the former, requesters seek to gain the requestee's approval (positive) and, in the latter, they strive to minimize the face-threat (negative). So far as IL production is concerned, both types of transfer were evidenced in learners' production: pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic. Added to that, IL requests were influenced by lack of pragmatic competence, IL-specific features and language constraints.

5.2.1 Wording of Strategies [Research Question 1]

Pragmalinguistic transfer was evidenced in the employment of linguistic items inspired by L1 in order to achieve an illocutionary force in TL. In core requests, learners employed bare imperatives, unaware of the politeness value of these items. Similarly, the ability modals (*can* and *could*) could be an influence of L1 because, in Arabic, requesters often question the interlocutor's ability. H-perspective seems to have the least immunity to pragmatic transfer. Though learners frequently employ *query preparatories* like ENSs, perspective follows L1 orientation. As compared to ENSs, learners overused *attention-getters* approximating L1 amount. As for type, they tend to employ the softener *please* in conjunction with terms of address following the distribution of the equivalent markers in Arabic (e.g. *minfadhlik*). Also, they transferred kinship terms, (*my*) *brother/sister*, to address strangers. Word for word translation from L1 was evident in *attention getters* (*brother/sister*), *openers* (*I will be very grateful*, SITU 1), *grounders* (*my shoulders are falling*, SITU 2), *closings* (*if it does not embarrass you; if you don't need it; if you want*, SITU 1), and separate words and expressions (e.g. *meters, dinars, some time, little time*).

5.2.2   Request Strategies [Research Question 1]

The use of strategies indicates the sociopragmatic preconceptions underlying learners' performance. Here too, L1 guidelines were clear. The use of bare imperatives can also be considered sociopragmatic, given the fact that learners transferred a higher degree of imposition. In a similar vein, reference to the H as the doer of the action signifies an unawareness of the requestee's autonomy of action based on the L1 sensibilities that people are publically available to each other. For internal modification, *attention-getters* were heavily relied on by learners following L1 guidelines. Therefore, learners transferred L1's politeness norm that aims at establishing a common ground with the addressee. Also, the amount of *understaters* was in line with L1 frequency, in SITU 2 and 3. At the external level, the amount of *grounders, promise of reward, imposition minimizers*, and *apologies* appeared, to such an extent, L1-driven. These strategies, except from *grounders*, were much noticeable in TL data since they are typical traits of *independence politeness* cultures. Learners did not feel an offense in requesting a stranger for help (SITU 2) under the influence of L1. So, they assumed that, cooperation even among distant people is a norm in TL. As for perceptions of the situational variables, IL-users, like the controlling groups, appeared to give higher value to the P variable. However, for SD, and R variables, their perception much aligned with L1.

5.2.3   Other Features [Research Question 2]

In addition to transfer, learners' production was impacted by lack of pragmatic competence. The underuse of *openers* (namely *mind modals*) or their non-native-like use evidenced lack of pragmatic knowledge. Also, the inability to understate was evidenced in SITU 2 and 3. Similarly, the absence of *downtoners* was understood as a lack of pragmatic competence. For compensating the lack of pragmatic knowledge, learners resorted to IL-specific strategies like *waffling* i.e. the over-suppliance of strategies

they know most. These are *query preparatories*, modals (*can*, *could*, and *would*), H-perspective, *understaters* (in SITU 1), and the politeness marker *please*. As they care about explicitness, learners, especially freshmen, produced long-winded requests due to overplaying external mitigators. Linguistic barriers were an outstanding feature in IL-requests. Though they may not affect the pragmatic intent, such errors do affect the linguistic appropriacy of the speech act (Tagushi, 2006). To illustrate this point, learners misused the verb *to borrow*, the modal *may*, and they were not able to vary performative verbs in each scenario. For instance, in SITU 3, learners kept using the verbs *to give, to lend*, and *to borrow*; meanwhile ENSs, additionally, used *to loan, be able to, to have*, and *to spot*.

5.2.4   LP and Pragmatic Transfer [Research Question 3]

Actually, LP did not give a marked advantage to seniors over freshmen. The performance of the two groups was a good deal identical across the three scenarios. That is to say, both of them laid back on their L1 at the pragmalinguistic and the sociopragmatic levels. In both groups, transfer was centered on the same strategies: HAs, request perspective and modification (internal and external). Moreover, factors other than transfer listed above were extant in the production of both groups, with varied degrees. This last proviso, on the whole, indicates that LP did not encourage the exhibition of more pragmatic transfer at both levels. Despite the similarity in performance, we uncovered some idiosyncrasies as well. Seniors approximated TL in the employment of *openers*, in SITU 1 and 3, *opting out* strategy, in SITU 1. Also, they were, relatively, less affected by verbosity, translation from L1, and grammatical errors. We noted that seniors tend to *play it safe* via the use of linguistic items they know most and, thus, they gave the impression that they are rather tactful. Meanwhile, freshmen strived to use as many strategies as possible, though unsure about them. In two out of three scenarios, freshmen opted for excessive use of external mitigating devices. This ended them up with long-winded requests. In addition, freshmen outperformed seniors regarding the use of H-perspective in SITU 1, in terms of frequency, but they did not seem to have complete command on the items realizing this strategy (namely, the modal *may*).

6. Conclusions

The present paper sheds light on practical implications vis-à-vis intercultural communication and EFL pedagogy. IL behaviour deviated from the target norms in important ways regarding all the chunks of the requestive utterance. This could violate the target community's social rules of appropriateness and, thus, leading to pragmatic failure. For the core request, maintaining higher levels of directness using bare imperatives might sound rude for NSs. Similarly, the over-emphasis of the role of the H in performing the act through the heavy reliance on H-oriented requests heightens the directive force. Lack of internal modification due to underusing *consultative devices* (especially by freshmen) or the use of inappropriate ones as well as the absence of *downtoners* may sound impolite mainly in P-asymmetric encounters. Furthermore, mitigating the requestive force by only *grounders* in the absence of strategies indicating consideration to the interlocutor's autonomy (namely *imposition minimizers* and *apologies*) might be perceived in TL as a lack of respect. The oversuppliance of the politeness marker *please*, which was deemed inapt by ENSs in such tactful encounters, is not an inadequate modification and, thus, puts the success of the request at stake. Also, the oversuppliance of external modifiers (by freshmen) is regarded as violation of the quantity maxim and, hence, redundant. IL-users seem unaware that not doing the FTA is a constituent choice in politeness in English requests. So, asking *help from a stranger*, for instance, can be perceived as invasion of one's territory and, thus, signifies rudeness.

In pedagogy, developing pragmatic competence in foreign language context may be hard to achieve because, as compared to the second language one, it lacks chances of the full interaction with NSs (Kasper & Schmidt 1996, p. 160). In order to teach speech acts, and requests particularly, we have to care about the teaching material, explicit instruction, and, more importantly, learners' efforts to learn

and perform speech acts. First, The EFL textbook plays a vital role in shaping learners' pragmatic behavior. Certain deviations in our learners' IL requests were interpreted as the effect of the teaching manuals. The growing literature on the studies analysing textbooks from the pragmatic standpoint have revealed various shortcomings in the input offered (e.g. Vellenga, 2004 and Salazar Campillo, 2007). In line with the recommendations of such studies, the EFL textbook should provide learners with empirically validated data or authentic one covering both the pragmalinguistic and the sociopragmatic dimensions. The data should also be supported with the relevant pragmatic and metapragmatic information pertaining to culture, context, politeness, register and the situational variables like dominance, distance, age, costly services in requesting in TL and so forth. Second, learners have to be explicitly instructed in speech acts. This may be achieved by means of creative activities designed to offer learners opportunities to learn and practice requests. The 'alternative' activities suggested by Usó-Juan (2007, pp. 238-240) are relevant here. He suggested a three-phase procedure: presentation (sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic knowledge), recognition (making use of knowledge, raising pragmatic awareness, and awareness about cross-cultural/linguistic differences), and production ('collaborative practice' of pragmatic information-rich scenarios, using, e.g., role-plays). Needless to say, teachers' intervention is inescapable. Their role entails suppliance of 'metapragmatic reflection.' In a similar way, Martinez-Flor (2007) states that films can be a 'powerful pedagogical tool' (p. 274). She suggested inductive and deductive approaches for integrating them in EFL classrooms (pp. 274-276). Third, for Cohen (2005), whatever we do to help learners acquire pragmatic competence, it would take them many years and their task still appears a "daunting challenge." Explicit teaching is never enough if we do not consider learners' efforts (p. 280/287). We strongly agree with Cohen in emphasizing the transition to *style-* and *strategic-based instruction* which aims at developing learners' sense of how to be tactful in dealing with speech acts via learning and performing speech acts as well as metapragmatic considerations (Cohen, 2005, pp. 288-292). Relying on themselves, learners are advised to learn speech acts by, for instance, seeking knowledge relating to semantic formulae and linguistic structure used in L1 and TL by means of observation, written tools, conducting 'lay' cross-cultural comparisons or accessing publications pertaining to speech acts (e.g. corpora, textbooks). Also, they should look for a chance to practice the acquired knowledge. They can take part in imaginary interactions and role plays with peers or NSs. Furthermore, there are certain metapragmatic aspects to consider. For example, learners should select a focus (e.g. production vs. comprehension) and check the appropriateness (of the level of directness, term of address, semantic formula, and linguistic form). It goes without saying that these strategies are little else than hypotheses, so we would invite researchers for testing them empirically.

In conclusion, the present cross-sectional study is merely a step forward in the research of transfer in the ILP of Algerian EFL learners. We suggest contrasting it with findings drawn from other data gathering tools (e.g. role play, naturally occurring data, and interviews) or combination of them. Our findings could, further, be validated by investigating a larger sample of subjects from different backgrounds or with focus on gender differences. Additionally, research in pragmatic transfer stands to benefit from comprehensive cross-cultural studies comparing Algerian Arabic and British or American English.

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"Kardeş, bu çantaları taşımama yardım eder misin? Omuzlarım ağrıyor."
Cezayirli İngilizce öğrencilerinin rica kullanımlarında aradil transferi

Öz

Mevcut çalışma, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Cezayirli öğrencilerin diller arası rica kullanımlarındaki faydacı transferlerinin incelenmesini amaçlamaktadır. Çalışmanın verileri üç parçalı Söylev Tamamlama Görevi ile toplanmıştır. Görev, her biri farklı ana dile sahip iki kontrol grubuna uygulanmıştır: Arapça ve İngilizce ve öğrenciler iki farklı yeterlik düzeyinden gelmiştir: orta ve yüksek. Tepkiler kodlanıp rica stratejilerinin frekanslarıyla analiz edilmiştir ve üslupları, rica perspektifleri ve değişiklikleri bazında incelenmiştir. Bulgular, Arapça ve İngilizce performanslarda ili farklı kibarlık sistemi göstermiştir: sırasıyla olumlu-yüz-tabanlı ve olumsuz-yüz-tabanlı. Öğrencilerin üretiminde, her ikisine de açıkça rastlanmıştır. Faydadilbilimsel çeşit, anadilin etkisiyle ve motomot çeviri ile bağlantılı görünmüştür. Toplumsalfaydacı çeşit, duruma bağlı değişkenler ve öğrencinin anadili ile ilişkili ortam değerlendirmesi ile alakalıdır. Transfere ek olarak, diller arası üretim, faydacı bilgi eksikliği, diller arası belirgin özellikler ve dilsel kısıtlamalardan etkilenmiştir. Dil yetkinlik etkeni, üst düzey öğrencilere orta düzey öğrencileri nazaran belirgin bir avantaj sağlamamıştır. Çalışmada aynı zamanda kültürlerarası iletişimin ve söz eyleminin pratik çıkarımları da dikkate alınmıştır.

Anahtar sözcükler: Cezayirli öğrenciler; YDÖ, dillerarası rica, faydacı transfer, faydadilbilimsel, toplumsalfaydacı.

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Iranian EFL learners' sociolinguistic competence: Refusal strategies in focus

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Abstract

The current study investigated the extent to which Iranian learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) learners are sociolinguistically competent in performing the speech act of refusal. The data were elicited form a sample of 30 Iranian EFL learners, 15 males and 15 females, who responded to situations in a discourse completion task (DCT). The results indicated that the three most frequent refusal strategies are 'excuse, reason, explanation', 'non-performative statement' and 'statement of regret'. The findings revealed the participants' tendency toward positive and negative politeness in refusing. Regarding gender, Chi-square analyses revealed no significant differences between males and females in the use of both politeness strategies and refusal strategies. The refusal utterances were also rated by two native English speakers on a three-point politeness Likert scale (1: Polite, 2: Partially polite and 3: Impolite). The rating was that out of the 148 utterances (i.e., 82% of the entire sample of refusal utterances being 180 utterances), only 43 refusals, accounting for 29%, had been rated as 'Polite', with the remaining 105 utterances rated as either 'Partially polite' or 'Impolite'. The analysis of the content of the refusal semantic formulas included elements of both politeness and impoliteness. Elements that contributed to appropriacy included indirectness, certain syntactic and lexical structures, intensification, among others while the elements of impoliteness were length of the semantic formulas (both shortness and verbosity), lack of total redress, mitigation and politeness markers, among other things. In general, the participants were found to be in need of improvement in the appropriate realization of refusal.

Keywords: appropriacy; EFL learners; politeness; refusal; sociolinguistic competence

1. Introduction

As a highly complex act which requires a high level of pragmatic competence on the part of the refuser to avoid causing offence to the addressee, a refusal functions as a dispreferred response initiated by an offer, invitation, request or suggestion and can put the interlocutor's positive face at risk if performed inappropriately (Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan, 2011). Therefore, a face-threatening act (FTA) such as refusal needs to be accompanied by redress, mitigation and politeness markers. The problem arises when individuals speak a language that is not their native language but a language they have learned. Kasper (1981, as cited in Kasper & Rose, 2001, p. 6), for instance, argued that "Learners frequently underuse politeness marking in L2 even though they regularly mark their utterances for politeness in L1". In a similar vein, Doughty (2005) stated that lack of politeness markers is also among the typical problems observed in the second language behavior of the Canadian English-French

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bilinguals in immersion programs. Most probably, Doughty's findings can be true of many EFL learners. This issue has recently motivated a large number of research studies on politeness (e.g., Abdul Sattar, Lah, & Suleiman, 2011; Allami & Naeimi, 2011; Farnia & Wu, 2012; Nelson, Al Batal, & El Bakary, 2002; Tahakashi & Uliss-Weltz, 1990; Umale, 2011; Wannaruk, 2008, to name but a few). The concept of politeness and polite behavior, as an indicator of pragmatic development and sociolinguistic ability, has been on the agenda for a number of decades and has recently commanded wide assent. The acquisition of pragmatic competence to be an effective communicator in the target language is a long task to carry out and a long-term, though desirable, goal to achieve.

The ability to appropriately realize and encode a speech act in one's native language or in a second or foreign language (L2) relates to what has been labeled the 'sociolinguistic ability' or, more broadly, the 'pragmatic ability'. More specifically, Canale and Swain (1980, as cited in Littlewood, 2011, p. 546) defined sociolinguistic competence as the "knowledge of how to use language appropriately in social situations, e. g. conveying suitable degrees of formality, directness and so on".

Brown and Levinson (1987) proposed five politeness strategies for doing an FTA: bald on record, positive politeness, negative politeness, off-record politeness and do not do FTA.

1. Bald on record politeness strategies constitute those strategies the most significant feature of which is the lack of any mitigation and indirectness. Verschueren (2003) stated that these are "completely open and direct, without any attempt to let the addressee preserve some freedom of action or some sense of equality" (p. 45). The following request is an example of bald on record politeness strategy: *Open the door*!

2. According to Brown and Levinson (1987, as cited in Chodorowska-Pilch, 2008, p. 1361), a positive politeness strategy is "approach-based; it 'anoints' the face of the addressee by indicating that in some respects, S [speaker] wants H [hearer]'s wants […]". '*Please open the door, darling*' exemplifies positive politeness.

3. According to Chodorowska-Pilch, (2008), a negative politeness strategy is 'avoidance-based' and the speaker realizes this strategy by utilizing strategies that recognize and preserve the hearer's negative-face wants; '*Can you please open the door?*' is an instance of negative politeness strategy.

4. Off-record strategies can be achieved by minimizing the imposition on the hearer through the use of hints, metaphors and making one's intention vague (Morkus, 2009). According to Ogiermann (2009), they pose the speaker or the hearer to the highest amount of redress. Austin (1987) enumerated hints, allusions, irony, double-edged compliments, oblique requests, euphemisms and puns to be the strategies employed in off record politeness. '*It's cold in here*' as a hint to prompt the addressee to open the door is an example of off record politeness.

5. The fifth strategy to be polite is to choose not perform or do the FTA which is deemed to be the most face-saving act (Ogiermann, 2009). That is to say, speakers may prefer not to put their own or the addressee's face at risk by refraining from doing a certain speech act.

The present study investigates extent to which Iranian EFL learners have become sociolinguistically competent in encoding the speech act of refusal. The study is motivated by the dearth of research studies particularly by the fact that refusals have not been welcomed very extensively in the Iranian context. The study is of significance in that it touches upon an area of communicative competence which is of a pivotal role in cross-cultural communication.

1.1. Literature review

As a significant FTA, a refusal leads to disruption in harmony in relationships. Therefore, to save a relationship from disruption, the interlocutors are required to employ a variety of strategies to mitigate

the disruptive effect of the act of refusing (Umale, 2011). The taxonomy of refusal strategies, consisting of Direct Refusals, Indirect Refusals and Adjuncts to Refusal, as classified by Beebe, Tahakashi and Uliss-Weltz (1990, as cited in Farnia & Wu, 2012, p.174) is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Classification of refusal strategies

Type	Strategies	Semantic Formulas
I) Direct	A) Performative	I refuse
	B) Non-performative statement	
	1) "No"	
	2) Negative willingness/ability	I can't; I won't; I don't think so.
II) Indirect	A) Statement of regret	I'm sorry; I feel terrible.
	B) Wish	I wish I could help you.
	C) Excuse, reason, explanation	I have a headache.
	D) Statement of alternative	
	1) I can do X instead of Y	I'd rather do…; I'd prefer
	2) Why don't you do X instead of Y	Why don't you ask someone else
	E) Set condition for future or past acceptance	If you had asked me earlier, I would have…
	F) Promise of future acceptance	I'll do it next time; I promise I'll…; -Using "will" of promise or "promise"
	G. Statement of principle	I never do business with friends.
	H. Statement of philosophy	One can't be too careful.
	I. Attempt to dissuade interlocutor	
	1. Threat or statement of negative consequences to the requester	"I won't be any fun tonight" to refuse an invitation
	2. Guilt trip	waitress to customers who want to sit a while: "I can't make a living off people who just order coffee."
	3. Criticize the request/requester, etc. (statement of negative feeling or opinion); insult/attack	Who do you think you are?; That's a terrible idea!
	4. Request for help, empathy, and assistance by dropping or holding the request.	
	5. Let interlocutor off the hook	Don't worry about it; That's okay; You don't have to.
	6. Self-defense	I'm trying my best; I'm doing all I can.
	J. Acceptance that functions as a refusal	
	1. Unspecific or indefinite reply	
	2. Lack of enthusiasm	
	K. Avoidance	
	1. Nonverbal	
	a. Silence	

	b. Hesitation	
	c. Do nothing	
	d. Physical departure	
	2. Verbal	
	a. Topic switch	
	b. Joke	
	c. Repetition of part of request, etc.	Monday?
	d. Postponement	I'll think about it.
	e. Hedging	Gee, I don't know; I'm not sure.
Adjuncts to refusals	1. Statement of positive opinions/feeling or agreement	That's a good idea…; I'd love to…
	2. Statement of empathy	I realize you are in a difficult situation.
	3. Pause filler	uhh; well; uhm.
	4. Gratitude/appreciation	

Special attention has been directed to refusal behavior of EFL learners as refusals are highly face-threatening and performing them in an inappropriate way can easily lead to face loss and disruption of social harmony and consequently serious breakdowns in communication. The line of research has shifted attention to various issues surrounding this speech act such as the comparison of native and non-native speakers' refusal strategies (Umale, 2011), the effect of instruction on the language learners' refusals (Lingli & Wannaruk, 2010), and so forth. Umale (2011) carried out a study to investigate the similarities and differences between ten British speakers and ten Omanis who responded to situations in a DCT which consisted of various interlocutor statuses (low, high and equal). Umale's findings suggested that both the Omanis and the British speakers tended to use indirect refusals strategies, mainly statement of regret, care for the interlocutor's feeling, giving reasons and promise for future acceptance, to refuse requests from their superiors. Umale concluded that while Omanis tried to sound polite when refusing, their too long answers often led to pragmalinguistic failure.

The role of implicit and explicit instruction in English refusals of 62 Chinese learners of English was examined by Lingli and Wannaruk (2010). They found that while no significant difference was observed with regard to refusals to offers and suggestions, the explicit instruction was better than implicit instruction in refusals to invitations and requests. In general, they concluded, explicit teaching in English of refusals was found to be better than implicit instruction. The effect of explicit instruction on the development of polite refusal strategies was also the subject of investigation in another study (Silva, 2003). The study incorporated task-based principles into the teaching of the sociopragmatic as well as the pragmalinguistic aspects of refusals. The findings revealed that the subjects in the experimental group, a sample of 14 low-intermediate learners of English, made considerable pragmatic development compared to those in the control group. For instance, some refusal strategies which were absent in the pre-test appeared in the post-test phase which resulted in more polite refusals. Yang (2008) conducted a study of refusal strategies and the motivating acts that prompted the refusals to be made. The data gathered from clips taken from five Chinese TV series indicated that refusals were most often prompted by requests, offers, invitations and suggestions.

Researchers have also focused on the instrumentation phase of interlanguage research. Martínez-Flor and Usó-Juan (2011) examined the appropriate data collection tools for gathering data on refusals to requests, comparing oral-role plays, written discourse completion tasks and awareness tests and their

effect on the production and comprehension of refusals among university students. They concluded their study with the statement that these tasks can be utilized not only to collect data on pragmatics-related aspects of language learning but also to teach these aspects to L2 or FL learners. Al-Kahtani (2005) took into account the way refusal strategies are realized in three different cultures, namely American, Arab and Japanese, but in the same language, English. Al-Kahtani's study of these three cultural groups showed that although refusals were realized differently in different cultures, there were similarities in the way that requests were refused by the groups. He found out that regret, excuse, reason and explanation were the most frequent refusal strategies used. He recommended that teachers teach the appropriate use of refusal strategies so that EFL learners avoid breakdowns in cross-cultural communication. In a study of Chinese and Malaysian university students' refusal behavior, Farnia and Wu (2012) investigated the refusals to invitation by use of a written discourse completion test and an immediate structured interview aimed to see examine their perception concerning their cognition and language of thought in the process of refusing. The findings showed that both groups used similar types of refusal strategies but they differed in the frequency of the refusals. In addition, the most frequent refusal strategies were found to be statement of regret, excuses, reasons and explanation and expression of negative ability and willingness. As regards the adjuncts to refusals, the results also revealed that the participants used positive opinions, feelings, or agreement, expressions of gratitude and appreciation and alerters most frequently of all.

Research on refusal has been rigorous in the Iranian context as well. For instance, Hassani, Mardani and Dastjerdi (2011) focused on the role of gender and social status in their cross-linguistic study of the refusal strategies of a group of 60 EFL learners who responded to a DCT with a time interval in between. The results showed no significant difference as regards the role of gender and the higher social status was found to result in the learners' use of indirect refusal strategies in Persian while more direct strategies were used in English. In another study, Allami and Naeimi (2011) focused on the pragmatic development of Iranian EFL learners in their cross-linguistic study in which they examined the frequency, shift and content of semantic formulae of the refusals of three groups of Persian speakers, Persian learners of English and native speakers of English, taking into account the learners' language proficiency, status of interlocutors and types of eliciting acts. The findings indicated that differences in the shift, frequency and semantic formulae of the native and nonnative speakers and that the most frequently used refusal strategies were direct refusals, statement of regret and excuse, reason and explanation. Allami and Naeimi (2011) noted that Iranian EFL learners demonstrated evidence of pragmatic transfer of the sociocultural norms from their L1 (Persian) to L2 (English).

The current study will examine the strategies used by Iranian EFL learners to refuse in an attempt to fathom out the extent to which these strategies have been employed appropriately, hence a measurement of the sociolinguistic competence/development and language appropriacy.

1.2. Research questions

The following research questions were formulated to guide the current study:

1. What are the most frequent refusal strategies and adjuncts to refusals used by Iranian EFL learners across gender?

2. Is there any significant difference between males and females in their use of refusal strategies?

3. What are the politeness strategies used in refusal by Iranian EFL learners across interlocutor power?

4. Is there any significant difference between males and females in their use of politeness strategies in refusal?

5. How do native English speakers evaluate Iranian EFL learners' refusal utterances on the politeness Likert scale?

2. Method

2.1. Participants

The participants of the study consisted of 30 (15 males and 15 females) Iranian MA EFL learners/holders. Their age ranged from 23 to 31 and they were contacted via mail to fill out the DCT. They were asked to respond immediately although no time limit was set for their response. Nearly all the participants were teachers in English at either private language institutes or public schools.

2.2. Instrument(s)

The data were collected by means of a DCT. The DCT employed in Allami and Naeimi's (2011) study was utilized in the current study to collect data on the realization of refusal by Iranian EFL learners. It is important to note that the DCT used by Allami and Naeimi comprised 12 situations, 6 situations of which were selected for the purposes of the current study. In doing so, the researchers considered the familiarity and suitability of the situations for the intended purpose as well as the fact that an equal number in each power level be selected (i.e., two situations for each power status). Information on the situations of the DCT is presented in Table 2. In this table, power (P) is shown by means –P (the speaker is lower than the hearer), +P (the speaker is higher than the hearer) and =P (the speaker and hearer are equal).

Table 2. The description of the construction of refusal situations

No.	Situations	Power
1	Spending an extra hour	(-P) Low-High
2	Eating another piece of cake	(=P) Equals
3	Borrowing lecture notes	(=P) Equals
4	Organizing oneself better	(+P) High-Low
5	Asking for change in schedule	(-P) Low-High
6	Asking for salary raise	(+P) High-Low

2.3. Data collection and analysis

The data were analyzed in four phases. First, the frequencies of the refusal strategies and adjuncts to refusals were determined by analyzing the refusal semantic formulas according to the taxonomy of refusal strategies as proposed by Tahakashi and Uliss-Weltz (1990) (see section 1.1 above). In the next step, the politeness strategies employed in the data were determined based on Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory. The third phase included an evaluation of the refusal semantic formulas in terms of politeness by two native English speakers on a three-point politeness Likert scale as such: 1:

Polite, 2: Partially polite and 3: Impolite. Finally, the semantic formulas were examined qualitatively in light of the previous research on politeness and the elements of politeness and impoliteness were determined in this phase.

3. Results

The present study touched upon Iranian EFL learners' refusal behavior from a sociolinguistic viewpoint and the results are presented below.

3.1. Refusal strategy use

The participants employed all the refusal strategies but two strategies, namely performative and statement of philosophy. Table 3 summarizes the results of refusal strategy use among Iranian EFL learners.

Table 3. Raw frequency and percentage of refusal strategies across gender

Type	Refusal strategy	Group					
		Male		Female		Total	
		No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
I) Direct	A. Performative	0	0	0	0	0	0
	B. Non-performative statement	27	9.6	36	12.8	63	22.3
II) Indirect	A. Statement of regret	19	6.7	20	7.1	39	13.8
	B. Wish	5	1.8	4	1.4	9	3.2
	C. Excuse, reason, explanation	62	22	55	19.5	117	41.5
	D. Statement of alternative	2	0.7	3	1.1	5	1.8
	E. Set condition for future or past acceptance	3	1.1	2	0.7	5	1.8
	F. Promise of future acceptance	4	1.4	5	1.8	9	3.2
	G. Statement of principle	0	0	1	0.3	1	0.3
	H. Statement of philosophy	0	0	0	0	0	0
	I. Attempt to dissuade interlocutor	13	4.6	12	4.2	25	8.8
	J. Acceptance that functions as a refusal	2	0.7	2	0.7	4	1.4
	K. Avoidance	4	2.4	1	0.3	5	2.76
Total		141	50	141	50	282	100

These findings are consistent with those of Nelson, et al. (2002), Wannaruk (2008), Allami and Naeimi (2011), Abdul Sattar, et al. (2011), Umale (2011) and Farnia and Wu (2012).

Table 3 shows that Iranian EFL learners' three most frequent strategies of refusing are excuse, reason, explanation, non-performative statement and statement of regret. The results demonstrated reasons and excuses, however, were not specific, a finding which is again in keeping with Allami and Naeimi's (2011) findings. For example, such general excuses as 'I have so many problems with the expenses of this bookstore', 'we're not in a good situation economically right now', and 'I have a lot of work to do sir' abounded in the participants' refusals. Allami and Naeimi noted that the high frequency of excuse, reason and explanation in the refusals of Iranian learners can be attributed to their attempt to sound polite and to their cultural specificities. They also reported that Americans' excuses, unlike those of Iranians, were more specific.

Another finding is that the participants rarely avoided providing the addressee with a response, whether verbally or non-verbally, which can be interpreted as their attempt to be polite. Males, however, tended to use avoidance more frequently than females. This might be related to the fact that, as Holmes (1989) pointed out, women often tend to be more polite than men and therefore have employed this strategy less frequently.

Figure 1 shows the directness level of the refusal strategies across gender.
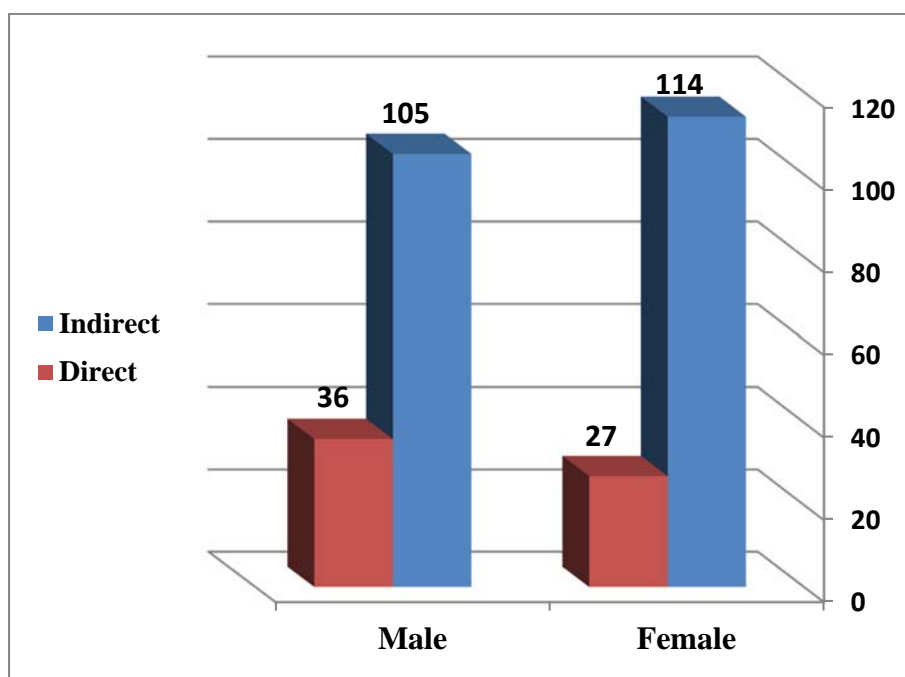
Figure 1. *Frequency of type of refusal strategies across gender*

Figure 1 shows that, overall, females' refusal behavior is more direct than the males'. This difference in the level of directness is not very considerable, though.

In addition to refusal strategies, the study also examined the participants' use of adjuncts to refusals. The results in this regard are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Frequency and percentage of adjuncts to refusal strategies across gender

Adjunct	Group		
	Male	Female	Total

	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
1. Statement of positive opinions/feeling or agreement	17	17.5	15	15.5	32	33
2. Statement of empathy	1	1	0	0	1	1
3. Pause filler	22	22.7	12	12.4	34	35
4. Gratitude/appreciation	16	16.5	14	14.4	30	30.9
Total	56	57.7	41	42.3	97	100

As shown in Table 4 above, the participants used all types of adjuncts but statement of empathy with almost the same frequency. These findings are in line with Farnia and Wu (2012) except for the adjunct of 'pause fillers'. Also, Table 4 shows that male EFL learners use more adjuncts compared to females. The high frequency of gratitude and statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement is in line with Allami and Naeimi's (2011) findings.

As shown in Table 4 above, statement of empathy was the least frequent adjunct used. Since by using this adjunct, the refuser seeks the requester's solidarity (Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan, 2011), the very limited use of statement of empathy is indicative of the learners' inability to employ this mitigator in refusals. Morkus (2009) posited that adjuncts are "preliminary remarks that cannot stand alone and function as refusals" (p. 82).

3.2. The role of gender in refusal strategy

The role of gender in the use of refusal strategies was addressed in the second research question. The Chi-square analysis showed no significant difference regarding the role of gender in the use of refusal strategies (X^2= 5.192, p= .878 > .05). Table 5 sums up the results in this connection. Based on this analysis, the third null hypothesis is confirmed.

Table 5. Chi-square analysis of refusal strategy use

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-square	5.192	10	.87

N=282   p< .05   Critical Value: 18.307

3.3. Politeness strategy use in refusal across gender and power

Refusing a request, suggestion or an offer requires that S direct special attention to H's face so as to avoid unintended breakdowns in communication since refusals are notoriously face-threatening. To sound polite, EFL learners should equip their refusals, like any other speech act, with certain mitigators or politeness markers. The participants used politeness strategies in their refusals the frequency of which is summarized in Table 6 below. This was addressed in the fourth research question.

Table 6. Politeness super-strategy use across power and gender in refusal

Power	BOR		PSP		NGP		OFR		Do not do FTA	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
+P (S>H; Sit # 5 & 6)	8	3	20	20	12	23	2	4	0	0
=P (S=H; Sit # 2 & 3)	1	2	25	20	11	12	2	2	0	0
-P (S<H; Sit # 1 & 4)	1	1	26	26	26	17	1	0	0	0
Total	10	6	71	66	49	52	5	6	0	0

Note. Sit= Situation; M= Male; F= Female; BOR: bald on record; PSP: positive politeness; NGP: negative politeness; OFR: off record.

Table 6 shows that the major politeness strategies employed in refusals were positive and negative politeness. Although it has been stated in the literature that negative politeness strategies are used mainly by a low status person addressing a higher person status, the participants of this study used both positive and negative politeness simultaneously. The markers of negative and positive politeness are exemplified in the following refusal utterances provided in the data.

The role that gender plays in the use of politeness strategies was investigated using Chi-square in Table 7. The results showed no significant difference between males and females (X^2= 1.269, p= .737 > .05).

Table 7. Chi-square analysis of politeness strategy use in refusal

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-square	1.269	3	.737

N= 265   p< .05   Critical Value: 7.815

3.4. Native speakers' assessment

The total number of the refusal utterances was 148 utterances. Figure 2 summarizes the NS's assessment which was dealt with in the last research question.
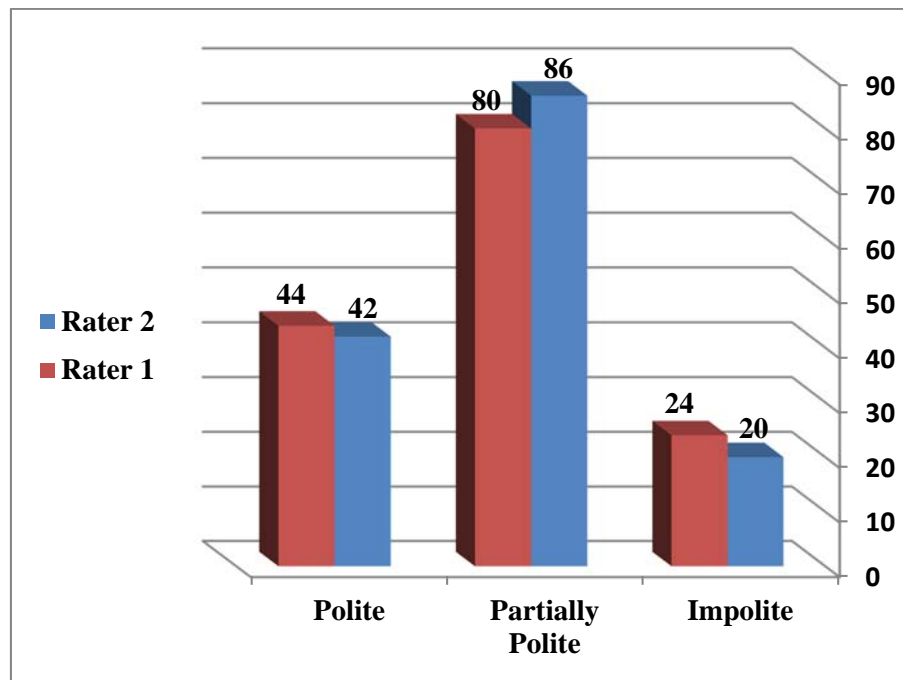
Figure 2. *NS' Assessment of the degree of politeness of the refusal utterances*

As can be seen in Figure 2, the native speakers' rating of politeness indicated that on average, only 43 refusals, accounting for 29%, were rated as polite while 22 (14.9%) refusals were said to be impolite with the majority of the refusals (56.1%) rated as partially polite. It can be seen that in the majority of the cases of refusals, Iranian EFL learners were found to be partially polite. This finding shows that they have not been able to use appropriate politeness strategies in 56.1% of the cases. Polite and impolite refusals, on the other hand, constituted 29% and 14.9% of the number of refusals.

4. Discussion

4.1. Qualitative analysis of refusal strategies

In this part, polite and impolite refusal utterances for each social status level (high, equal, low) and the participants' responses with their degree of politeness are presented and the reasons for their politeness or impoliteness are outlined. It is noteworthy that the labels 'polite' and 'impolite' used here are based on the native speakers' assessment.

S# 1 (+P; Speaker < Hearer)
You are at the office in a meeting with your boss. It is getting close to the end of the day and you want to leave the office.
Boss: If it's okay with you, I'd like you to spend an extra hour or two so that we can finish up with this work. Can you stay little longer at the office?

Polite refusals
1. Female speaker: *I wish I could, I'll work harder next days and I'm sure we can finish it soon.*
2. Female speaker: *Please excuse me, I have to go.*

3. Female speaker: *Oh, unfortunately, 'I've got to go right now. I'm so sorry, but I promise to stay longer tomorrow.*

4. Female speaker: *Oh, I'm afraid I can't. I'm so sorry Boss. I'm invited to a family party. Everyone is waiting for me. I really can't stay more. I'm so sorry.*

5. Male speaker: *Well, I wish I would, but I can't. Sorry.*

6. Male speaker: *Unfortunately, I'm afraid I've to leave however I promise to make up for it soon.*

7. Male speaker: *Oh, actually I would be more than glad to stay, but I have an appointment with my dentist to fix one of my decayed teeth which is giving me a hard time!*

8. Male speaker: *I'm really sorry. I have already other plans.*

Hearing a refusal results in disappointment initially, so the refuser should do his/her best to lessen the disappointment by using phrases like *'I'm (so) sorry, but...'* or *'I'd love to, but...'*. These mitigators prepare the refused person for disappointment before hearing the answer. Therefore, the above refusals were deemed polite since most of them included apologizing or sympathy as negative politeness strategies employed to soften the threat of the refusal. A refusal is required to be expressed using different maneuvers particularly strategies that show the indirectness of the refusal so that learners are not labeled rude or impolite (Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan, 2011). All of the above refusals are indirect and contain *pre-refusals* such as pause fillers (*well, oh*), apologizing and expressing regret (*I'm really sorry*) and requests for forgiveness (*Please excuse me*) which have added to the politeness degree of the refusals. These refusals also contain *post-refusals* like promises for future acceptance (*I promise to stay longer tomorrow*) which lessen the threat of the refusal (Levinson, 1997). Promising is a positive politeness strategy that has been employed in refusals 1, 3 and 6. This strategy removes a large extent of the threat of the refusal posed to H's negative face. For example, *I promise to make up for it soon* will in all probability result in H's confidence that his/her request is of significance to S and his/her freedom of action has not been limited.

Impolite refusals
1. Female speaker: *I wish I could help you.*
2. Male speaker: *Not really, I am actually running out of the time and have to be somewhere at (…).*

Reasonably, H expects an apology for the refusal or, as Schiffrin (2005) explicated, at least an explanation or a justification that can serve as a mitigator to soften the refusal. However, the above refusals lack this strategy and in fact they emphasize the refusal itself. The first refusal does not contain any mitigator to soften the threat of the refusal while the reason provided in Example 2 is not plausible enough.

S# 5 (+P; Speaker > Hearer)
You teach English at a university. It is just about the middle of the semester now. One of your students asks to speak to you.
Student: Ah, excuse me; some of the students were talking after class yesterday. We kind of feel that the class would be better if you could give us more practice in conversation and less on grammar.

Polite refusals
1. Female speaker: *Thanks a lot for your consideration, but more practice in conversation doesn't match the syllabus!*
2. Female speaker: *Thanks for your suggestion but I think this method is more helpful.*
3. Female speaker: *Well, conversation is not an intended goal for your course. It's general academic English rather than some conversational class in an institution.*

4. Male speaker: *Unfortunately I cannot do that because I have to go by the curriculum.*
5. Male speaker: *Sorry, we should follow the syllabus.*
6. Male speaker: *Maybe you're right but regarding the syllabus grammar is the focus of this course.*

The adjuncts to refusals utilized in Examples 1 and 2 in the form of appreciation foster the solidarity between S and H and lessens the degree of power. This strategy is a compliment that serves to preserve H's positive face (Morkus, 2009). According to Holmes (1989), compliments are positive politeness strategies. Examples 2, 4 and 6 have been hedged which results in H's feeling that his/her freedom of action (here, making a request or suggestion) is not impeded. In addition, in most of these utterances, S has removed him/herself from the focal point by mentioning the fact that the reason for failing to comply with the student's request is the regulations over which he/she has no control: *I have to go by the curriculum.* Therefore, both positive and negative politeness strategies have been employed here by a superior to a subordinate.

Impolite refusals
1. Female speaker: *I'm eager to know how you can make your sentences within a conversation without knowing grammar.*
2. Female speaker: *I'm your professor and I decide what to teach and what not to teach. According what the course requires I think it's better for your class to work more on grammar rather than conversation.*
3. Female speaker: *I think it's something I should decide about. Isn't it?*
4. Female speaker: *I have more than 10 years of teaching experience and I think you'd better have more focus on grammar than conversation now. When I feel you have got sufficient proficiency in grammar, then I will get down to conversation. Ok?*
5. Male speaker: *Well, I don't agree with you. You have to follow what I already required.*
6. Male speaker: *Sure! Any other suggestion? How about I give you guys ice cream after the class?!?*
7. Male speaker: *I know what I'm doing.*
8. Male speaker: *You [had] better focus on your job and let me focus on mine!*

One common feature of some of the above refusals is that they are too long, thus flouting Grice's maxim of quantity. Their length can be the reason of their impoliteness as was the case with Omanis' refusals in Umale's (2011) study which were found to be impolite on the grounds of being too long and thus verbose. Criticizing the requester in Examples 2, 3, 7 and 8 and the refuser's sarcastic tone in 6 as well as the refuser's emphasis on his / her authority as the professor and thus asserting his / her power, instead of solidarity, have led these refusals to be interpreted as impolite and rude.

S# 3 (-P; Speaker = Hearer)
You are a junior in college. You attend classes regularly and take good notes. Your classmate often misses class and asks you for the lecture notes.

Classmate: Oh God. We have an exam tomorrow but I don't have notes from last week. I am sorry to ask you this, but could you please lend me your notes once again?

Polite refusals
1. Female speaker: *I really want to help you but I need it myself.*
2. Female speaker: *I'm so sorry. Unfortunately I didn't bring my notes with me. I left them in home, Babolsar (a city in Iran). If you had told me sooner I would have brought them for you.*

3. Female speaker:

4. Male speaker: *I wish I could but unfortunately I haven't reviewed my notes yet.*

5. Male speaker: *If you want to copy them that's ok, otherwise I'm so sorry; ask another friend.*

6. Male speaker: *I wish I could, but I need my notes, sorry.*

The positive point about the above refusals is the use of the adjunct 'Statement of positive opinion/agreement' in 1, the conditional in Example 2 and wish in Examples 4 and 6. An adjunct does not form part of a refusal. Nevertheless, the positive opinion that the female speaker has voiced shows her concern for the hearer's face. By doing so, she has redressed the refusal to a large degree. Kwon's (2004) study revealed that use of adjuncts is a characteristic of the refusals of American English. The wish expressed in Examples 4 and 6 has significantly minimized the threat to H's positive face (Morkus, 2009). Schiffrin (2005) explicated that to soften a refusal, it should be accompanied by an explanation or justification. Some of the above refusals have been mitigated by use of this procedure.

Impolite refusals

1. Female speaker: *I do not think it is possible. You'd better learn to depend on yourself. You know, I really care more about your life.*

2. Female speaker: *No! That is your problem not my problem! Right?!!!*

3. Female speaker: *But what about tomorrow's exam?*

4. Male speaker: *Nope! I haven't forgotten the last time you borrowed them!*

5. Male speaker: *Sorry, and it's non-negotiable!*

6. Male speaker: *Well you know I'm gonna have a look at them today. Why don't you ask me earlier? Now you ask?! Sorry pal.*

Almost all of the above refusals contain criticisms leveled at the interlocutor which are extremely severe and thus threaten H's face to a great degree. Overall, 8.8% of the refusals were expressed by use of this strategy which is a sub-strategy of 'Let the interlocutor off the hook'. These criticisms can be interpreted as ways of showing one's power and disapproval of H's request/suggestion, hence the threat to H's positive face. Aksoyalp (2009), investigating the refusal strategies in a case study, assumed that the roots of the use of such a strategy went back to negative pragmatic transfer of pragmalinguistic conventions from the participants' L1.

5. Conclusions

The current study was carried out with the aim of demonstrating how sociolinguistically competent Iranian EFL learners are in refusing. The results revealed that the participants' use of refusal strategies was flawed and that it is in need of improvement. This improvement can be provided for the participants by means of raising their awareness of the cross-cultural differences in realizing various speech acts. The study also indicated that what might be needed is that the elements of politeness that were found in this study should be brought to the attention of language learners. That is, the learners should be made aware of both the elements of politeness and those of impoliteness while conforming to the former and avoiding the latter.

It is also suggested that teachers, as one of the main sources of input for learners, stress the importance of such highly face-threatening acts as refusal in everyday life encounters and how this can easily lead to serious breakdowns in communication, particularly when communication involves interlocutors form various cultures. The study identified the elements of both politeness and

impoliteness of the sample of refusal utterances. This simply implies that language learners are to bear in mind what makes a refusal utterance sound polite or impolite. The learners are also recommended to pay special attention to the role of the interlocutors' relative power and social status in interaction which, according to Brown and Gilman (1960), originate in "physical strength, wealth, age, sex, institutionalized role in the church, the state, the army or within the family" (p. 257). Power has been construed as one of the factors that determine which politeness strategy is to be chosen by the interactants (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Thus, power relationships are established almost in all interactions, especially when this entails individuals from asymmetrical power relations. Finally, textbook developers and material designers are to include more pragmatics-oriented, more use-oriented, as opposed to usage-oriented, exercises, contents and items. This is hoped to result in increased EFL learners' pragmatic awareness of the sociocultural norms that must be borne in mind while using the target language.

In conclusion, it can be said that EFL learners will not be able to behave politely and appropriately unless they fully understand the power dynamics at play among interactants. Investigating this aspect of language learning can reveal the extent of their sociolinguistic development, or to be more precise, the extent to which they have become 'polite' in the target language, here English.

Undoubtedly, no study is comprehensive from every aspect. The door is, for certain, left open to new areas of research. Future research can explore other speech acts than refusal including suggestion, request, complaint, among others. The data for the current study were gathered by means of a DCT. New studies can benefit from other data collection tools such as role-plays and interviews. Lastly, it is recommended that studies with larger sample sizes be conducted.

Acknowledgements

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Appendix A. Discourse Completion Task for Refusal

Instruction: Please read the following refusal situations. After each situation you will be asked to write a response in the blank after 'you'. Imagine that you do NOT want to comply (=agree) with their request, invitation, etc. Please respond as naturally as possible and try to write your response as you feel you would say it in the situation. The data will be used for research purposes only.

1) You are at the office in a meeting with your boss. It is getting close to the end of the day and you want to leave the office.

Boss: If it's okay with you, I'd like you to spend an extra hour or two so that we can finish up with this work. Can you stay little longer at the office?

You: ....

Boss: Well, that's too bad…I was hoping you could stay.

2) You are at a friend's house for lunch.

Friend: How about another piece of cake?

You: ....

Friend: Come on, just a little piece?

3) You are a junior in college. You attend classes regularly and take good notes. Your classmate often misses class and asks you for the lecture notes.

Classmate: Oh God. We have an exam tomorrow but I don't have notes from last week. I am sorry to ask you this, but could you please lend me your notes once again?

You: ....

Classmate: Well…then I guess I'll have to ask someone else.

4) Your boss just asked you to bring a report to him. You can't find the report on your desk because your desk is much disorganized. Your boss walks over.

Boss: You know, maybe you should try to organize yourself better. I always write things down on a piece of paper so I don't forget them. Why don't you try it?

You: ....

Boss: Well…it was only an idea anyway.

5) You teach English at a university. It is just about the middle of the semester now. One of your students asks to speak to you.

Student: Ah, excuse me; some of the students were talking after class yesterday. We kind of feel that the class would be better if you could give us more practice in conversation and less on grammar.

You: ....

Student: Well…it was only a suggestion.

6) You are the owner of a book store. One of your best workers asks to speak to you in private.

Worker: As you know, I've been here just a little over a year, and I know you've been pleased with my work. I really enjoy working here, but to be honest I really need an increase in pay.

You: ....

Worker: Well…then I guess I'll have to look for another job.

Yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen İranlı öğrencilerin toplumsal dil yetisi: Çok iyi bilinen reddetme stratejileri

Öz

Bu çalışma, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen İranlı dil öğrenicilerinin reddetme söz eylemini gerçekleştirmede toplumsal dil bilimde ne dereceye kadar yeterli oldukları araştırıldı. Bilgi durumlara söylev tamamlama görevleriyle yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen 15i erkek 15i kadın 30 İranlı öğrenci örnek grubundan temin edildi. Sonuçlar, en sık kullanılan 3 öğrenme stratejisinin mazeret, neden ve açıklama, yerine getirmeme durumu ve pişmanlık durumu olduğunu gösterdi. Bulgular, katılımcıların reddederken yakınsak ve uzaksak inceliğe eğilimlerinin olduğunu ortaya çıkardı. Cinsiyet hususunda ki kare analizi, nezaket ve reddetme stratejilerinin kullanımında kadınlar ve erkekler arasında kayda değer bir fark olmadığını gösterdi. Reddetme ifadeleri ayrıca anadili İngilizce olan iki kişi tarafından 3'lü nezaket Likert ölçeğinde sınıflandırıldı. (1.Nazik, 2. Kısmen nazik, 3. Kaba). Oran, 148 ifadeden oluşuyordu. (örneğin reddetme ifadelerinin tüm örneğinin % 82si 180 ifadeye tekabül ediyor.), % 29'u hesaba katarak sadece 43 reddediş nazik olarak değerlendirildi ve kalan 105 ifade ya kısmen nazik ya da kaba olarak değerlendirildi. Anlamsal reddetme deyimlerinin içeriği hem nezaket hem kabalık unsurlarını içerdi. Uygunluk düzeyine katkıda bulunan unsurlar, dolaylılık, belirli söz dilimsel ve sözlüksel yapıları, yoğunlaştırmayı içerirken, diğerleri arasında kabalık, anlamsal deyimler uzunluğu (kısalık ve fazlasıyla uzunluk) toplu düzeltme eksikliği, azaltma ve nezaket işaretleri diğer şeyler arasında. Genel olarak katılımcıların gerekli reddetme farkındalığında gelişime ihtiyacı olduğu kararına varıldı.

Anahtar sözcükler: Uygunluk düzeyi; yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenenler; nezaket; reddetme; toplumsal dil yetisi

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The effect of short stories on teaching vocabulary to very young learners (aged 3-4-year): A suggested common syllabus[1]

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Abstract

In recent decades, teaching and learning English has gained importance not only for adults but also even for very young children. Therefore, games, songs, art-craft activities and short stories have proved to be practical instruments for very young learners; especially, short stories are great tools to teach vocabulary as words are best acquired in a meaningful context. This study, hence, focuses on exploring whether very young learners can learn English effectively through a short story-based syllabus or not. This study was carried out in a preschool in Ankara, Turkey and the participants of the study were 28 preschoolers aged 3-4. The children were chosen randomly and they were classified into two groups as the experimental and the control groups. The units designed on and around short stories were used just in the experimental group; in those units, songs, cartoons, realia were also used to enhance the learning process; but the main focus was kept on short stories and story-based activities. The same vocabulary items were also used in the control group and it was aimed to teach those vocabulary items in both groups in 7 weeks in this study. Pre and post tests were designed and used, and permanence observations were carried out after the study to determine the recall rate of the participants. At the end of the study, the results showed that children in the experimental group could remember more vocabulary items than the others since they learned them in a meaningful and enjoyable short story-based context.

Keywords: Very young learners; English language teaching; literature in foreign language teaching; short story; vocabulary teaching.

1. Introduction

Age has often been considered as a major, if not the primary, factor determining success in learning a second or a foreign language. Children are generally considered to be capable of acquiring a new language easily and with little effort. Therefore, there has been an increasing demand in foreign language education in kindergarten; and a great number of kindergartens have begun to give courses in English so as to meet the demand, because it is believed that young children put far less effort to learn new languages compared to that of adult learners (Halliwell, 1992; Harmer, 2007; Krashen, 1981).

In this period, teaching very young learners requires a new perspective in comparison to teaching adults. The mood of very young children tends to change even each minute, and they find it extremely

difficult to sit still. On the other hand, they can show a greater motivation to learn a foreign language than most adults do. In order to be effective in teaching English, the teacher has to be inventive in selecting interesting materials and activities and also s/he should provide a great variety of these materials. For example; cartoons, realia, songs, flashcards and games are suitable means to foster young learners' imagination and fantasy (Sert, 2004; Pinter, 2006; Arıkan & Ulaş-Taraf, 2010; Yolageldili & Arıkan, 2011). Additionally, brightly colored visuals, toys and puppets are quite effective to keep very young learners engaged in activities (Linse & Nunan, 2005). According to Harmer (2007), since children are curious and love discovering things and using their imagination, they may well be involved in puzzle-like activities, creating new things, games, physical activities and songs. Furthermore, tongue twisters, riddles and storytelling are effective activities to attract young learner's attention and make learning process enjoyable as well (Damar, 2009).

Although the importance of teaching English to very young learners is a well-known fact, there is not a specific curriculum or syllabus for teaching English to very young learners in Turkey, so, in this study, a sample syllabus is designed and the main aim of this study is to determine whether very young learners can learn English effectively through a short story-based syllabus or not. As considering all of these activities and materials that can be used to teach English to very young learners, this syllabus is organized with short stories-based activities; because, nowadays, short stories have come a universally acknowledged and exploited fundamental learning tool in teaching/learning English (Krashen, 1982; Collie and Slater, 1991; Ellis and Brewster, 1991; Wright, 1995; Slattery & Willis, 2001; Wajnryb, 2003; Cameron, 2005; Pardede, 2010; Sarıçoban and Küçükoğlu, 2011; Mart, 2012) as a foreign language. And for this reason, short stories can be used to teach English to very young learners in an effective way.

1.1. Review of Literature

1.1.1. Who are "Very Young Learners"?

The term, "Very Young Learners", has a wide variety of definitions; one of the earliest of these definitions was made by Montessori in 1900s. To Montessori, the first six years of life are the most important years of a child's growth when unconscious learning gradually emerges to the conscious level (Mooney, 2000). Additionally, the term, "Very Young Learners", is defined by Reilly and Ward (2003) as "children who have not yet compulsory schooling and have not yet started to read" (p.5). This definition underlines the illiteracy of very young learners, and according to Reilly and Ward (2003), very young learners are not in the school age, yet.

In addition, there have been an abundance of theories and classifications in relation to the term, 'very young learners'. One of the most important theories about very young learners is the *Critical Period Hypothesis* which was firstly introduced by Penfield in 1959 (Singleton, 2007) and this hypothesis emphasizes the importance of early childhood in human life. The term, 'critical period', in a formal education, especially in language acquisition, refers to a period of time when learning a language is easier and effective than the other periods of human life.

In this study, the term, "very young learners" refers to children at the age of 3 and 4; they are not literate or they are not given any special education for literacy. Additionally, they are supposed to be curious, egocentric, energetic and active both in social and educational life. These children have a very limited attention span and they are willing to learn new and different concepts about environment and general life (Mooney, 2000). As their abilities and capabilities change and improve monthly, in this study, children between 36-48 mouths are determined as the target "very young learners" group.

1.1.2. Teaching instruments in English language teaching to very young learners

In their first five years, children develop various foundation skills such as language, thinking, motor skills, emotional, and interpersonal ones which are necessary for their whole life. Children are born with an innate capacity and need to discover and explore, and these innate capacity and need should be supported by educators, families and social environment in order to facilitate a more successful and fruitful academic life in advance for very young learners (Reilly & Ward, 2003; Pinter, 2006). When supporting these skills, different activities, methods and instruments enhance the process of learning in early childhood. The use of various teaching activities to teach a foreign language has a great influence on these learners (Çakır, 2004). Mixed activities, chants, poems, songs and rhymes can help students to develop their speaking abilities while also making their pronunciation better; at the same time, their awareness of the language can improve easily (Klancar, 2006).

Additionally, very young children, like adults, have a combination of intelligences and learning styles. According to Gardner (2003), there are eight main "intelligence" types; Linguistic, Logical-Mathematical, Visual-Spatial, Bodily Kinesthetic, Interpersonal, Intrapersonal, Musical, and Naturalist intelligences. Howard Gardner has maintained that all children possess all eight types of the intelligences; though some intelligence types may be stronger than others. This accounts for why children have a preferred learning style, different interests, likes and dislikes (Morrison, 1997, p.309). In the light of this theory, in foreign language teaching to very young learners, activities and teaching instruments should be chosen carefully and organized by the educators for each types of intelligence.

Briefly, using different teaching instruments and activities in English language teaching to very young learners is very important in foreign language learning and teaching process. For this reason, this study covers a variety of different teaching instruments such as games, songs, realia and some different techniques and activities for the children.

First of all, game is one of the most important and useful teaching instruments for very young learners. Because of the ages, grades and characteristics of very young learners, games are thought to be indispensable parts of early childhood education. Froebel, known as the father of kindergartens, states that play is the work of a child (Riley, 2003). John Dewey, also, believes that children learn while playing and that children's engagement in playing can be associated with everyday activities (Morrison, 1997). Piaget, another important name in cognitive development, emphasizes that play promotes cognitive knowledge and thanks to games, children construct knowledge or their world (Morrison, 1997). Like Piaget, Vygotsky believes that much learning takes place when children play. He states that language and development may improve each other. When children play, they constantly use language (Mooney, 2000). Vygotsky views the social interactions in play is essential to children's development.

Additionally, art and craft activities make children be aware of the personal development and they help them to improve different language skills effectively. These are specifically helpful for developing the conceptualization of colors, shapes, and numbers and vocabulary items in early childhood education. These teaching instruments provide a meaningful context for children; and also, they can motivate them to use language skills effectively in their learning environment.

Also, in language learning environment, children have to hear as much their target language as possible, because it is not easy for them to hear a foreign language out of the classroom. Jalongo (2007) claims that listening is a language skill that is used the earliest and it continues throughout life. For this reason, in the classroom, the courses should be enriched by using different listening activities. One of the most important listening activities for very young learners is song and music. Ward (1980) states that in language learning and teaching, songs and music have an important role.

In addition to these instruments, literary works in language acquisition process for very young learners can enrich the classroom environment in terms of using different and meaningful activities.

After examining the characteristics of very young learners and language learning environment, it is clear that many kinds of literary works suitable for children such as, dramatization, chants & rhymes, poetry and storytelling are to enhance the teaching and learning process both for the teacher and the students. These should carefully be integrated into education programs and then the context of each course can be designed on and around them. Among many genres of literary works, the benefits of using short stories in foreign language classes are undeniably overweighing; therefore they can widely be used as teaching materials in the classroom of very young learners. Wright (2004, p.3) aptly states that "stories are particularly important in the lives of our children: stories help children to understand their world and share it with others."

In this sense, the benefits of using short stories are categorized by Collie and Slater (1991) into four groups; first of all, short stories are practical as their length is suitable to be used in the classroom environment; secondly, short stories do not consist of complex matters for the learners to work on their own; thirdly, short stories have a variety of choices for different needs and interests; and finally, short stories can be used for all levels all ages and all classes (morning, afternoon, or evening classes).

While using literary works of art in teaching vocabulary to very young learners, a teacher should be very careful about the genre; novels are not appropriate because of their length; drama is not suitable because of its hardness and complex characterization and plot; poetry is not easy because of its complicated and figurative sentence structures; but short stories can be used effectively as they are short, easy and understandable for very young learners (Lau, 2002). So, if it is determined carefully in terms of the cognitive abilities of very young learners, using short stories in early childhood education is an attractive and creative teaching tool in the vocabulary teaching process (Lau, 2002; Loukina, 2006). In this study, thus, short story-based activities are used to teach vocabulary to very young learners. This study aims to investigate whether the very young learners can effectively learn the vocabulary items presented in the short story at the recognition level and whether the learning at recognition level is permanent or not.

2. Method

2.1. Participants

In this study, the twenty-eight participants who were the preschool students in Ankara were chosen randomly and they were randomly separated into two groups as experimental and control group. The participants were at the age of 3-4 and they were at that preschool for four months. According to the results of interviews with their parents, it was understood that these children didn't have any English courses or lessons before their preschool life and also the native language of all participants was Turkish. For this reason, in this study, there was no need for an English proficiency level determination because all of the participants were true beginners.

2.2. The research method

This study was formed as an experimental research design; and the randomized pretest- posttest-control group design was used in this study. One of the most important reasons to determine this kind of experimental research design was to identify the effects of short-story based syllabus and activities on teaching English to very young learners and determine the success of treatment used in this study. The study is carried out just for the participants in the experimental group, and the control group is just observed. The results of the pre-post test were analyzed via video recordings and observations for two groups. In order to reach more valid and reliable results, the students were observed two and six weeks after the main study and these results were also compared for two groups.

2.3. Data collection instrument

The data collection instrument in this study was an observation checklist form purposefully designed for very young learners for this study and video recordings of the lessons. Observation is one of the most widespread data collection instrument in the field of teaching vocabulary to very young learners (Reed and Edelbrock, 1983; Nock and Kurtz, 2005; Malderez, 2003). While designing the observation checklist, due to the lack of a specific curriculum or syllabus for foreign language teaching to very young learners in Turkey, literature in this field was used while preparing some items on teaching a foreign language (English) to very young learners. The observation checklist was prepared in three main sections which were under the title of "Knowledge and Understanding (12 items)", "Language Skills (10 items)" and "Attitudes and Values (5 items)" and there were 27 observation items in this checklist (see Appendix A). The items were formed as whole sentences and there was not any kind of open-ended question or phrases in the main concepts. Additionally, this observation checklist was designed in English to avoid language and concept misunderstandings that may have occurred owing to possible lack of terminology on some of the vocabulary items, also some examples were given in brackets. For the aim of supplying consistency of the checklist, the main sections and items and the complete checklist were controlled and approved by two experts in the field in English Language Teaching Department.

2.4. Data collection procedure

The present study was carried out in a private preschool in Ankara and it took place in February and March during 2012-2013 Spring Semester. The participants had twenty minutes of English courses each day for eight weeks, and the data was collected by means of regular classroom observations in the classroom environment by the researcher. The observations were concluded under the similar classrooms for the learners in control and experimental groups. The main aim was to evaluate the number of vocabulary items learned by the learners and to observe whether the learning was meaningful and permanent or not. Lessons in the study were recorded in order to have an opportunity to analyze each section in detail after the observation sessions.

Before starting the study, two units related to children's interests were designed by using short stories (see Appendix B). These units were implemented in control group. There was not any kind of short story based activity in their syllabus. Since the main aim of the study was to teach vocabulary items by using short stories, 30 vocabulary items about the units of "toys" and "body parts" were selected in accordance with children's interests. In the first week, the same activities were used in both groups in order to supply an equivalent environment and the results of this week were used as the pretest. While getting information in the first week, the observation checklist designed for the study was used as a data collection instrument. During the following seven weeks, the study was carried out by using the designed syllabus and activities for two groups. In order to supply equivalent conditions, the courses in both groups were maintained by the researcher. As they were very young learners, the participants were not expected to produce language, but they were just supposed to acquire the vocabulary items. Therefore, if they had acted the vocabulary item out or had given physical responses to the researcher, it was assumed that they had already learned this vocabulary item. During the study, the courses in both groups were recorded. For the sake of validity and reliability, these recordings were watched and checked out by the researcher and two other experts in the field in English Language Teaching Department. Both researcher and the experts ticked the observation checklist by watching the video recordings. At the end of this process, the data collected from the checklists of the researcher and the experts were used as the posttest of the study and analyzed in terms of vocabulary items.

Two and six weeks after the main study, the same children in the study were re-observed in order to evaluate permanency of the teaching and as a result of the weeks, result were getting from the data gathered via observation checklist. The results of these two permanence observations can well lead to better evaluation and interpretation of the effect of the short story based syllabus. The previously used observation checklist was used for the same children in order to determine the permanence of the study. After two weeks from the study, children were observed for the same vocabulary items taught in the study and they were recorded, and these recordings were analyzed by two experts again by using the observation checklist. After six weeks from the main study, the same syllabus and the same observation checklist were used again for the same children. Again, the courses were recorded and analyzed with the help of two experts. The results were compared and the permanence level of vocabulary learning through short story based syllabus was determined with the help of these repeated observation sessions.

3. Results

In this study, first, a private preschool in Ankara was chosen randomly. The participants were 28 preschoolers aged 36-48 months in the study. They were classified into two groups as the experimental and control group. Then, the observation checklist was formed by reviewing the literature in the field and this checklist was used as both pretest and posttest data collection tool for the study. The main aim of the study was to determine the effectiveness of short story-based syllabus on vocabulary teaching to very young learners. So, short story-based activities were designed and this syllabus was implemented just in experimental groups for seven weeks. This process was recorded and those recordings were analyzed with the help of two experts in English Language Teaching Department. After analyzing the video recordings, the observation checklist designed for the study was filled by these two experts and the researcher.

The results of the study were analyzed for each week and it was found out that there was a mean difference between the first and last week of the participants in terms of vocabulary learning. At the beginning of the study, it was seen that there was not a mean difference between two groups in terms of language skills, knowledge in vocabulary items and attitudes towards the foreign language learning environment. Since the ages and grades of the children were supposed to be equal to each other, their recognition levels for these titles were almost at the same level. Additionally, as they were very young, they all liked songs, games and art-craft activities, so they could be easily motivated for English language learning; that is, they enjoyed the lessons and they could learn nearly all of the vocabulary items covered in the study for the first week. Therefore, it is observed that there was not a mean difference between two groups for the first week, and they could learn easily even if there was not a meaningful context. As there were three main sections in the observation checklist designed for the study, the results for each week were analyzed under these three sections and the results of the first week are given in terms of main titles of the checklist in Table 1.

Table 1. The results of the first week in terms of vocabulary teaching

Sections in the Observation Checklist	Control Group	Experimental Group
Title	Results of Pretest	Results of Pretest
Language Skills	43.8%	47.3%
Knowledge and Understanding	41.6%	39.7%
Attitudes and Values	59.5%	52.8%

After the first week, the units designed with short story-based activities were used in the experimental group and some basic vocabulary teaching activities without short stories were used in control group. All the lessons were recorded in the study and those video recordings were observed by two experts and the researcher. The results of the last week were used as posttest data in the study. The main aim of this analyzing was to reveal whether there was a significant effect of using short story-based syllabus on enhancing vocabulary teaching for very young learners or not. The data gathered from the last week of the study was analyzed as the posttest of the study.

At the end of the study, it was observed that children in both groups had a progress in terms of learning the vocabulary items. However, 'Language Skills' were the most highly pointed part in the observation checklist. As the development of language skills are the pillars of foreign language teaching, activities and materials were designed in order to improve these skills in the study; for this reason, the results of this section in the checklist were pointed out mostly. The section under the title of 'Knowledge and Understanding' is the second highly pointed section in the study. Because the understanding level of children has a key role in vocabulary learning process, their understanding abilities and knowledge were analyzed in the study. Finally, 'Attitudes and Values' of children in terms of foreign language teaching process were designed to determine the positive or negative reactions of very young learners towards the foreign language learning environment by observing the children in the classroom environment.

In the first section of the observation checklist, listening and speaking abilities of children were studied in detail. According to the pretest results, it is obvious that children in both groups were successful almost at the same level; 47.3 % of children in the experimental group and 43.8 % of children in the control group were at the recognition level for this section. As there was a character, named "Bubble", purposefully developed for children in the experimental group, the children in this group were more motivated and they could be more successful in involving the activities throughout the study. Yet, at the end of the study, there was not a meaningful difference between the language skills levels of the children, because children in both groups got accustomed both to the researcher and the teaching style in the lessons.

In the second part of the checklist, knowledge and understanding levels of the children were analyzed in detail. In this part, 39.7 % of children in the experimental group and 41.6 % of children in the control group actively participated in the lessons according to the results of pretest. At the end of the study, as seen in Table 1, the control group had 80.9% of recognition level, while experimental group had 97.6% of recognition level for the same section; this means that there was a meaningful difference between two groups in terms of vocabulary learning. Therefore, it can be concluded that the short story-based syllabus has an important effect on improving the understanding capacities while learning vocabulary items and it can be effectively used for teaching vocabulary to very young learners.

In the last section of the observation checklist, children's attitudes and values were discussed in terms of the language learning process and the learning environment. According to the pretest results given in Table 1, 52.8 % of children in the experimental group and 59.5% of children in the control group could react positively in the classroom environment. Yet, at the end of the study, control group had 90.4% of recognition level, while experimental group had 93.8% for the same section; this means that there is not a meaningful difference between the attitudes and values levels of the children in both groups and children in both groups have a positive attitude toward the foreign language teaching lessons and the learning environment. To make clearer the effectiveness of short story-based syllabus on teaching vocabulary to very young learners, the results gained in the first week of the study and posttest (the last of the study) were compared and the results are given in Table 2.

Table 2. The comparison of the results of the first week and the last week

Sections in the Observation Checklist	Control Group		Experimental Group	
Title	First Week	Last Week	First Week	Last Week
Language Skills	43.8%	95.9%	47.3%	95.7%
Knowledge and Understanding	41.6%	80.90%	39.7%	97.6%
Attitudes and Values	59.5%	90.4%	52.8%	93.8%

In terms of the general points in the study, Graphic 1 was designed to be helpful to analyze the general results of the pretest and the posttest of the study. The weekly results of the study and the level of children in both groups are generally shown in Figure 1.
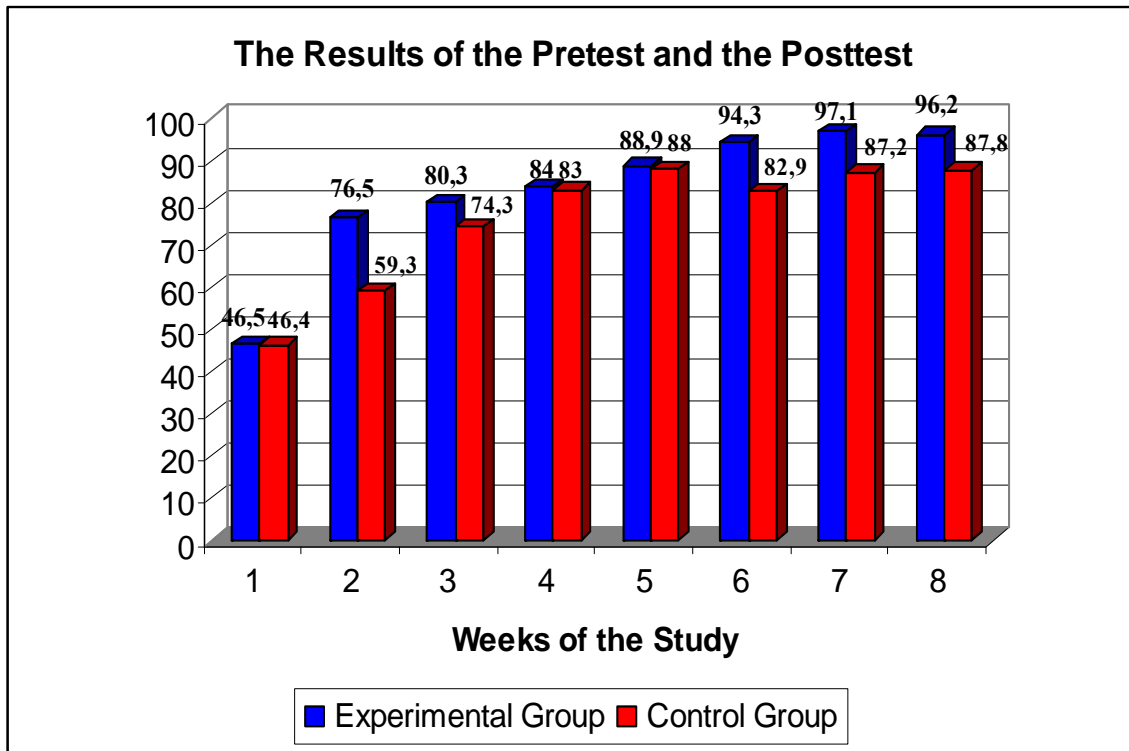
Figure 1. General results of groups in the study

In general, the short story-based units are found to be effective according to the results given in Figure 1. According to the results of the study, total points for all weeks in control group was calculated as 80.5 % of general points, whereas this results was seen as 88.2 % for the experimental group. From these results, it can be claimed that there is a little difference between two groups at the end of the study in terms of vocabulary learning. That is, at the end of the study, children in both groups progress in foreign language learning, but in experimental group, there is a rapid and consistent learning environment.

3.1. The first permanence observation for the study

After the completion of the observation in 7 weeks, a permanence observation was conducted after two weeks from the main study in order to determine the permanence level of the syllabus used in the experimental group. The most important aim of this section was to determine the effectiveness and the permanence of the short story-based syllabus designed by the researcher in terms of vocabulary teaching to very young learners. For this reason, first, the vocabulary items taught in seven weeks by the researcher were listed and those were observed in order to indicate the permanence of the short story-based syllabus in teaching vocabulary. The same items in the observation checklist designed by the researcher were used as a data collection instrument. During this process, classroom environment and children were recorded with a video camera and at the end of the permanence study, these recordings were re-watched in order to fill in the observation checklist. Filled checklists were analyzed in the same way as in the main study and the percentages of this section were determined at the end of the observing process.

As a result of this observation, it was documented that children in both groups had the same level in terms of counting the numbers, categorizing the colors and singing the song. That is, children in both groups learned numbers, colors and songs in the same level even if different lesson plans were implemented in the classroom environment. Additionally, there was a mean difference between two groups in terms of matching the vocabulary items, recognizing the adjectives and touching the items. So, it can be claimed that children in the experimental group had more permanent language knowledge in terms of vocabulary items and also they were more successful in learning some emotional expressions and adjectives.

3.2. The second permanence observation for the study

Although children learn easily throughout an effective learning process, they can easily forget whatever they have learned if not repeated regularly in advance. For this reason, in this study, children were re-observed 6 six weeks after the main study. Again, vocabulary items taught in the study were listed and the same observation checklist was used. During this observation period, the classroom environment and the children were recorded and at the end of the second permanence observation, those recordings were analyzed in order to fulfill the observation checklist once more for the comparison. The filled checklists for the children were analyzed and the percentages of the study were determined.

As a result of the second permanence observation period, it was noted that children in both groups had the same level in terms of singing the songs. This means that children in each group could sing the song in the same level even if different lesson plans were used in the classroom environment. However, there was a mean difference between two groups in terms of matching, recognizing the adjectives, choosing the correct objects, drawing the pictures and touching the items. Therefore, it can be stated that the children in the experimental group acquired more consistent vocabulary items knowledge and also they were more successful in learning and remembering some emotional expressions and adjectives. Also it can be said that children in the experimental group were more willing to participate in the activities after six weeks from the study. They were more motivated and encouraged for the learning environment.

It is concluded from this study that even if almost all children included in this study could learn some vocabulary items, there was a mean difference between two groups in terms of permanence of the learned vocabulary items. Especially adjectives and physical emotions were not remembered by many children in the control group. To sum up, it can be said that children in the experimental group were more successful while remembering the vocabulary items related to the adjectives and 'Body Parts' even after 6 weeks. Thus it can be assumed that if the units, lesson plans and the syllabus used in the classroom

environment for experimental group could have been used for a longer span of time, the teaching could have been more effective and permanent while at the same time motivating and encouraging the children more in English language learning.

4. Discussion and conclusion

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of teaching vocabulary to very young learners through a short story-based syllabus. It aims to determine the improvement in learning abilities, attitudes, values and language skills learning levels of very young learners by using an observation checklist following the use of a short-story based syllabus. A syllabus to cover the learning abilities of children according to the data gathered from the observation checklist is also suggested as Appendix A at the end of the study.

According to the main results of the study, it can be claimed that there is a difference between two groups at the end of the study in terms of learning the vocabulary items in English language. For this reason, it can be claimed that using a short story-based syllabus can supply a more permanent language learning process for very young learners. As it has been stated by Loukina (2006), children have a lot of chances to listen to different stories in their early childhood; for instance, in their family life, there might be a variety of people telling different stories and these stories lay a ground for further acquisition in advance in children's mind. Owing to these storytelling activities, children get accustomed to listening to short stories, thus, short stories can easily turn into one of the most useful and practical teaching tools in their school life. The benefits of using short stories are valid for young children; therefore, the teachers can integrate short stories in their curriculums.

This study has additionally marked that short story-based lesson plans (see Appendix B), as a means to teaching vocabulary to very young learners, are important teaching materials for children. The results support the general idea that children aged between 3-4-year-old do feel more comfortable and motivated in a classroom environment designed with a short story-based syllabus. As Wright (2004, p.3) aptly states "stories are particularly important in the lives of our children: stories help children to understand their world and share it with others." So, the results of this study suggest that the use of short stories integrated into syllabus can highly improve the motivation and imagination of very young learners and these kinds of activities can be used not just for young learners but for very young learners, as well.

It is furthermore reflected in this study that the use of short-story in foreign language teaching should be focused on encouraging the learners to use what they have previously learned and/or experienced. By doing this, the learning process will be more meaningful and prolific for the learners (Pardede, 2011, p.18). In terms of language acquisition, Cameron (2001, cited in Harrasi, 2012) assumes that stories not only develop language skills but they also help children broaden their vocabulary knowledge, since the learners can hear many new words when they listen to these vocabulary items. For this reason, using short stories in foreign language development can be said to have a key role in the learning process. It can also be suggested by the findings of this study that, as children in these years are energetic, curious and egocentric, their needs and interests should have been taken into consideration while determining and designing the activities and teaching materials. Hence, short stories can be both enjoyable and meaningful for children; and also, they can be useful for both egocentric and curious children in these ages.

Finally, as it is stated by Pardede (2011, p.17) "since it is short, and aims at giving a 'single effect', there is usually one plot, a few characters; there is no detailed description of setting". Therefore, using short stories in the classroom as a teaching material is easy for the students to follow the story line of

the work and as a teaching material, short stories can be used to practice language, comprehend reading skills and improve aesthetic appreciation in foreign language teaching. In parallel with the statement of Pardede (2011), this study also signifies the idea that short stories and some short story-based activities can be used as a very effective and beneficial way in terms of foreign language learning process in order to be successful in teaching vocabulary to very young learners.

In conclusion, in this study, the interpretation of the observation checklists shows that a short story-based syllabus and some activities related to this syllabus can be used in order to motivate very young learners and make them involved in the learning process. For this reason, by examining the results of the pretest and reviewing the literature in detail, a syllabus consisting of 9 units was developed for very young learners and it was suggested as a common syllabus to teach vocabulary items in English to very young learners (See appendix B). All in all, short story-based syllabus and activities aim to address children's grades, needs and interests in foreign language learning process. Owing to this kind of syllabus, children can be more motivated, encouraged and involved in the foreign language learning environment and they can be active in this environment. Hence, it is an effective way to teach English to very young learners.

4.1. Suggestions for further researches

In this study, the observation checklists were analyzed and a short story-based syllabus was developed in order to supply a material in English courses of preschools in Ankara within the scope of the study. In this sense, it is possible to give out some suggestions for further researches.

First of all, the data collection tool of this study may be changed or multiplied in order to get more information about the children. Also, some pedagogic, mental, parental and cultural information or component about children can be added in other researches in determining the effects of demographic or social factors in teaching English to very young learners. Furthermore, it will possibly be helpful to conduct a study with larger sample groups to reach more advanced results in different contexts. Additionally, the duration of the study might be longer to follow up the improvement and the permanence in advance. Finally, instead of or along with short stories, syllabus can be enriched with other genres of literature such as poems, riddles and fairy tales; and another suggested common syllabus can be designed for very young learners.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. The Observation Checklist

CHILD EVALUATION

Name: Age: 36-48 months   Date: February - March

Category	ITEMS	SESSIONS							
		Session 1		Session 2		Session 3		Session 4	
		Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4	Week 5	Week 6	Week 7	Week 8
KNOWLEGDE AND UNDERSTANDING	The child can match the words with the objects in his/her target language.								
	The child can choose the object which is verbalized by the teacher.								
	The child can touch the objects which are uttered by the teacher.								

Notes: --

	The child can follow the short story carefully.								
	The child can generally understand the meaning of short story in the lesson.								
	The child can make some objects identified by the teacher via play dough.								
	The child can recognize the adjectives (small, big, happy, sad) in his/her target language.								
	The child can categorize the items according to colors in their target language.								
	The child can understand the instructions of the teacher in his/her target language (English) correctly.								
	The child can play an active role in drama activities.								
	The child can actively join TPR activities in the lesson.								
	The child can point to the identified objects in the classroom.								
LANGUAGE SKILLS	The child can count the numbers in the target language if the teacher wants. (speaking)								
	The child can use puppets in order to answer the questions of the teacher. (speaking)								
	The child can sing the song which is sung by the teacher. (speaking)								
	The child can answer the questions by showing the pictures or real items at the end of the short story. (speaking)								

	The child can order the objects by listening to the short story narrated by the teacher. (listening)							
	The child is willing to listen to the short stories. (listening)							
	The child can make the puzzle about the taught vocabulary items.							
	The child can dance in accordance with the song in the classroom environment.							
	The child can draw pictures in accordance with the teacher's directions.							
	The child can color the pictures as listening to the directions of the teacher.							
ATTITUDES AND VALUES	The child can follow the teacher's directions in the classroom.							
	The child can sit in a circle with other children if teacher wants.							
	The child can carry out the directions of teacher about the classroom rules.							
	The child can react positively to the teacher and the learning environment.							
	The child can work well on both his/her own and other children in the classroom in different language activities and games.							

Appendix B. Sample Unit Plan

UNIT 1 - TOYS

The aims of this unit:

- to be familiar with toys
- to understand the names of some toys
- to be accustomed to a new language environment and the new toys
- to be able to say the names of toys in the target language
- to learn the main verbs (jump, sit, look, sleep, wake up etc.)
- to learn the main adjectives (happy, sad, big, small)
- be able to use their body language and be active in the classroom

Materials for this unit:

- Short stories
- ICT tools
- Masks
- Coloring pictures
- Face crayons
- Play dough
- Puppets
- Real Toys
- Songs
- Flash cards

The Teaching Style of the Unit

In this unit, children will learn the names of some toys. Since, in these years, children are egocentric; the items around them are very important and attractive for their learning process. For this reason, toys are indispensable part of their life and they like playing with toys. In this unit, teachers should use some real materials and pictures in order to introduce the toys.

If there is a meaningful context, the learning process can be easier and effective. Children do not forget the meaningful items and they can acquire them easily. Therefore, in this unit, short stories which are special for them are used and there is a new character in these short stories. Thanks to this character, there is an adventure and also, there is a meaningful context for children. Also, in this unit, there are some songs and game-like activities which are related to these short stories.

<div align="center">

SESSION – 1 (FIRST WEEK)

</div>

✓ **LESSON 1**

Activity – I

For the first activity of this unit, there is a new character and the teacher introduces it to the children. S/he shows the pictures of this character and this new character gives some information about itself. Children meet this character and they say something about themselves to it.

Activity – II

The teacher uses the puppet of this new character "Bubble" and it -Bubble- introduces itself to the children. For instance:

- Hello, I'm Bubble, what is your name?

✓ **LESSON 2**

Activity – I

There is a greeting "Hello" song and the children sing it with the new character.

Activity – II

There is a short story about Bubble's toys. The teacher, first, narrates this story (s/he doesn't read it, but narrates and acts it out) when the story is narrated, the teacher shows the pictures of toys mentioned in the story. The teacher explains the story once more and children and the teacher try to act it out altogether.

THE SAMPLE SHORT STORY FOR THIS LESSON

Hi, I'm Bubble, I'm here for you. I'm in my room today. I have a red toy box. Guess what is in it? In my toy box, I have one blue ball. It can jump. I have two kites and they can fly. I have a biggg puzzle and it is on my table. I have a yellow train and it can run. I have a green teddy bear and it can sleep. I have one doll and it can sing. Every night, my toys and I sing together and then we say good bye and go to sleep. Do you want to hear the song?

Activity – III

The children listen to a song about Bubble and they try to sing it all together. The song used in the lesson:

I am a happy doll
I always play ball
I also have a kite
I fly it at night…

The teddy bear is white
It also has a kite…
My train is small

I love them all...

Okul öncesi eğitimi 3-4 yaş grubu çocuklara İngilizce öğretiminde kısa hikâye kullanımının Etkileri: Önerilen genel bir izlence

Öz

Son yıllarda, İngilizce öğretimi ve öğrenimi yalnızca yetişkinler için değil, aynı zamanda çocuklar için de büyük önem kazanmıştır. Oyunlar, şarkılar, el becerisine yönelik etkinlikler ve kısa hikâyeler, okul öncesi dönemdeki çocuklar için kullanılabilir eğitim araçlarıdır. Özellikle kısa hikâyeler, kelimeleri anlamlı bir bağlam içerisinde öğretilebilme imkanı sunduğundan, bu araçlar arasında en uygunudur. Bu nedenle ötürü, bu çalışma, okul öncesi dönemi çocuklara kısa hikâyelere dayalı bir müfredat ile etkili bir şekilde İngilizce kelimeler öğretilip öğretilemeyeceği üzerine yoğunlaşmıştır. Çalışma, Ankara'da özel bir kreşte gerçekleştirilmiş ve çalışmaya 3-4 yaş döneminde rastgele seçilen 28 çocuk katılmıştır. Uygulamanın başında çocuklar deney ve kontrol grubu olmak üzere rastgele ikiye ayrılmıştır. Kısa hikâyeler ile tasarlanan üniteler sadece deney grubundaki öğrenciler için kullanılmış ve bu ünitelerdeki etkinlikler; şarkılar, çizgi resimler ve gerçek görsellerle desteklenmiştir; ancak esas odak noktası kısa hikâyelere dayalı etkinliklerdir. Bu öğrencilere öğretilmesi amaçlanan kelimeler aynı süre zarfında (7 hafta) deney grubunda da verilmiş ancak bu grupta her hangi bir kısa hikâye etkinliği uygulanmamıştır. Ön-test ve son-test için geliştirilen gözlem formu ile öğrenciler her hafta gözlemlenmiş ve çalışmanın ardından kalıcılığı belirleyebilmek adına tekrar gözlem yapılmıştır. Araştırma bulgularının sonuçlarına göre, deney grubundaki öğrenciler, anlamlı bir bağlam içerisinde öğrendikleri için, çalışmadan sonra kontrol grubundaki öğrencilerden daha fazla kelimeyi hatırlayabilmektedir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Okul Öncesi Eğitim Dönemindeki Çocuklar, İngilizce Öğretimi, Yabancı Dil Öğretiminde Edebiyat, Kısa Hikâye, Kelime Öğretimi.

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The reading habits of university students studying English language and literature in the digital age[1]

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to explore the current reading habits and attitudes of university students studying English Language and Literature at Atatürk University. Moreover, it aims to determine the effects of widespread use of the internet and other alternative multimedia resources in reading habits. In order to have a broad overview of the current reading habits, a questionnaire was conducted among 76 randomly selected university students. The questionnaire involved six categories: demographic information, frequency of items read, contents of online reading, online activities, content first clicked when online, and techniques to develop reading habits. SPSS Statistics 20 program was used to analyse the data. Conducting research to gain a broad overview of the reading habits of learners, the researcher made suggestions to foster reading habits among university students in the constantly technology dominated world of today.

Keywords: reading habits; e-book; technology assisted reading; importance of reading; developing reading habits

1. Introduction

Over the past couple of decades, technology has been integrated into our lives greatly. The most influential impact of technology is arguably on the transfer of information. The traditional way of transferring information, that is, through printed documents, has begun to be replaced by online data. This change has inevitably affected how people read. The results of a survey, conducted by Shen (2006), showed that English as Foreign Language (EFL) students' reading habits have shifted from paper-based to internet-based reading. Since reading is a must in developing other critical language skills such as writing, listening and speaking, this shift in reading habits should not be ignored by educators.

Moreover, Karim, Hasan and Shahriza (2006) state that the increasing amount of information and entertainment in a digital format are becoming more and more popular among younger people. Liu (2005) further supports that the new reading behaviors are influenced by the mushrooming growth of

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[1]This study is a condensed summary of the seminar study entitled *The reading habits of university students studying English language and literature in the digital age* by Tevfik Darıyemez in 2013.

digital information available and there is an increase in the amount of time people spend reading electronic media. These findings show that the digital age has already engulfed people's reading habits.

1.1. Literature review

Online version of books, magazines and newspaper are available at relatively low prices compared to their printed counterparts. It is easy to access online documents via internet and readers gain the opportunity to read anywhere, anytime. Despite its benefits, some educators may have some concerns that the entertainment ability of technology surpasses the educational role. The overall impact of technology on reading habits was discussed in this study.

1.1.1. Importance of Reading

Noor (2011) claims that in any higher learning environment, reading is valued as the most important academic language skill for all second and foreign language learners. Students learn new information and become more competent in their subject matters through reading. Loan (2009), moreover, stresses the importance of reading by claiming that individuals with good reading habits have the chance to widen their mental horizons and to multiply their opportunities. Noor (2011) supports Loan's idea and adds that reading is essential in teaching individuals how to cope with new knowledge in the technologically changing and developing world of today.

Holte (1998) emphasizes the importance of reading in that it increases quality of life as well as creating culture and making cultural heritage available; moreover, he claims that it both strengthens and brings people together (as cited in Akanda, Hoq and Hasan, 2013). The importance of reading is obviously high, so the question becomes what is to be done to facilitate reading? Since technology affects how we read by changing the medium from printed to electronic, methods to foster new reading habits should be studied.

1.1.2. Technology Assisted Reading

With the mass production of radios, televisions, computers, smart phones and similar devices, the impact of technology on people's lives has become even greater. These advancements in technology have brought about a new trend in reading, called digital reading. Online periodicals, electronic books, and audio books constitute much of the widespread technology assisted reading sources.

Online periodicals are magazines and newspapers that are made available online for their readers. Since they are online and in a digital format, it is easy to change, add and update their data. With the recent developments in portable devices, applications can easily be downloaded to a mobile phone or tablet computer in order to access them. The news available in the applications can be read anytime, anywhere without an internet connection. Besides reading online news, users can watch videos and listen to the news available through these applications.

E-book readers such as Kindle and Nook are designed primarily for electronic books. Thousands of electronic books can be saved to the reader and can be taken anywhere with ease. They allow us to look up words and translate pages. Readers can gain benefits from some of their features such as adjusting font size, underlining and highlighting texts. Some of them have a text to speech feature which transforms text into audio, thus enabling their readers to listen as well as read.

Another type of book that is becoming more and more popular among people is called audio books. Thurrott (2011) emphasizes that audio books provide reading opportunities in new situations such as

while driving, doing housework, and doing yard work. They are especially useful for those who have too poor of eyesight to read and for language learners who want to improve their pronunciation skills.

To sum up, the integration of technology into people's lives has affected the mediums from which they read. In addition to printed books, online periodicals, audio books, and e-books have begun to be used widely. The digital formats of the texts provide more than what printed formats do as they have various features which make reading a fun activity. The dull image of reading, especially for those who read less but spend much time online, could be eliminated by these recent developments in reading mediums.

1.2. Research questions

The three research questions answered by the researcher in this study were: 1) What are the major trends of reading interests and reading mediums of university students studying English Language and Literature, 2) How influential is the internet on the reading habits of students? and 3) What are some possible recommendations to improve reading habits of students in the digital age?

2. Methodology

2.1. Participants

The participants of the questionnaire were composed of university students studying in English Language and Literature department at Ataturk University in Turkey. They were composed of 76 respondents, 23 of whom were male and 53 of whom were female. They were sophomores, so their ages were generally in the twenties. As they studied in English Language and Literature department, they were quite competent in English language.

2.2. Data collection procedures

The information about reading habits among university students was gathered through a questionnaire. The students were not asked to give their real names so that they would feel comfortable to answer the questions frankly. Having collected the questionnaire from respondents, the researcher analyzed them through using SPSS Statistics 20 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) program and found the distribution of responses

2.3. Questionnaire

The questionnaire of this study was based on the study of Chauhan and Lal (2012), titled 'Impact of information technology on reading habits of college students'. After some changes, the questionnaire was conducted among university students and their general reading habits were explored. As the participants were composed of university students, the 'qualification' section was omitted from the first part of the original questionnaire. In the fifth part of the questionnaire that dealt with the topics clicked first by the respondents, 'Facebook' was added to the bottom of the list. The seventh and the last part of the questionnaire was fully omitted as it mostly provided information like the participants' favorite writers, which was unnecessary for answering the research questions. The Cranach's alpha of the questionnaire was found 0,99 in SPSS Statistics 20.

3. Results

The analysis of the questionnaire was done under six main categories: demographic information, frequency of items read, contents of online reading, online activities, content first clicked when online, and techniques to develop reading habits. Each of these categories was placed in the questionnaire to assess the current reading habits of participants and to find plausible answers to the research questions. SPSS Statistics 20 program was used to synthesize information about the percentages of the responses.

3.1. Demographic Information

This part of the questionnaire focused on gathering information about the duration of internet use per day, and the total number of magazines and novels read by the respondents in a year as well as their personal details. How much time a regular student spends online was explored. The findings are provided in Table 1.

Table 1. Hours spent online everyday

	0-1 hours	1-3 hours	4-6 hours	Over 6 hours
Hours spent online	19.7%	65.8%	13.2%	1.3%

As seen in Table 1, the great majority of the participants (65.8%) spend 1 to 3 hours online everyday. Based upon this finding, it can be concluded that students do not exaggerate their internet use. Only 1.3% of the respondents spend more than 6 hours online. What they do in these periods of time is discussed in the following parts of the questionnaire.

The average number of magazines and novels read by the respondents in a year is 9.4. Even though the average is almost 10, some students reported that they read about 30 novels and magazines a year, while some others claimed none.

3.2. Frequency of Items Read

This part of the questionnaire aimed at gathering general information about the reading habits of participants. How frequently they read newspapers, magazines, textbooks, novels, emails, and online information was determined.

Table 2. Frequency of items read

Reading	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Participation Level
Newspapers	75	3,25	,97	Sometimes
Magazines	76	2,55	1,00	Rarely
Text books	76	3,24	1,08	Often
Novels	76	3,35	1,14	Often
E-mails	76	2,99	1,25	Sometimes
Online Information	76	3,33	1,19	Often

Table 2 showed that mean values ranged from 2,55 to 3.35. According to the results of the most frequent number of the items, while reading novels, text books, and online information were the most

popular activities among the respondents, reading magazines, with the least mean, was rarely practiced. Moreover, the respondents stated that they sometimes read newspapers and emails.

On the other hand, the findings of this part of the questionnaire indicated that most of the participants avoided selecting extreme responses such as 'never' and 'very often'. Instead, most participants' responses were gathered around 'often' and 'sometimes', which showed that though not very intense, most of the respondents developed a certain level of reading habits.

3.3. Contents of online reading

The contents of reading studied included online news, online magazines, e-books, stories and novels, emails, journal articles, sales information, movie reviews, horoscopes, weather reports, health information, comic strips, jokes, fashion, sports, job information, and food/nutrition.

Table 3. Contents of online reading

Read items	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Participation Level
Online news	76	3,60	1,07	Often
Online magazines	76	2,68	1,08	Rarely
e-books	76	2,55	1,15	Sometimes
Stories and novels	75	2,64	1,33	Never
Emails	76	3,05	1,30	Often
Journal articles	76	2,62	1,16	Rarely
Sales information	76	2,49	1,27	Never
Movie reviews	76	3,05	1,20	Sometimes
Horoscopes	75	2,95	1,42	Sometimes
Weather reports	76	3,26	1,17	Often
Health information	76	3,28	1,06	Sometimes
Comic strips	76	3,17	1,24	Often
Jokes	76	3,21	1,24	Sometimes
Fashion	76	2,88	1,43	Never
Sports	76	2,53	1,48	Never
Job information	76	3,06	1,17	Sometimes
Food/nutrition	76	3,06	1,20	Sometimes

As is indicated in Table 3, mean values ranged from 2.49 to 3.60. According to the results of the most frequent number of the items, online news was the most frequently read item on the internet. Emails, weather reports, comic strips were also followed online often by the respondents.

The majority of the respondents reported that they sometimes read e-books, movie reviews, horoscopes, health information, jokes, job information, and food/nutrition. The least popular items read online were stories and novels, sales information, fashion and sports.

The popular topics students read when online can be increased in terms of both number and availability, the less popular topics can become more attractive through some alterations in their content, so that university students could spend more time reading on the internet. Moreover, informing students about the availability of the websites that provide information about their interests will boost the amount of reading on the internet.

3.4. Online activities

This part of the questionnaire was applied to determine the things done by the participants when they are online. The activities provided to the student to choose from were: listening to music, playing games, looking at photos, reading, shopping online, using MSN and Yahoo messenger, checking e-mails, chatting with friends and downloading all types of movies.

Table 5. Online activities

Activities	Yes (%)	No (%)	Missing (%)
I listen to music	93.4	6.6	0
I play games	51.3	48.7	0
I look at photos	82.9	17.1	0
I read all kinds of information	74.7	24.0	1.3
I shop online	48.0	50.7	1.3
I use MSN messenger	52.7	45.9	1.4
I use Yahoo Messenger	5.4	93.2	1.4
I check email	76.3	23.7	0
I chat with friends	84.2	15.8	0
I download movies	63.2	31.6	5.3

The most common activity done online by the participants was listening to music (93.4 %). It was followed by chatting with friends (84.2%) and looking at photos (82.9 %). Moreover, most of the participants stated that they checked their emails (76.3%) and read all kinds of information (74.7%), and 63.2% of the respondents downloaded movies.

Slightly more than half of the participants used MSN messenger (52.7%). The least common purpose of using internet chosen by the participants was using Yahoo messenger (5.4%). Playing games online was popular among 51.3% of the respondents. Almost half of the respondents mentioned they shopped online (48 %).

Though in different amounts, the internet was used for many purposes among university students such as listening to music, playing games, looking at photos, reading all kinds of information, shopping online, using MSN and Yahoo messenger, checking e-mails, chatting with friends and downloading all types of movies.

Some alterations in the design and content of these categories can facilitate reading and other learning processes. The games may involve more language texts, music sections may involve lyrics of the songs, and online shopping sites may include a detailed explanation of items presented.

3.5. Content first clicked when online

The very first topics that caught the interest of participants when online were explored. The fifteen categories made available to participants were; art and humanities, business and economy, computers and internet, education, entertainment, government, health, news and media, recreation and sports, reference, regional, science, social science, society and culture, and Facebook.

Table 6. Content first clicked when online

Category	Percentage (%)
Art and Humanities	2.6
Business and Economy	0
Computers and Internet	14.5
Education	2.6
Entertainment	11.8
Government	1.3
Health	1.3
News and Media	23.7
Recreation and Sports	6.6
Reference	1.3
Regional	0
Science	1.3
Social science	0
Society and Culture	5.3
Facebook	27.6

When asked students which content they clicked first when they were online, out of fifteen different ones, majority of them put 'Facebook' (27.6%) in the first place. Facebook was followed by news and media (23.7%). Following news on the internet is quite popular among people since online news is easily updated and can be accessed anywhere anytime as long as there is a technological device such as tablet computer or mobile phone with an internet connection.

14.5% of the participants chose to know about computer and internet first while 11.8% of them chose entertainment. Recreation and sports constituted 6.6% of the answers and society and culture accounted for 5.3%. The rest of the categories, which were business and economy, education, government, health, reference regional, science and socials science, attracted little to no attention from the respondents.

In conclusion, Facebook (27.6%) and News and Media (23.7%) were the top two categories clicked first by the respondents when online. In order to develop the reading habits learners, teachers or students can create groups for their classes on sites such as Facebook and share interesting news and other information related to their lessons there. As almost all students have smart phones these days, they can be encouraged to download and follow news applications of such popular sites as BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation) onto their phones and tablet computers.

3.6. Techniques to develop reading habits

This part of the questionnaire focused on the techniques to develop reading habits. Participants were provided with nine different ways to develop reading habits. They chose from the categories of parental guidance and encouragement, motivation by teachers, reading materials about hobbies and interests, consistent use of dictionary, daily newspaper reading, book reading, visiting libraries, well-prepared reading material, studying to improve vocabulary and knowledge.

Table 7. Techniques to develop reading habits

Techniques	Yes (%)	No (%)
Parental guidance and encouragement	54.1	45.9
Motivation by teachers	86.7	13.3
Reading materials about hobbies and interests	83.8	16.2
Consistent use of dictionary	68.9	31.1
Daily newspaper reading	77.0	23.0
Book reading	88.0	12.0
Visiting libraries	68.0	32.0
Well-prepared reading material	80.0	20.0
Studying to improve vocabulary knowledge	87.8	12.2

The majority of the participants (88%) thought that 'book reading' was the most effective method in developing reading skills, which was closely followed by 'studying to improve vocabulary knowledge' (87.8 %). Motivation by teachers (86.7%) was considered by many as influential in developing reading skills. For the great majority of the respondents, teachers played a critical role in developing reading habits. Besides the motivational aspect, 83.8% of the participants had confidence in the effectiveness of reading materials about hobbies and interests. For this reason, the availability of texts related to people's interests and hobbies can trigger the development of reading habits.

Well-prepared reading material was envisaged effective in developing reading skills by 80% of the respondents. 77% of the participants thought that reading newspapers daily improved reading habits. 68% of the respondents were of the idea that visiting libraries was one way to develop reading habits. The least effective method selected by 54.1% of the participants was parental guidance and encouragement. Almost half of the respondents did not believe in the effectiveness of parental guidance in developing reading skills.

4. Discussion

In this part of the study, the three research questions were discussed. Answers to these questions were given within the light of the questionnaire responses.

4.1. What are the major trends of reading interests and reading mediums of university students studying English language and literature?

One of the major goals of this study was to explore the reading habits of university students, studying English Language and Literature at Atatürk University. The questionnaire responses indicated that respondents enjoyed reading novels, text books, and online information often. The majority of them reported that they rarely read magazines. Newspapers and emails were found to be read sometimes for the majority.

The contents of online information were also explored. Out of the given topics, 'online news' was chosen as the most widely read topic. The availability and practicality of online news makes it popular among respondents. Internet users can easily access the latest online news via their mobile phones and

computers. Almost all of the well-known newspapers have websites and applications for operating systems such as Android and iOS to deliver the latest news to their readers.

Respondents claimed that they followed e-mails, weather reports, and comic strips often while they sometimes read e-books, movie reviews, horoscopes, health information, jokes, job information, and food/nutrition. The least popular items read online by the respondents were stories and novels, sales information, fashion and sports.

In conclusion, the overall findings of the study showed that university students, studying English Language and Literature had developed a certain level of reading habits. There has been a tendency towards reading online information. However, this tendency is not seen in all texts available online to the students. For instance, though the majority of the students read printed novels, a great many of them never read novels online.

4.2. How influential is the internet on the reading habits of students?

The internet, which was reported to be mostly used for listening to music (93.4%), chatting with friends (84.2%), and looking at photos (82.9%) by the respondents of the questionnaire, has some impacts on their reading habits. The recent developments in technology have increased the availability of information in digital formats. People can obtain information from television, radio, and online sources.

The great majority of the respondents (65.8%) claimed that they spent between one to three hours online everyday. The average amount of time that the participants spend online may not seem a lot; however, how they pass it is important for educators. The topics, categories and websites that attract the attention of the students should be determined in order to use the internet as a reading tool.

Online information, which is a broad category, involves any kind of text made available on the internet. The increasing availability of digitalized texts promotes digital reading. The majority of the respondents reported that they often read online information. Moreover, out of various items, reading online news was found to be the most common activity among the learners.

In conclusion, the internet, used for various purposes from chatting with friends to buying items, is the core of digital reading. The respondents did not remain indifferent to the reading opportunities of the digital age, as the majority of them read online information. They read texts about relatively diverse topics such as sales information, online news, stories and novels, jokes, food & nutrition, and health information.

4.3. What are some possible recommendations to improve reading habits of students in the digital age?

Although the importance of reading is universally acknowledged, how to develop reading habits have long been discussed by experts. Noor (2011) thinks that the current education systems should encourage learners to become familiar with the social and technological changes happening at a tremendous rate. Liu (2005) estimates that understanding changes in reading behavior, due to the evolution of electronic documents, would help in designing more sophisticated digital libraries and encourage users to gain benefits from this digital environment.

While adapting the education systems to the constantly developing technological advancements, the training of educators is of great importance. If a technological device such as a smart board is to be placed in a classroom, the first thing to be done is to teach educators about how to integrate such devices into classroom activities. As well as the teachers, students should be informed about the latest reading opportunities available via internet. It is a part of the teachers' responsibility to inform and encourage

teachers to utilize online texts. 86.7% of the respondents also stated that motivation by teachers is effective in developing reading habits.

Students should be informed about the possibilities which are made available through the use of the internet. Almost all of the students have smart phones today. As the great majority of the respondents stated that they enjoy reading news, students can be encouraged to download and use news applications on their smart phones. There are also some websites that can enhance the reading habits of students in accordance with translation. Such websites are good sources for learners to read and enhance their reading and translating abilities as the news is available in various languages with precise translation.

As books are the main tool for exploring both real and fantasy worlds, reading is essential. Holte (1998) suggests that firstly, the dull image of reading should be lifted. Reading contests and fun reading events can be organized to remove its dull image and to improve reading habits (as cited in Akanda, Hoq, Hasan, 2013). Moreover, famous figures can participate in the events to attract people's particularly youngsters' attention towards reading. These events can include reading competitions, games and pre-determined daily reading hours.

Akanda, Hoq and Hasan (2013) state that more and more books and reading materials should be made available to students to increase their interest in reading. Moreover, they claim that as well as the content of the reading materials, the design and presentation are also of great importance in keeping the students' interest. They also state that interesting and useful reading materials should be accessible online as young people are mostly interested in the World Wide Web, social networking, blogging, etc.

Reading campaigns should be undertaken such as reading week, reading hour. These activities can be done in a class as well as via distance education. As new media and online literacies have become a part of our daily lives, reading researchers and educators should include them in their literary research (Hagood, 2003). This literary research will surely contribute to the development of reading habits.

While some linguists think that the education systems should be reorganized with optimal technology, some others suggest not using these devices at all. Loan (2009) claims that the new gadgets of technology such as television, cinema, cell phone, computer and internet have become 'time eating machines', which necessitates immediate action. To create and maintain balance in the use of traditional reading and new technology, educators and librarians have to attract a new generation towards reading.

To sum up, there are various ways to develop reading habits in modern world. Technology assisted reading is one of the most influential ways to improve reading habits. The dull image of reading can be overcome with the integration of technology into reading habits. First of all, educators should be instructed about how to integrate technology into their courses to boost reading habits. Students should be informed about how to gain benefits from the latest developments in technology. Online reading practices can be conducted in parallel with the interests of the respondents. Technology keeps developing at an unprecedented rate, so the readers must respond to these developments by adapting themselves constantly.

5. Conclusions

In the ever changing world of today, reading habits of individuals have started to become more digitalized in accordance with the advances in technology. As well as those who read from printed word, there seems to be an increase in the amount of people who use technological devices such as e-book readers, tablet computers, computers, and mobile phones to satisfy their reading interests. The majority of the respondents, for example, stated that they often followed online information.

The findings of the survey showed that reading habits of respondents were affected by the media and technology. Most of the participants spend hours and hours in front of their computer screens.

Respondents mentioned they first checked their 'Facebook' account when online. They enjoy listening to music, playing games, and doing many other things. The majority of the respondents claimed that they often read online news, check their emails, view the weather report and read comic strips.

Based on the survey findings, some valuable advice was given in the discussion part. The educators should work on some applicable methods to develop not only the students reading habits, but also the language skills such as reading, writing, speaking and listening.

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Appendix A. Reading Habits Questionnaire

I.   Demographic: (Please check (x) your answer. Thank you)

Gender: Male ( )   Female ( )

Age: Under 20( ), 20-21 ( ), 22-23 ( ), 24-25( ), 26-27 ( ), over 27 ( )

Hours spent online everyday: 0-1 hours ( ), 1-3 ( ), 4-6 ( ), Over 6 ( )

The total number of magazines and novels you read in a year.................

How often do you read each of the following in a general week?

(Please check (x) your answer. Thank you)

Reading	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often
Newspaper					
Magazines					
Text books					
Novels					
E-mails					
Online information					

What do you usually read on the internet?

(Please check (x) your answer. Thank you)

Reading	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often
Online news					
Online magazines					
E-books					
Stories and novels					
Emails					
Journal articles					
Sales information					
Movie reviews					
Horoscopes					
Weather reports					
Health information					
Comic strips					
Jokes					
Fashion					
Sports					
Job information					
Food /nutrition					

What do you do when you surf on the internet?

(Please check (x) your answer. Thank you)

Online Activities	Yes	No
I listen to music		
I play game		
I look at photos		
I read all kinds of information		
I shop online		
I use MSN messenger		
I use Yahoo Messenger		
I check email		
I chat with friends		
I download movies		

II.   Which category do you click first when you surf on the internet?
(Please check (x) your answer. Thank you)

Category	Check
Art and Humanities	
Business and Economy	
Computers and Internet	
Education	
Entertainment	
Government	
Health	
News and Media	
Recreation and Sports	
Reference	
Regional	
Science	
Social science	
Society and Culture	
Facebook	

III.   What techniques to develop the reading abilities:

(Please check (x) your answer)

Techniques	Yes	No
Parental guidance and encouragement		
Motivation by teachers		
Reading materials about hobbies and interests		
Consistent use of dictionary		
Daily newspaper reading		
Book reading		
Visiting libraries		
Well-prepared reading material		
Studying to improve vocabulary and knowledge		

Dijital çağda İngiliz dili ve edebiyatı okuyan üniversite öğrencilerinin okuma alışkanlıkları

Öz

Bu çalışmanın amacı, Atatürk Üniversitesi, İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı bölümünde okuyan öğrencilerin günümüzdeki okuma alışkanlıklarını incelemektir. Ayrıca, bu çalışma yaygınlaşan internet kullanımı ve diğer alternatif multimedya kaynaklarının okuma alışkanlıklarına etkilerini ortaya koymayı amaç edinmektedir. Bugünkü okuma alışkanlıkları hakkında genel bir bilgi edinmek için ratstgele seçilmiş 76 üniversite öğrencisi arasında bir anket uygulanılmıştır. Anket altı bölümden oluşmuştur: demografik bilgi, öğelerin okunma sıklığı, internetten okunanların içeriği, çevrimiçi aktiviteler, internetteyken ilk tıklanan içerik ve okuma alışkanlıklarını geliştirme teknikleri. Verileri analiz etmek için SPSS Statistics 20 programı kullanılmıştır. Öğrencilerin okuma alışkanlıklarına yönelik genel bir bilgi edinmek için çalışma yapıldıktan sonra araştırmacı, teknolojinin hüküm sürdüğü bugünün dünyasında okuma alışkanlıklarını geliştirmek için tavsiyelerde bulunumuştur.

Anahtar sözcükler: okuma alışkanlıkları, elektronik kitaplar, technoloji destekli okuma, okumanın önemi, okuma alşıklıklarının geliştirilmesi

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An investigation into EFL prep-class students' academic emotions[1]

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Abstract

This present study is an investigation into EFL prep-class students' academic emotions in learning and taking a test with reference to departments and gender. Academic emotions emerge when the student evaluates achievement related-situations such as studying course materials, taking an exam, doing homework or getting an exam score. In this study, academic emotions about learning and taking a test rather than class-related ones have been evaluated. Nine emotions in total - enjoyment, hope, pride, anger, anxiety, shame, hopelessness, boredom and relief - in learning and in taking a test were evaluated before, during and after parts of the Achievement Emotions Questionnaire (AEQ) prepared by Pekrun, Goetz and Perry (2005). 156 male and 59 female prep-class students of the School of Foreign Languages of Atatürk University in the academic year of 2011-2012 were investigated to find out probable differences of academic emotions in learning and taking a test in terms of departments and gender. The results of the study showed that there were relatively significant differences in the mean scores of male and female students. The study also revealed significant similarities and differences regarding the departments and there were significant linear relationships among the scores for academic emotions in learning and taking a test.

Keywords: Academic emotions; learning and taking a test; department and gender; EFL prep-class students

1. Introduction

Students experience a variety of emotions in academic settings that influence their perceptions and behavior. Results from studies by Pekrun, Goetz, Titz, and Perry (2002) show that academic emotions are significantly pertaining to the students' motivation, learning strategies, cognitive resources, self-regulation, and academic achievement, and their findings show that affective and cognitive research in education should be admitted to improve emotional diversity in academic settings by referring to various emotions experienced by students. Emotions can affect students' achievement as well as their interest, engagement, and personality development, in addition to influencing the social climate in courses and educational institutions (Pekrun, 2006).

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[1] This study was taken from PhD thesis.

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In recent times, emotional experiences of students have been neglected in the context of learning and achievement. In the past ten years, however, there has been a tremendous increase in the attention paid to emotions particularly in an academic setting. According to Pekrun, Frenzel, Goetz and Perry (2007), academic emotions can be regarded as emotions concerning either achievement outcomes (e.g., anxiety, pride, shame linked to success and failure, etc.) or activities relevant to achievement and the learning process (e.g., enjoyment of learning, boredom experienced in reviewing online materials, anger at the task demands, etc.).

1.1. Literature review

Generally, academic emotions can be defined as emotions that are experienced in an academic setting and context. There are five situations related to the academic achievement suggested by Pekrun and his colleagues (2002). These are as follows: (a) attending class, (b) taking tests and exams, (c) studying or doing homework by oneself, (d) studying or doing homework in a learning group, and (e) other situations in which one is cognitively occupied with academic achievement (e.g. talking about an upcoming exam with a peer) (as cited in Goetz et al., 2003, p. 11).

The following schema takes the traditional criteria of valence (positive vs. negative) and activation (activating vs. deactivating) into consideration and classifies academic emotions according to these criteria. Whereas valence is deemed as a bipolar dimension (positive vs. negative), activation is made out as unipolar in nature, and shows the extent to which a given emotion is activating. Table 2.1 shows the corresponding 2 x 2 table in which academic emotions are defined (Kleine, Goetz, Pekrun& Hall, 2005).

Table 1. Classification of Academic Emotions

	Valence	
Activation	Positive	Negative
Activating	enjoyment	anxiety
	pride	anger
	hope	shame / fault
Deactivating	relief	boredom
	relaxation	hopelessness

With a view to investigating emotion, several recent, very useful approaches can be utilized with a process focus. For example, according to Scherer (2000), the emotion process can be defined as a "dynamic time course of constantly changing affective tuning of organisms as based on continuous evaluative monitoring of their environment" (p. 70). He proposed that in order to comprehend the process of emotion, researchers need to attempt to model emotions synchronically in a nonlinear dynamic system. In suggesting a dynamic systems approach, Scherer (2000) supplied a component process model of emotions that seeks to address both the "dynamic, continuously fluctuating nature of emotion processes and the existence of discrete language labels referring to steady states" (p. 75).

Academic emotion relates to a wide range of emotional experiences in compliance with learners' academic activities in the teaching and learning process as well as emotional experiences in such activities as classroom learning, assignment and examination taking. Academic emotion has close relations with motive and stimulus for achievements, and sense of self-efficacy. Therefore, good academic emotion is both beneficial to the development of students' cognitive activities and the establishment of their attitude towards positive learning, and conducive to the establishment of efficient teacher-student relations and to the development of learners' physique and mentality.

Pekrun (1992) pointed out that in his theory, called control-value theory of achievement emotions, specific emotions can be classified in accordance with two distinct dimensions: a positive/negative dimension and an activating/deactivating dimension. *Activating* emotions, such as enjoyment or anger, make it possible to stimulate physiological identity and have a tendency to result in students' taking positive action, as a result of enjoyment, or negative action, as a result of anger. Positive activating emotions can easily facilitate the learning and make it possible to enhance motivation and cognitive abilities of the learners.

Deactivating emotions such as relief or boredom result in decreased arousal and action, often in the form of cognitive or behavioral assets (Pekrun 1992, 2006). Positive deactivating emotions such as relief and relaxation can positively influence the students' academic performance and in turn the learners can feel motivated to learn the necessary subjects and so they make their brain free to seize any information fundamental for themselves. In the following paragraphs, some of the most important positive emotions are defined briefly.

Hope: It can be defined as a desire of some good, accompanied with an expectation of obtaining it, or a belief that it is obtainable; an expectation of something which is thought to be desirable; confidence; pleasing expectancy.

Enjoyment: The condition of enjoying anything; pleasure or satisfaction, as in the possession or occupancy of anything; possession and use; as, the enjoyment of an estate.

Relief: This word can be defined as the easing or alleviation of a burden or distress, such as pain or anxiety.

Negative activating emotions such as anxiety and anger are one of the most significant concepts which block the learning properly in academic learning and hinder the learning by interfering in the learning process. Among these emotions, anxiety comes to the front, which can be defined as an uncomfortable emotional mood in which one conceives danger, feels powerless and experiences tension in preparation for an expected bad situation.

Negative deactivating emotions can be considered as the prevention of student's performance and motivation which is essential for the participants to progress in the academic setting. Thus, negative emotions can be problematic in any sense and lead to the poor learning in the classroom.

In brief, it can be concluded that positive emotions – those that are activating in particular – have been found to predict higher academic performance, and negative emotions have been found to predict lower academic performance (Pekrun et al., 2009); thus, it was hypothesized that positive emotions would positively correlate with academic achievement and negative emotions would negatively correlate with academic achievement. In the following paragraph, some of the most important negative emotions are defined briefly.

Anxiety: It is a term which can be defined as a state of uneasiness and apprehension especially for future concerns.

Boredom: It is the state of being bored or tedium

Anger: it is a strong feeling of displeasure or hostility towards the others.

1.2. Research questions

The aim of this study is to investigate the academic emotions of EFL prep-class students at Atatürk University, Erzurum in order to figure out how the role of academic emotions in learning and taking a test influence the attitude of the students in terms of department and gender. Nine academic emotions in total - enjoyment, hope, pride, anger, anxiety, shame, hopelessness, boredom and relief - in learning and

taking a test were evaluated before, during and after parts of the Achievement Emotions Questionnaire (AEQ).

In the light of this theoretical background and the research objectives, the following research questions were formulated:

RQ1. Are EFL prep-class students' academic emotions in learning organized in a department - specific manner?

RQ2. Are EFL prep-class students' academic emotions in learning organized in a gender - specific manner?

RQ3. Are EFL prep-class students' academic emotions in taking a test organized in a department - specific manner?

RQ4. Are EFL prep-class students' academic emotions in taking a test organized in a gender - specific manner?

RQ5. What are the relationships of EFL prep-class students' academic emotions in learning and taking a test?

2. Method

The data of the study were gathered from prep-classes selected for this study and before, during and after parts of learning and taking a test were applied at a certain interval. The questionnaire was applied to the research group without giving any time limitation in order to create a relaxed atmosphere while responding. These parts are included in Achievement Emotions Questionnaire (AEQ) developed by Pekrun, Goetz and Perry in 2005. The study lasted almost a full term, which lasts 28 weeks in accordance with the regulations applied by School of Foreign Languages. At the beginning of this study, the students were informed about the objectives and importance of the study.

2.1. Participants

Participants were EFL students in the preparatory class of the School of Foreign Languages of Atatürk University in the 2011 – 2012 academic year. 215 students (156 males and 59 females) all voluntarily took part in the study and gave consent for data collection. They were selected from six different departments; 36% of the students study in the Department of Mechanical Engineering, 21% of them study in the Department of Chemical Engineering, 21% of them study in the Department of Electrical and Electronic Engineering, 14% of them study in the School of Tourism and Hotel Management, 7% of them study in the Department of Chemistry and 1% of them study in the Department of Civil Engineering.

2.2. Instrument

In order to collect data, Achievement Emotions Questionnaire (AEQ) was applied to the participants. As for the general key concepts, Achievement Emotions Questionnaire (AEQ) refers to activity emotions (enjoyment, boredom, and anger), prospective outcome emotions (hope, anxiety, and hopelessness), and retrospective outcome emotions (pride, relief, and shame). In terms of valence, the instrument measures both positive and negative emotions, and in terms of activation, it evaluates both activating and deactivating emotions. So, the AEQ makes up the four emotion categories consisting of the valence and activation dimensions: positive activating (enjoyment, hope, pride); positive deactivating (relief); negative activating (anger, anxiety, shame); and negative deactivating (hopelessness, boredom).

In this questionnaire, there are three sections; before, during and after in terms of both learning and taking a test. The items in the questionnaire were translated into Turkish in order to enable the students to understand the items properly. The purpose of the instrument is to collect data about academic emotions in learning and taking a test. This survey is intended to find out the type and frequency of academic emotions and also to figure out whether these vary with regard to learning and taking a test throughout before, during and after parts. It consists of 152 items, each of which is based on 5 degree-scales ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).

2.3. Data analysis

The results were analyzed through SPSS 16 program using different statistical analyses; percentage, frequency, arithmetic mean, standard deviation, Kruskal Wallis analysis, student's t-test, Dunnett's T3 post-hoc test.

3. Results

3.1.1. Are EFL prep-class students' academic emotions in learning organized in a department - specific manner?

Goetz, Frenzel and Pekrun (2006) state that up to that time, empirical research on the department specificity of students' emotional experiences is lacking. However, there are several studies that provide indirect evidence in support of the domain specificity of academic anxiety (e.g., Everson, Tobias, Hartman, & Gourgey, 1993; Gottfried, 1982; Hembree, 1990). Despite this proliferation of research on academic emotions, few researchers have focused on the department specificity of students' emotional experiences. To test the assumption that there are relatively strong relations between academic emotions in different departments (e.g., Mechanical Engineering, Chemical Engineering, Electrical and Electronic Engineering, Civil Engineering, School of Tourism and Hotel Management and Chemistry), this study investigates six different departments in a given study. The present study focused specifically on EFL prep-class students' academic emotions in learning and taking a test with regards to department and gender.

3.1.2. Findings and comments whether scores for Academic Emotions differ Before, During and After Learning as to EFL prep-class students' field of study

Kruskal-Wallis test was used to determine if there is a difference among Academic Emotion scores of EFL prep-class students Before, During and After Learning as to their field of study, and the results are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Findings on the scores of Academic Emotions in EFL prep-class students
with respect to Department in Learning

	Department	N	Sequence Mean	Chi-square	P
	Mechanical Engineering	78	105.15		
	Chemical Engineering	44	99.99		
Enjoyment Before Learning	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	124.49	3.610	0.607
	Civil Engineering	3	88.00		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	103.90		
	Chemistry	14	107.96		

Hope Before Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	108.49		
	Chemical Engineering	44	114.84		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	97.79	5.430	0.366
	Civil Engineering	3	113.33		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	122.50		
	Chemistry	14	85.07		
Anger Before Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	99.58		
	Chemical Engineering	44	110.34		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	113.57	4.912	0.427
	Civil Engineering	3	115.83		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	107.25		
	Chemistry	14	129.21		
Anxiety Before Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	99.29		
	Chemical Engineering	44	108.85		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	110.07	5.831	0.323
	Civil Engineering	3	86.67		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	114.78		
	Chemistry	14	137.07		
Shame Before Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	104.38		
	Chemical Engineering	44	108.28		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	124.68	9.576	0.088
	Civil Engineering	3	42.50		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	93.35		
	Chemistry	14	117.86		
Hopelessness Before Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	100.34		
	Chemical Engineering	44	101.07		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	119.00	4.713	0.452
	Civil Engineering	3	91.83		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	117.17		
	Chemistry	14	120.14		
Boredom Before Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	107.40		
	Chemical Engineering	44	105.16		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	121.23	6.182	0.289
	Civil Engineering	3	52.33		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	95.25		
	Chemistry	14	116.04		
Enjoyment During Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	110.92		
	Chemical Engineering	44	99.02		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	119.52	4.950	0.422
	Civil Engineering	3	89.50		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	108.65		
	Chemistry	14	84.68		

Hope During Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	113.57		
	Chemical Engineering	44	84.63		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	130.22	21.125	0.001
	Civil Engineering	3	98.50		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	115.55		
	Chemistry	14	63.29		
Pride During Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	114.93		
	Chemical Engineering	44	104.70		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	115.55	7.066	0.216
	Civil Engineering	3	43.00		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	97.98		
	Chemistry	14	90.32		
Anger During Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	96.54		
	Chemical Engineering	44	111.64		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	119.99	5.966	0.310
	Civil Engineering	3	91.50		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	119.33		
	Chemistry	14	100.29		
Anxiety During Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	93.83		
	Chemical Engineering	44	118.31		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	108.84	8.705	0.121
	Civil Engineering	3	151.83		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	114.27		
	Chemistry	14	128.96		
Shame During Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	95.99		
	Chemical Engineering	44	114.30		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	105.50	7.296	0.200
	Civil Engineering	3	111.67		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	116.05		
	Chemistry	14	138.11		
Hopelessness During Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	91.48		
	Chemical Engineering	44	84.98		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	93.00	1.046	0.959
	Civil Engineering	3	97.67		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	96.55		
	Chemistry	14	89.50		
Boredom During Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	99.92	3.178	0.673

	Chemical Engineering	44	108.44		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	118.89		
	Civil Engineering	3	106.00		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	114.47		
	Chemistry	14	102.43		
Enjoyment After Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	114.29		
	Chemical Engineering	44	99.03		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	108.66	3.378	0.642
	Civil Engineering	3	67.67		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	104.22		
	Chemistry	14	115.68		
Pride After Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	107.74		
	Chemical Engineering	44	107.45		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	127.86	13.924	0.016
	Civil Engineering	3	22.17		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	88.70		
	Chemistry	14	105.64		
Anger After Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	101.97		
	Chemical Engineering	44	117.99		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	110.91	5.386	0.371
	Civil Engineering	3	52.33		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	104.40		
	Chemistry	14	120.25		
Anxiety After Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	93.67		
	Chemical Engineering	44	128.16		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	114.58	10.187	0.070
	Civil Engineering	3	103.83		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	101.62		
	Chemistry	14	117.43		
Shame After Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	95.93		
	Chemical Engineering	44	112.89		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	114.05	5.309	0.379
	Civil Engineering	3	113.50		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	113.43		
	Chemistry	14	127.18		
Hopelessness After Learning	Mechanical Engineering	78	100.43	5.485	0.360
	Chemical Engineering	44	114.76		

Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	116.50	
Civil Engineering	3	76.00	
Tourism and Hotel Management	30	96.58	
Chemistry	14	125.18	

The table demonstrates that the chi-square values related to "Hope" During Learning and "Pride" After Learning are statistically significant as to students' field of study ($p<0.05$) whereas the chi-square values related to the differences among other Academic Emotions are not statistically significant ($p>0.05$). These findings have indicated that there is a difference between "Hope" During Learning and "Pride" After Learning among students as to their field of study. Dunnett's T3 Post-Hoc test was used to reveal which departments caused that difference.

The Post Hoc test results show that the differences are statistically significant among students studying Electrical and Electronic Engineering and the ones studying Chemical Engineering, Civil Engineering and Chemistry with regard to "Hope" During Learning ($p<0.05$). "Hope" During Learning is much higher among students studying Electrical and Electronic Engineering than students studying Chemical Engineering, Civil Engineering and Chemistry.

The differences are statistically significant among students studying Civil Engineering and the ones studying Mechanical Engineering, Chemical Engineering and Electrical and Electronic Engineering with regard to "Pride" After Learning ($p<0.05$). "Pride" After Learning is much lower in students studying Civil Engineering than students studying Mechanical Engineering, Chemical Engineering and Electrical and Electronic Engineering.

3.2. Are EFL prep-class students' academic emotions in learning organized in a gender - specific manner?

The degree to which men and women differ in their expression of their emotions of learning has received relatively little attention in empirical research. The present study focused specifically on EFL prep-class students' academic emotions related to gender, which is one of the variables of the study.

3.2.1. Findings and comments if there is a difference among scores of Academic Emotions in EFL prep-class students by gender, Before, During and After Learning

In data analysis, t-test was used to determine if there is a difference among scores of Academic Emotions for EFL prep-class by gender, Before, During and After Learning and the results are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Findings on the scores of Academic Emotions in EFL prep-class students by gender, Before, During and After Learning

	Gender	N	$\overline{X}$	S.s.	t	P
Enjoyment Before Learning	Male	156	2.74	1.13	0.971	0.333
	Female	59	2.58	0.97		
Hope Before Learning	Male	156	3.18	0.57	-0.019	0.985
	Female	59	3.18	0.60		
Anger Before Learning	Male	156	2.38	0.72	-0.289	0.773
	Female	59	2.42	0.86		
Anxiety Before Learning	Male	156	2.40	0.81	-0.811	0.418
	Female	59	2.50	0.96		

Shame Before Learning	Male	156	2.87	1.03	1.463	0.145
	Female	59	2.63	1.16		
Hopelessness Before Learning	Male	156	2.33	0.89	-0.122	0.903
	Female	59	2.35	1.03		
Boredom Before Learning	Male	156	2.41	0.70	1.697	0.091
	Female	59	2.21	0.86		
Enjoyment During Learning	Male	156	2.51	0.51	2.966	0.003
	Female	59	2.27	0.55		
Hope During Learning	Male	156	1.87	0.71	1.864	0.064
	Female	59	1.67	0.69		
Pride During Learning	Male	156	2.15	0.70	3.027	0.003
	Female	59	1.83	0.63		
Anger During Learning	Male	156	2.40	0.80	-0.191	0.848
	Female	59	2.43	0.93		
Anxiety During Learning	Male	156	2.78	0.67	-3.385	0.001
	Female	59	3.14	0.72		
Shame During Learning	Male	156	2.41	0.70	-2.917	0.004
	Female	58	2.76	0.93		
Hopelessness During Learning	Male	127	2.44	0.70	-0.538	0.591
	Female	54	2.50	0.76		
Boredom During Learning	Male	156	2.57	0.65	1.360	0.175
	Female	59	2.43	0.72		
Enjoyment After Learning	Male	156	2.28	0.70	2.199	0.029
	Female	59	2.05	0.65		
Pride After Learning	Male	156	2.39	0.93	3.218	0.001
	Female	59	1.97	0.68		
Anger After Learning	Male	156	2.36	1.12	0.209	0.835
	Female	59	2.32	1.24		
Anxiety After Learning	Male	156	2.98	0.94	-0.923	0.357
	Female	59	3.11	0.94		
Shame After Learning	Male	156	2.44	0.86	-0.163	0.870
	Female	59	2.46	0.91		
Hopelessness After Learning	Male	155	2.39	0.87	0.337	0.736
	Female	59	2.34	0.78		

The table demonstrates that the t-values are statistically significant (p<0.05) for male and female students regarding the differences between the scores of "Enjoyment", "Pride", "Anxiety" and "Shame" During Learning, and "Enjoyment" and "Pride" After Learning whereas the t-values for all other Academic Emotions are not statistically significant (p>0.05).

All these findings have demonstrated that there are differences among male and female students with regards to "Enjoyment", "Pride", "Anxiety" and "Shame" During Learning, and "Enjoyment" and "Pride" After Learning whereas there are no differences among other Academic Emotions.

The table also shows that the arithmetic mean among male students regarding "Enjoyment" and "Pride" both During Learning and After Learning is significantly higher than that for female students.

Furthermore, the table clearly presents that the arithmetic mean among female students regarding "Anxiety" and "Shame" During Learning is significantly higher than that of male students.

As a result, it can be assumed that "Enjoyment" and "Pride" both During and After Learning is significantly higher among male students than female students whereas "Anxiety" and "Shame" is significantly higher among female students than male students.

3.3. Are EFL prep-class students' academic emotions in taking a test organized in a department - specific manner?

3.3.1. Findings and comments whether scores for Academic Emotions differ Before, During and After Taking a Test as to EFL prep-class students' field of study

Kruskal-Wallis test was used to determine if there is a difference among scores of Academic Emotions Before, During and After Taking a Test in EFL prep-class as to their field of study, and the results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Findings on the scores of Academic Emotions in EFL prep-class students
with respect to Department in Taking a Test

	Department	N	Sequence Mean	Chi-square	P
Enjoyment Before Taking a Test	Mechanical Engineering	78	109.54	4.139	0.530
	Chemical Engineering	44	101.61		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	121.35		
	Civil Engineering	3	78.50		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	99.08		
	Chemistry	14	101.07		
Hope Before Taking a Test	Mechanical Engineering	78	106.23	14.512	0.013
	Chemical Engineering	44	95.74		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	131.85		
	Civil Engineering	3	22.83		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	106.33		
	Chemistry	14	99.86		
Anger Before Taking a Test	Mechanical Engineering	78	94.08	13.053	0.023
	Chemical Engineering	44	120.99		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	113.00		
	Civil Engineering	3	66.50		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	104.12		
	Chemistry	14	145.50		
Pride Before Taking a Test	Mechanical Engineering	78	111.88	4.372	0.497
	Chemical Engineering	44	94.49		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	116.85		
	Civil Engineering	3	77.83		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	107.52		
	Chemistry	14	107.29		

Anxiety Before Taking a Test	Mechanical Engineering	78	95.83		
	Chemical Engineering	44	113.39		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	110.65	5.793	0.327
	Civil Engineering	3	141.17		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	117.58		
	Chemistry	14	122.54		
Shame Before Taking a Test	Mechanical Engineering	78	105.85		
	Chemical Engineering	44	109.59		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	97.01	4.498	0.480
	Civil Engineering	3	135.17		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	115.47		
	Chemistry	14	129.29		
Hopelessness Before Taking a Test	Mechanical Engineering	78	96.01		
	Chemical Engineering	44	111.98		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	119.22	7.463	0.188
	Civil Engineering	3	58.33		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	116.15		
	Chemistry	14	118.61		
Enjoyment During Taking a Test	Mechanical Engineering	78	108.20		
	Chemical Engineering	44	101.55		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	119.23	2.848	0.723
	Civil Engineering	3	121.67		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	104.15		
	Chemistry	14	95.61		
Hope During Taking a Test	Mechanical Engineering	78	112.60		
	Chemical Engineering	44	94.05		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	114.45	7.230	0.204
	Civil Engineering	3	39.67		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	111.95		
	Chemistry	14	111.21		
Pride During Taking a Test	Mechanical Engineering	78	108.99		
	Chemical Engineering	44	99.34		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	114.88	3.264	0.659
	Civil Engineering	3	75.17		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	115.83		
	Chemistry	14	97.36		
	Mechanical Engineering	78	97.47		

Anger During Taking a Test	Chemical Engineering	44	108.63	5.108	0.403
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	114.85		
	Civil Engineering	3	90.33		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	123.42		
	Chemistry	14	112.93		
Anxiety During Taking a Test	Mechanical Engineering	78	93.93	7.161	0.209
	Chemical Engineering	44	113.72		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	111.74		
	Civil Engineering	3	127.50		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	120.17		
	Chemistry	14	125.89		
Shame During Taking a Test	Mechanical Engineering	78	95.55	5.260	0.385
	Chemical Engineering	44	111.50		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	117.59		
	Civil Engineering	3	110.00		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	117.98		
	Chemistry	14	113.04		
Hopelessness During Taking a Test	Mechanical Engineering	78	91.12	11.520	0.042
	Chemical Engineering	44	110.86		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	118.74		
	Civil Engineering	3	102.50		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	131.35		
	Chemistry	14	108.93		
Enjoyment After Taking a Test	Mechanical Engineering	78	100.29	8.010	0.156
	Chemical Engineering	44	114.60		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	120.04		
	Civil Engineering	3	35.67		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	104.30		
	Chemistry	14	114.07		
Pride After Taking a Test	Mechanical Engineering	78	109.55	6.024	0.304
	Chemical Engineering	44	102.31		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	118.13		
	Civil Engineering	3	35.50		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	102.52		
	Chemistry	14	111.25		
Anger After Taking a Test	Mechanical Engineering	78	100.58	2.817	0.728
	Chemical Engineering	44	105.09		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	113.92		

	Civil Engineering	3	110.67		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	115.62		
	Chemistry	14	122.14		
Shame After Taking a Test	Mechanical Engineering	78	102.97	3.694	0.594
	Chemical Engineering	44	101.72		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	121.71		
	Civil Engineering	3	85.17		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	110.35		
	Chemistry	14	110.61		
Relief After Taking a Test	Mechanical Engineering	78	113.13	13.877	0.016
	Chemical Engineering	44	103.08		
	Electrical and Electronic Engineering	46	117.37		
	Civil Engineering	3	3.83		
	Tourism and Hotel Management	30	90.03		
	Chemistry	14	124.89		

The table demonstrates that the chi-square values are statistically significant related to "Hope", "Anger" Before Taking a Test, "Hopelessness" During a Test and "Relief" After Taking a Test as to the field of study ($p < 0.05$). However, the chi-square values are not statistically significant related to the differences among other Academic Emotions ($p > 0.05$). These findings have demonstrated that there are differences with respect to "Hope", "Anger" and Before Taking a Test, "Hopelessness" During a Test and "Relief" After Taking a Test as to the field of study. Dunnett's T3 Post-Hoc test was used to yield which departments caused that difference.

The Post-Hoc test results demonstrate that the differences with respect to "Hope" Before Taking a Test are statistically significant among these groups of students studying Mechanical Engineering, Civil Engineering and Electrical and Electronic Engineering; Civil Engineering and Mechanical Engineering; and Chemical Engineering, Chemistry and Electrical and Electronic Engineering ($p < 0.05$). Moreover, "Hope" Before Taking a Test is much higher among students studying Electrical and Electronic Engineering than students studying Civil Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Chemical Engineering and Chemistry. Additionally, it is higher among students studying Mechanical Engineering than students studying Civil Engineering.

The Post Hoc test results demonstrate that the differences with respect to "Anger" Before Taking a Test are statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) among students studying Chemistry and students studying Mechanical Engineering, Civil Engineering and Tourism. "Anger" Before Taking a Test is much higher among students studying Chemistry than students studying Mechanical Engineering, Civil Engineering and Tourism.

The Post Hoc test results show that the differences, with respect to "Hopelessness" During Taking a Test, are statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) among the students studying Mechanical Engineering, and students studying Electrical and Electronic Engineering and Tourism. "Hopelessness" During Taking a Test among students studying Mechanical Engineering is much lower than students studying Electrical and Electronic Engineering and Tourism.

The Post Hoc test results indicate that the differences, with respect to "Relief" During Taking a Test, are statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) among students studying Civil Engineering, and students studying

Electrical and Electronic Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Chemistry and Tourism. "Relief" During Taking a Test is much lower among Civil Engineering students than students studying Mechanical Engineering, Electrical and Electronic Engineering, Chemical Engineering, Chemistry and Tourism.

3.4. Are EFL prep-class students' academic emotions in taking a test organized in a gender - specific manner?

3.4.1. Findings and comments if there is a difference among scores of Academic Emotions in EFL prep-class students by gender, Before, During and After Taking a Test

In data analysis, t-test was used to determine if there is a difference among scores of Academic Emotions for EFL prep-class by gender, Before, During and After Learning and the results are shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Findings on the scores of Academic Emotions in EFL prep-class students by gender, Before, During and After Taking a Test

	Gender	N	$\overline{X}$	S.s.	T	P
Enjoyment Before Taking a Test	Male	156	2.85	0.58	1.259	0.210
	Female	59	2.72	0.84		
Hope Before Taking a Test	Male	156	2.61	0.62	1.076	0.283
	Female	59	2.51	0.69		
Anger Before Taking a Test	Male	156	3.04	0.82	-1.430	0.154
	Female	59	3.23	0.90		
Pride Before Taking a Test	Male	156	2.99	0.99	1.726	0.086
	Female	59	2.73	1.05		
Anxiety Before Taking a Test	Male	156	2.76	0.60	-2.702	0.007
	Female	59	3.02	0.70		
Shame Before Taking a Test	Male	156	2.87	1.13	-0.656	0.513
	Female	59	2.98	1.06		
Hopelessness Before Taking a Test	Male	156	2.38	0.75	-0.524	0.601
	Female	59	2.44	0.85		
Enjoyment During Taking a Test	Male	156	2.87	0.68	1.024	0.307
	Female	59	2.76	0.76		
Hope During Taking a Test	Male	156	2.35	0.75	1.202	0.231
	Female	59	2.21	0.75		
Pride During Taking a Test	Male	156	2.54	0.89	1.785	0.076
	Female	59	2.31	0.74		
Anger During Taking a Test	Male	156	2.70	0.95	-1.132	0.259
	Female	59	2.86	0.90		
Anxiety During Taking a Test	Male	156	2.82	0.73	-3.643	0.000
	Female	59	3.24	0.79		
Shame During Taking a Test	Male	156	2.14	0.77	-1.311	0.191
	Female	59	2.31	0.94		
Hopelessness During Taking a Test	Male	156	2.48	0.69	-1.618	0.107
	Female	59	2.66	0.80		
Enjoyment After Taking a Test	Male	156	2.40	0.80	-0.802	0.423
	Female	59	2.50	0.74		
Pride After Taking a Test	Male	156	2.75	0.73	1.256	0.210
	Female	59	2.62	0.51		

Anger After Taking a Test	Male	156	2.65	0.84	0.342	0.732
	Female	59	2.60	0.76		
Shame After Taking a Test	Male	156	2.38	0.89	-0.407	0.685
	Female	59	2.44	0.94		
Relief After Taking a Test	Male	156	2.48	0.70	1.871	0.063
	Female	59	2.28	0.76		

The table demonstrates that the t-values are statistically significant regarding the differences among the scores of male and female students with respect to "Anxiety" Before and During Taking a Test (p<0.05) whereas the t-values for all other Academic Emotions are not statistically significant (p>0.05).

These findings have indicated that there are differences among the scores of male and female students with respect to "Anxiety" Before and During Taking a Test whereas there are no differences among them with respect to the other Academic Emotions.

The table shows that the arithmetic mean for "Anxiety" both Before Taking a Test and During Taking a Test is much higher in female students than in male students.

As a result, it can be assumed that "Anxiety" both Before Taking a Test and During Taking a Test is much higher in female students than in male students.

3.5. What are the relationships between EFL prep-class students' learning and taking a test academic emotion?

3.5.1. Findings on the relationship between Learning Academic Emotions and Taking a Test Academic Emotions in EFL prep-class students Before, During and After

The relationship between learning and taking a test in the course before, during and after is shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Findings about the relationship between learning and taking a test in total score

Learning	Taking a Test	r	p
Before Learning (Total)	Before Taking a Test (Total)	0.745	0.000
During Learning (Total)	During Taking a Test(Total)	0.747	0.000
After Learning (Total)	After Taking a Test (Total)	1.000	0.000

The correlation between the total score before learning and that before taking a test was r=0.745 and found to be statistically significant (p<0.05); the correlation between the total score during learning and that during taking a test was r=0.747 and found to be statistically significant (p<0.05); and the correlation between the total score after learning and that after taking a test was r=1.000 and found to be statistically significant (p<0.05). All these findings demonstrated that there were significant linear relationships between the scores before learning and before taking a test, during learning and during taking a test, and after learning and after taking a test. Consequently, as the score before, during and after learning and taking a test increases, so does the score before, during and after learning and taking a test.

Table 7. Findings about the relationship between before learning and before
taking a test in terms of academic emotions

Learning	Taking a Test	r	p
Enjoyment Before Learning	Enjoyment Before Taking a Test	0.538	0.000
Hope Before Learning	Hope Before Taking a Test	0.111	0.105
Anger Before Learning	Anger Before Taking a Test	0.345	0.000
Anxiety Before Learning	Anxiety Before Taking a Test	0.419	0.000
Shame Before Learning	Shame Before Taking a Test	0.145	0.033
Hopelessness Before Learning	Hopelessness Before Taking a Test	0.691	0.000

The correlation between the total score for Enjoyment Before Learning and that for Enjoyment Before Taking a Test was r=0.538 and found to be statistically significant (p<0.05) whereas the correlation between the total score for Hope Before Learning and that for Hope Before Taking a Test was r=0.111 and was not found to be statistically significant (p>0.05). Other findings are as follows: the correlation between the total score for Anger Before Learning and that for Anger Before Taking a Test was r=0.345 and found to be statistically significant (p<0.05); the correlation between the total score for Anxiety Before Learning and that for Anxiety Before Taking a Test was r=0.419 and found to be statistically significant(p<0.05); the correlation between the total score for Shame Before Learning and that for Shame Before Taking a Test was r=0.145 and found to be statistically significant(p<0.05); and finally, the correlation between the total score for Hopelessness Before Learning and that for Hopelessness Before Taking a Test was r=0.691 and found to be statistically significant (p<0.05).

All these findings demonstrate that there are significant linear relationships among the scores for Enjoyment, Anger, Anxiety, Shame and Hopelessness Before Learning and Taking a Test and that there is no relationship between the score of Hope Before Learning and Hope Before Taking a Test. As a result, it can be stated that as the score for Enjoyment, Anger, Anxiety, Shame and Hopelessness Before Learning and Taking a Test increases, so does the score for Enjoyment, Anger, Anxiety, Shame and Hopelessness Before Learning and Taking a Test increases.

Table 8. Findings about the relationship between during learning and during
taking a test in terms of academic emotions

Learning	Taking a Test	r	p
Enjoyment During Learning	Enjoyment During Taking a Test	0.398	0.000
Hope During Learning	Hope During Taking a Test	0.418	0.000
Pride During Learning	Pride During Taking a Test	0.584	0.000
Anger During Learning	Anger During Taking a Test	0.451	0.000
Anxiety During Learning	Anxiety During Taking a Test	0.659	0.000
Shame During Learning	Shame During Taking a Test	0.654	0.000
Hopelessness During Learning	Hopelessness During Taking a Test	0.608	0.000

The findings are as follows: the correlation between the total score for Enjoyment During Learning and that for Enjoyment During Taking a Test was r=0.398and found to be statistically

significant(p<0.05) ; the correlation between the total score for Hope During Learning and that for Hope During Taking a Test was r=0.418and found to be statistically significant(p>0.05); the correlation between the total score for Pride During Learning and that for Pride During Taking a Test was r=0.584and found to be statistically significant (p<0.05); the correlation between the total score for Anger During Learning and that for Anger During Taking a Test was r=0.451 and found to be statistically significant (p<0.05); the correlation between the total score for Anxiety During Learning and that for Anxiety During Taking a Test was r=0.659and found to be statistically significant(p<0.05); the correlation between the total score for Shame During Learning and that for Shame During Taking a Test was r=0.654and found to be statistically significant(p<0.05); and finally, the correlation between the total score for Hopelessness During Learning and that for Hopelessness During Taking a Test was r=0.608and found to be statistically significant (p<0.05).

All these findings show that there are significant linear relationships among the scores for Enjoyment, Hope, Pride, Anger, Anxiety, Shame and Hopelessness During Learning and Taking a Test. As a result, it can be stated that as the score for Enjoyment, Hope, Pride, Anger, Anxiety, Shame and Hopelessness During Learning and Taking a Test increases, so does the score for Enjoyment, Hope, Pride, Anger, Anxiety, Shame and Hopelessness During Learning and Taking a Test increases.

Table 9. Findings about the relationship between after learning and after taking a test in terms of academic emotions

Learning	Taking a Test	r	p
Enjoyment After Learning	Enjoyment After Taking a Test	0.466	0.000
Pride After Learning	Pride After Taking a Test	0.677	0.000
Anger After Learning	Anger After Taking a Test	0.314	0.000
Shame After Learning	Shame After Taking a Test	0.609	0.000

The correlation between the total score for Enjoyment After Learning and that for Enjoyment After Taking a Test was r=0.466 and found to be statistically significant(p<0.05) ; the correlation between the total score for Pride After Learning and that for Pride After Taking a Test was r=0.677and found to be statistically significant(p>0.05); the correlation between the total score for Anger After Learning and that for Anger After Taking a Test was r=0.314and found to be statistically significant (p<0.05); the correlation between the total score for Shame After Learning and that for Shame After Taking a Test was r=0.609 and found to be statistically significant (p<0.05).

All these findings show that there are significant linear relationships among the scores for Enjoyment, Pride, Anger, Shame After Learning and Taking a Test. As a result, it can be stated that as the score for Enjoyment, Pride, Anger, Shame After Learning and Taking a Test increases, so does the score for Enjoyment, Pride, Anger, Shame After Learning and Taking a Test increases.

4. Discussion and Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study, being aware of the emotional experiences and academic emotions of the learners can enable teachers to take EFL prep-class students' academic emotions in learning and taking a test more seriously, so they can prepare the materials in accordance with the students' affective, cognitive, motivational and physiological sides in learning. All these findings demonstrated that there were significant linear relationships between the scores before learning and before taking a test, during learning and during taking a test, and after learning and after taking a test.

In this study, the results also reveal that there are significant relationships among the departments and gender as shown in the results in detail. For example, there are differences among male and female EFL prep-class students with regards to "Enjoyment", "Pride", "Anxiety" and "Shame" During Learning, and "Enjoyment" and "Pride" After Learning whereas there are no differences among other Academic Emotions. Another result shows that "Hope" During Learning is much higher among students studying Electrical and Electronic Engineering than students studying Chemical Engineering, Civil Engineering and Chemistry.

In conclusion, this study intended to present the relationships between academic emotions in learning and taking a test with regards to department and gender. The results of the study prove that male and female EFL prep-class students have sometimes different positive and negative academic emotions or attitudes towards learning and taking a test. The other significant finding of this study is that participants from different departments have also different approaches towards learning and taking a test as for academic emotions. The results of the study give insights into the students' academic emotions in learning and taking a test. Thus, for a more comprehensive picture of academic emotions, further studies conducted with also class-related emotions are recommended to draw conclusions from the present study.

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İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen hazırlık sınıfı öğrencilerin akademik duyguları üzerine bir araştırma

Öz

Bu çalışma, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen hazırlık sınıfı öğrencilerin öğrenme ve sınava girmedeki akademik duygularının bölüm ile cinsiyet açısından bir incelemesidir. Akademik duygular; öğrenciler, ders materyalleri üzerinde çalışma, sınava tabi tutulma, ev ödevi yapma ve sınav sonucu alma gibi başarı odaklı durumları değerlendirdiğinde ortaya çıkar. Bu çalışmada, sınıf ile ilgili duygulardan ziyade, öğrenme ve sınava tabi tutulma hususundaki akademik duygular değerlendirilmiştir. Eğlenme, umut etme, gurur, sinir, gerginlik, utanç, umutsuzluk, sıkıntı ve rahatlama gibi dokuz duygu, Pekrun, Goetz ve Perry (2005) tarafından hazırlanan Başarı Duygusu Anketinin öğrenme ve sınava girme; öncesi, süresince ve sonrası bölümleri değerlendirilmiştir. 2011-2012 akademik yılında Erzurum Atatürk Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu hazırlık sınıfı öğrencilerinden 156 erkek ve 59 kız öğrenci, öğrenme ve sınava girmede akademik duyguların cinsiyet ve bölümler dikkate alınarak arasındaki farkı gözlemlemek için incelenmişlerdir. Çalışmanın sonucu erkek ve kız öğrencilerin ortalama puanları arasında anlamlı farklar olduğunu göstermiştir. Çalışma aynı zamanda akademik bölümler göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, anlamlı benzerlikler ve farklılıklar ortaya koymuş, öğrenme ve sınava girme hususundaki akademik duyguların değerlendirildiği sonuçlarda doğrusal ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Akademik Duygular; öğrenme ve sınava girme; bölüm ve cinsiyet; İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen hazırlık sınıfı öğrenciler

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Motivational behaviors of teachers in Turkish EFL classes: Perception of students[1]

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Abstract

Motivation is regarded as one of the most important factors in language learning process and teachers try a lot to motivate their students in language classes. There have been a number of studies in the field of education to prove that teachers play important roles on student motivation (Christophel, 1990; Williams & Burden, 1997; Dörnyei, 2001a; Trang & Baldauf, 2007). In this respect, this study aimed to identify the most and least motivating teacher behaviors and their effects in language classes according to students. Participants of the study included 314 pre-intermediate students of the English preparatory program of a state university. The data were collected by means of a questionnaire administered to these participants, and 19 students were also interviewed to get in-depth data on teacher motivational behaviors. The quantitative data were analyzed through descriptive statistics, and content analysis was used to analyze the qualitative data. The results presented some significant insight on the most and least teacher motivation behaviors that would serve teachers as a guide for classroom implications.

Keywords: Motivation; teacher motivational behaviors; Turkish EFL students

1. Introduction

Motivation is one of the main determining factors in an individual's success for developing a second or foreign language (Dörnyei, 1990, 2001a, 2001b; Gardner, Lalonde & Moorcraft, 1985; Oxford and Shearin, 1994; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Warden & Lin, 2000). Dörnyei (1998, p.117) points out that "motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate learning the L2 and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process". Gardner (1985) asserts that motivation includes four elements: a goal, a desire to achieve the goal, positive attitudes toward learning the language, and effortful behavior to that effect. As motivation plays a very important role in learning process, there have been numerous research studies, as mentioned below, that look into the nature and role of motivation and demotivation in L2 learning process for the last decades.

In his study, Dörnyei (1998) selected demotivated participants for his research and his findings showed that what makes the category of demotives is directly related to the teacher. In Trang and

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[1] This study is a condensed summary of the master's thesis entitled *Teacher motivational behaviors in language classrooms: How do students and language instructors perceive them?* completed by Elçin Ölmezer Öztürk in 2012.

Baldauf's (2007) study, 100 second-year EFL students from a university in central Vietnam were asked questions to find out the reasons of their demotivation. The participants were asked to write an essay giving information about the sources and reasons of their demotivation. The results showed that external factors accounted for 64% of demotivation. Among the external demotives, teacher-related factors were the main source of demotives accounting for 38% of the total number of demotivating encounters.

Dörnyei and Csizer (1998) conducted a study on motivating language learners. Their participants included 200 Hungarian EFL teachers, each of whom was asked to rate 51 motivational strategies. Based on this data, Dörnyei and Csizer proposed ten commandments for language teachers, some of which are promoting learner autonomy, developing good relationship with the learners, and making the language classes interesting.

Madrid (2002) examined 319 students and 18 teachers from Primary, Secondary and Upper-Secondary Education in order to find out how powerful certain motivational classroom strategies were. Students' global motivation perception was observed and compared with the strategies used in class. The results showed that certain strategies were more powerful than others to enhance students' global motivation. The most powerful motivational strategies were as follows: The use of audiovisual resources and new technologies, group work, satisfying the students' needs and interests, praises and rewards, and fulfillment of students' success expectations. The author also concludes that teachers should promote and put into practice those motivational strategies which increase the students' interest, attention and satisfaction.

In the light of these studies, it is obvious that teachers have a great influence on student motivation. Winke (2005) highlights that learner motivation is not just a variable students bring to the classroom. Teachers can also implement and promote student motivation to enhance learning, and to influence the quality and type of motivation that drives foreign language learning. Thus, motivation is the key factor in learning success, and teacher skills in motivating learners should be seen as central to teaching effectiveness (Dörnyei, 2000). For this reason, this study aims to find out the effect of teacher motivational behaviors in the classroom through the eyes of students. Students' perceptions of certain teacher motivational behaviors in language classrooms were investigated and the following research questions were addressed during the study.

1. What are the most motivating teacher behaviors in Turkish EFL classes according to the university students?

2. What are the least motivating teacher behaviors in Turkish EFL classes according to the university students?

2. Method

2.1. Participants and setting

The participants included 314 EFL students, 174 female and 140 male, at the English preparatory program of a state university in Turkey, and their ages ranged from 17 to 22. The English program was a compulsory one in which English was taught integratively, and students had 25 hours of English per week. The participants were all pre-intermediate students when they took the questionnaire.

2.2. Instruments

2.2.1. Student questionnaire

"Teacher Motivational Behaviors Questionnaire" was developed by the researchers to find out how students perceive certain teacher motivational behaviors. At the beginning of the term, three open-ended questions were given to 40 students who were randomly selected to get a general idea about their opinions on teacher motivational behaviors. These questions included;

- What are the most motivating teacher behaviors for you?

- What are the least motivating teacher behaviors for you?

- What is your ideal teacher like? What kind of features does s/he have?

The questions were in Turkish, and the students were expected to write their answers in their mother tongue. The reasons for this were to obtain more answers from the students and help students feel free and relaxed while answering the questions.

In the light of the answers given by these students, certain teacher motivational behaviors were listed to form the questionnaire. Then, the researcher asked her colleagues about their opinions, and finally after referring to Dörnyei (2001a), Dörnyei and Csizer (1998), Oxford and Shearin (1994) and Williams and Burden (1997), 88 items were identified. These items were classified under five different sub-headings to make the questionnaire more organized and understandable.As part of the content validity, three experts in the field of ELT were asked for their opinions on the items in the survey, and necessary modifications were made on the questionnaire items based on their comments.

In order to ensure the reliability of the questionnaire, it was piloted with 35 students who were later excluded from the actual study. After the reliability scores had been calculated, 26 items which had very low reliability co-efficients were removed from the questionnaire. The last version of the scale consisted of 62 items. Cronbach Alpha reliability co-efficient for each sub-scale and for the overall questionnaire are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Reliability analysis for "Teacher Motivational Behaviors Questionnaire"

	Cronbach Alpha's
Teacher's Lecturing Style (1-36)	.89
Teacher's Personal Features (37-45)	.83
Teacher's Rapport with Students (46-52)	.82
Teacher's Error Correction and Evaluation Techniques (53-57)	.72
Teacher's Giving and Evaluating Homework (58-62)	.85
Cronbach Alpha for 62 items	**.94**

The questionnaire mainly has two parts. The first part aims to gather some demographic information about the participants. The second part consists of 62 five-point Likert-type items. This part aims to gather information about the perceptions of the students regarding 62 teacher motivational items in the questionnaire. These 62 items were classified under five constructs shown in the table above, and the appropriate items were placed under related constructs.

2.2.2. Student interviews

To collect deeper information from the students in terms of teacher behaviors that motivate them most or least, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 19 students. All the students were asked for their consent to take part in the interview. Before the interview, they were informed about the

questions so as to lessen their anxiety. Interviews were carried out in Turkish to make students feel less nervous and express themselves more comfortably. During the interviews, they were asked two questions:

•   What are the most motivating teacher behaviors in the classroom for you? Why are these behaviors motivating for you?

•   What are the least motivating teacher behaviors for you? In other words, can you tell me the behaviors your teacher does very willingly but they do not motivate you a lot? Why are these behaviors not very motivating for you?

The interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. The transcribed data were crosschecked by the researchers to ensure inter-rater reliability. The reported answers were analyzed to find the common and significant themes in the statements. These statements were classified and presented in order to support the findings of the study.

2.3. Data collection and analysis

After examining the questionnaire items carefully, the researcher administered the questionnaire to 314 students with the help of her colleagues. The quantitative data were compiled and then analyzed by using SPSS 17. The data were analyzed through descriptive statistics. For the qualitative data, the common and coherent themes derived from the answers of the students during the interviews were tallied and their frequencies were used in order to identify those opinions coming up in line with the survey results and to support them.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. The most motivating teacher behaviors in English classes

The first research question of the study investigated the most motivating teacher behaviors. The mean scores, standard deviations and the percentages were calculated. Table 2 presents the mean scores, standard deviations and percentages regarding the most motivating teacher behaviors according to the students.

Table 2. The most motivating teacher behaviors according to the students (items having mean score 4.5 and over)

Teacher Behavior	M	SD	%
37. putting a smile on her / his face in the classroom	4.82	.42	98.7
23. taking some breaks when students are mentally exhausted	4.72	.52	97.8
43. having a sense of humor	4.71	.56	96.5
41. being energetic	4.71	.54	96.5
46. creating a relaxing atmosphere in which students can easily exchange ideas	4.71	.53	96.1
54. correcting mistakes with a smiling face and by motivating students	4.68	.52	97.2
48. displaying friendly behaviors where appropriate	4.66	.57	95.3
42. being open to new ideas	4.65	.60	95.2
22. making use of certain topics (music, TV, etc.) that draw students' attention	4.63	.56	96.8
38. using her / his mimes while teaching	4.61	.58	94.6
47. knowing her / his students well	4.58	.61	93.3
40. being affectionate towards her / his profession and having students feel it	4.56	.67	92.1
39. making use of her / his body language while teaching	4.54	.65	90.8
44. giving importance to teacher-student and student-student interaction based on course objectives	4.51	.71	92.7
04. encouraging students to use the language by saying "you can do this"	4.51	.64	92.4

M: Mean, SD: Standard Deviation, %: Percentage of the students perceiving the item as more motivating

As the table shows, the items listed above according to their mean scores were found to be the most motivating teacher behaviors through the eyes of the students.

Table 3. The most motivating teacher behaviors according to student interviews

1. putting a smile on her / his face in the classroom
2. taking some breaks when students are mentally exhausted
3. being affectionate towards her / his profession
4. using her / his mimes and body language while teaching
5. giving positive feedback
6. having a sense of humor
7. being energetic
8. creating a relaxing atmosphere in which students can easily exchange ideas
9. displaying friendly behaviors where appropriate
10. making use of interesting topics (music, TV)

The results of the interviews presented in Table 3 above support the findings of the questionnaire. When Tables 2 and 3 are examined, it can be seen that the teacher motivational behaviors derived from the interviews are consistent with the ones that were found to be the most motivating teacher motivational behaviors based on the questionnaire.

The first research question attempted to find out the most motivating teacher behaviors whose mean scores are 4.5 and over in language classes according to the students. According to the results of the questionnaire, the most motivating teacher behavior was found to be teacher's putting a smile on her / his face in the classroom. The majority of the students considered teacher's having a smiling face as the most motivating teacher behavior. It can be concluded that students get more motivated when they have a teacher who has a smiling face. It can be due to the fact that students feel more relaxed and less nervous when they have a teacher with a smiling face, so their motivation level gets higher. The finding of this study shows parallelism with several studies (Kwelley & Gorham 1988, Richmond, Gorham & McCroskey 1982; cited in Christophel, 1990; Gorham 1988). They also found out that teacher's smiling face contributed to student motivation a lot. On this issue, the results of the interviews with students support the findings. One of the interviewees uttered that:

"When our teacher is positive and smiles, I want to take part in the lesson. However, when our teacher is aggressive, unhappy or sulky, I hesitate to ask any questions or express my ideas."

Another interviewee pointed out that:

"When my teacher is smiling, I feel relaxed. In addition to that, I can ask everything I don't understand about the lesson easily, and I express myself better."

The second most motivating teacher behavior was found to be teacher's taking some breaks when students are mentally exhausted. In language classes, it may sometimes be observed that students get really exhausted during lessons. This result shows that a short break given by the teacher is very motivating during these lessons in order to refresh students. According to Gorham and Christophel (1992)'s study, teacher's confusing students and making them feel bored were found demotivating by the participant students. Thus, it can be concluded from their study that students need breaks and some fun not to get bored during lessons. The quotation of an interviewee in the current study supports this finding. The participant stated that:

"I become very happy and motivated when my teacher takes a break because I feel that s/he understands us and gives importance to our feelings. If our teacher goes on lecturing, I cannot concentrate on what s/he is saying. But, after these breaks, I can continue listening to my teacher willingly again."

Teacher's having a sense of humor was also found to be very motivating by the students. Humor may affect students in a positive way, and help them feel less anxious when learning takes place. Hence, a teacher with a sense of humor might lessen students' prejudices and negative attitudes towards the teacher, learning, and English. Owing to these possible reasons, humor might have been regarded as a motivator by the students. A research study by Gorham and Christophel (1992) reported that teacher's using humor in classroom has a high relationship with student motivation. The participants were asked to list the motivating teacher behaviors, and most of them included teacher's using humor in their favorite list. Related to this finding, here are two quotations of two interviewees:

> "When our teacher tells a joke or talks about funny things, I feel more concentrated. These jokes and stories refresh me and make me laugh, so I feel more energetic and ready for the rest of the lesson."

> "Naturally, after some time, I lose my concentration on the lesson and my teacher, and I start to think about other things. When my teacher tells jokes, s/he draws my attention and I begin to listen to my teacher attentively after laughing and enjoying a little."

Another motivating behavior was found to be teacher's being energetic during the course time. It can be noted that students want to have a teacher who is active and full of energy in the classroom. Indeed, this is very natural; because people are affected positively when a person in the surrounding is energetic. In a study conducted by Top (2009), teacher's being active during class time was also found to be a motivating teacher behavior by the students. For this reason, it can be concluded that a teacher who is energetic transmits her / his positive energy and motivation to the students. On this issue, two participants said that:

> "When my teacher sits at her / his desk, I get easily bored. But, when s/he stands or walks, I pay attention to my teacher more."

> "When my teacher comes near me, I can have the opportunity to ask the things I do not understand and nobody hears the questions I ask because my teacher is just by my side."

Teacher's creating a relaxing atmosphere in which students can easily exchange ideas was also found to be a motivating behavior. Students are individuals, and all individuals would like to express themselves clearly and confidently and they want to be accepted by the people around them. When a teacher creates such a relaxing environment, and students are allowed to express themselves freely, students become more self-confident. When a person becomes more self-confident, that person becomes more motivated and willing in that environment. Thus, in this context, students get more motivated and eager in the classroom when they have a teacher who facilitates learning by preparing the appropriate setting. This result isin line with the opinions of Ginot (1972) who maintained teachers should create the emotional climate for learning in order to facilitate student motivation. To support this finding, below is the statement of a participant:

> "When the atmosphere is relaxing, I can say any possible answers that come to my mind. I do not focus on my mistakes, and I do not think whether my answer is true or not. As I am stress-free, I can express myself better."

The students found teacher's correcting mistakes with a smiling face a very motivating teacher behavior. Students come across difficulties while learning a foreign language, and owing to these difficulties they experience stress and sometimes lack of confidence. It is teachers' responsibility to help students in that challenging period and assist them to overcome such difficulties together. In order to help students, a teacher should be present with a smiling face in the role of a motivator while s/he corrects the mistakes of the students. By doing so, students do not feel inferior, but feel that these mistakes are natural and the teacher is with them in the learning process. This behavior was considered to be very motivating by most of the students, and this result indicates similarity with the suggestions of Dörnyei (2001a). Dörnyei suggests that teachers should provide motivational feedback so as to motivate their students. On this issue, an interviewee commented as follows:

"When I answer a question, I feel nervous. Sometimes I know the answer, but because of my anxiety I make mistakes. When my teacher smiles at me or tells me "yes, good job, you can do this" etc, I feel encouraged and believe in myself more. When I believe in myself, I feel more self-initiative and more motivated."

The seventh most motivating teacher behavior was chosen as teacher's displaying friendly behaviors where appropriate according to the answers of all the students. Hence, it can be said that students want to have a teacher who is friendly and sincere where appropriate. They do not want to see their teacher as an authoritarian figure but a friendly figure. It may be because of the fact that when a teacher displays friendly behaviors, students feel more relaxed and less stressful and nervous. Thus, they can express themselves better, and their affective filter becomes lower with the help of the friendly behaviors of the teacher. Accordingly, learning takes place better in that situation. This finding shows parallelism with the following studies. Gorham and Christophel (1992)'s study indicated friendly attitude of teachers was found to be a very motivating teacher behavior by the students taking part in the study. The studies carried out by Vural (2007) and Top (2009) also supported the result of this study. In both studies, teacher's being friendly was regarded as a very motivating teacher behavior by the students. On this issue, a student said that:

"A teacher is very important in a student's life. So, if my teacher is friendly, I feel relaxed and I can express myself better. I do not get afraid of making mistakes."

According to the data, teacher's being open to new ideas was considered to be very motivating. It may be said that students do not want to have a teacher who is self-monitored and too strict. Besides, they do not want a teacher who decides, initiates, and activates things in the classroom. Instead of this, students want a teacher who is open to new ideas and gives importance to students' ideas. Davis (1993) stated that, when possible, teachers should allow students to have an idea in selecting the next topic to be studied. If a teacher is open to the options and ideas of the students, students get happier and more motivated. A student stated that:

"A teacher should be open to new ideas. It means that the teacher is not arrogant, and gives importance to students' ideas. It also means that this teacher gives importance to the students."

Another student commented that:

"A teacher knows a lot of things, okay, but sometimes there are some occasions in which the teacher is not aware of what we like or dislike. Hence, in these cases, students can suggest an idea and if the teacher sees it valuable and accepts, students think that the teacher loves them and sees them as individuals."

Teacher's making use of certain topics (music, TV, etc.) that draw students' attention was seen as a motivating behavior by the students. It means that students become more motivated when their teacher incorporates interesting topics into the course. It might be owing to the fact that the interesting topics draw students' attention and when students get interested in the course they become more motivated and eager to learn. Gorham and Christophel (1992) found that interesting topics increased student motivation. Dörnyei (1994) also suggested certain strategies to motivate students, and one of these motivational strategies was increasing the attractiveness of the course content. Teachers can increase the attractiveness of the course content by incorporating interesting, attractive and motivating topics that affect students positively, and in turn, enhance student motivation. An interviewee said that:

"My present teacher integrates latest movies, music and dramas into her lesson, and now I know lots of things about it. I am more knowledgeable and aware of what is going on around me and around the world now."

Another interviewee uttered that:

"I really like talking about music and films. I often talk about these issues with my friends. It is more exciting to do this with a foreign language. It is very enjoyable and interesting to mention this in English. These topics draw my attention."

Another very motivating behavior was considered to be teacher's using her / his mimes while teaching. In other words, teacher's making use of her / his mimes while lecturing makes students motivated. The reason of this may be that students understand better when teacher's mimes escort her / his lecturing. Chesebro and McCroskey (2001) stated that instructional research has determined the use of gestures as an effective teacher behavior. Besides, in Hsu (2010)'s study with 303 Taiwanese students, the participants chose teacher's mimes and gestures while talking to the class as a motivating behavior. One of the interviewees supported this finding by saying:

"Especially when my teacher is lecturing in English, her / his facial expressions help me a lot. Her / his mimes accompany what s/he is talking about, and by making connections between her / his mimes and statements I can understand better."

The other very motivating teacher behaviors were teacher's knowing her / his students well, being affectionate towards her / his profession and having students feel it, making use of her / his body language while teaching, giving importance to teacher-student and student-student interaction based on course objectives, and lastly encouraging students to use the language by saying "you can do this". Gorham and Christophel (1992) found teacher's enthusiasm for teaching and teacher's good comments and positive responses about students increased student motivation. Velez and Cano (2008) found teacher's body language is an effective factor in student motivation, and they also found that encouraging students to talk and use the language in language classrooms is a motivator for students. In parallel with these results, one of the students said that:

"If my teacher is enthusiastic about what s/he is doing, I become more enthusiastic and motivated. I understand that my teacher is happy with what s/he is doing. Besides, when my teacher is fond of her / his job, s/he is also fond of teaching. When s/he does her / his job eagerly, I believe that I can learn because s/he will make plenty of efforts to teach me instead of giving up."

Another student uttered that:

"I want my teacher to know and care about me. When my teacher asks me how I am, whether I am happy or unhappy in my personal life, and when s/he talks to me about ordinary things, I feel very happy. I can understand that my teacher loves me, and I am important for her / him. Thus, I participate in the lesson more as I feel more responsible towards my teacher."

Another student said that:

"For example, when our teacher is teaching something and s/he is speaking English, I cannot understand it. However, when s/he makes use of her mimes and body language, I try to combine her/his behaviors with the topic studied that day. So, I understand better."

3.2. The least motivating teacher behaviors in English classes

The second research question attempted to reveal the least motivating teacher behaviors and the results of the questionnaire are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. The least motivating teacher behaviors according to the students (items having mean score below 4)

Teacher Behavior	M	SD	%
20. always lecturing in English	3.02	1.29	45.5
8. giving importance to seating for effective language teaching	3.22	.89	30.9
59. giving homework regularly	3.29	1.17	52.5
25. encouraging students to make oral presentations in English about various topics (depending on the topic studied)	3.57	1.04	59.5
18. emphasizing the importance of English frequently	3.61	1.07	54.5

29. giving information about English and American culture in the class hour	3.67	1.06	55.4
58. stating the objectives of homework s/he gives	3.72	.86	68.1
30. stating the objectives and steps of the lesson at the beginning of the lesson	3.85	.82	67.2
60. giving importance to homework that help students learn and improve themselves autonomously	3.86	1.01	72.6
15. encouraging students to take part actively during the lesson	3.87	1.00	71.4
11. encouraging students to display their products created during classroom activities	3.90	.91	68.1
61. assessing students' homework on time and giving feedback	3.91	1.02	73.9
10. giving equal importance to each and every learning experience in the class	3.97	.84	73.5
50. being aware of some big events in students' lives	3.98	.96	65.3
6. sharing her / his rules and expectations about her /his lecturing style frankly with the students at the beginning of the term	3.98	.83	72.6
45. using time efficiently	3.99	.96	76.1

M: Mean, SD: Standard Deviation, %: Percentage of the students perceiving the item as less motivating

The behaviors listed in the table above according to their mean scores were perceived as the least motivating teacher behaviors by the students. The items whose mean scores are below 4 were identified as the least motivating teacher behaviors. As the items in the questionnaire are all motivational behaviors, it seemed that the participants did not tend to use 2 (It decreases my motivation) and 1 (It diminishes my motivation) categories in the questionnaire a lot while indicating their opinions.

The findings of the interviews in Table 5 below showed that majority of the students found giving homework regularly not very motivating. Most of the students uttered that stating the objectives and steps of the lesson at the beginning of the lesson had a less motivating effect on them. Some of them stated that they found always lecturing in English not very effective and motivating. Few of them stated that giving importance to seating had a less motivating effect on them. These teacher behaviors are in parallel with the results of the questionnaire. Furthermore, the students uttered some more teacher behaviors which they thought not very motivating. These teacher behaviors were posing immediate questions to the students, lecturing all the time in order to cover the topics of that week, changing her / his tone of voice during lecturing, allocating plenty of time to vocabulary activities, making use of group activities, and revising homework in detail during course time.

Table 5. The least motivating teacher behaviors according to student interviews

1. giving homework regularly
2. stating the objectives and steps of the lesson at the beginning of the lesson
3. always lecturing in English
4. giving importance to seating
5. posing immediate questions to the students
6. lecturing all the time in order to cover the topics of that week
7. changing her / his tone of voice during lecturing
8. allocating plenty of time to vocabulary activities
9. making use of group activities
10. revising homework in detail during course time

The second research question looked into the least motivating teacher behaviors according to learners. The results showed that the least motivating teacher behavior was teacher's always lecturing in English. Thus, it can be concluded that students want to expose to their mother tongue more rather than the target language. They may think that when they are taught via target language, they will not understand anything; and as a result, they cannot learn that language. However, if a teacher uses their

mother tongue, they may feel safer and more self-confident for learning. This result shows parallelism with the result of Vural (2007)'s study. She also displayed that the participants found teacher's speaking English as one of the least motivating behaviors. On this issue, one student said that:

> "When my teacher uses 100 % English, I am afraid that I am not going to understand my teacher. As I have fear, I cannot become very motivated and eager to pay attention to what my teacher is saying."

The second least motivating teacher behavior for the students was teacher's giving importance to seating for effective language teaching. It can be noted that teacher's forming seating arrangement in the classroom is not very important for the students. It means that wherever the students are seated, it does not play an important role in motivating them. This result does not collide with the utterances of Levin and Nolan (1996). They stated that by carefully arranging seats in the classroom, teachers can increase and facilitate learning. Despite their positive sentences about seating, the participant students in this study did not see seating as a very motivating and beneficial factor.

Homework provided by the teachers regularly was also identified as another least motivating teacher behavior by the students. That means regular homework does not give a positive feeling to the students. They may think that they are under regular pressure, and regular homework bores them and puts them under stress.

> "I hate doing homework every day. Sometimes I want to study English for fun just because I want to study. However, as I have regular homework and I have to do it, I feel totally stressed and even sometimes angry."

The students also thought that teachers' encouraging students to make oral presentations in English about various topics (depending on the topic studied) is one of the least motivating behaviors. As oral presentations increase their stress level, they do not find it very motivating. One of the participants supported this by pointing out that;

> "Making oral presentations is very beneficial for us to be good at our jobs and expressing ourselves better. However, it is also very stressful. Before my presentation, I cannot listen to my friends' presentations. I just focus on mine and repeat what I am going to say when I stand up."

Another interviewee uttered that:
"Before presentations, I am so stressed that I cannot breathe thoroughly, I feel as if I am going to faint."

Another least motivating teacher behavior was teacher's emphasizing the importance of English frequently. Students' answers displayed that students do not feel very motivated when the teacher often talks about the positive sides of learning English. That behavior of teacher may lead them towards more responsibilities, and may remind them to give more importance to learning and they should take learning English more seriously. Simply, being reminded of their responsibilities frequently by their teacher might make the students nervous and stressed. As a result of these possible reasons, teacher's often saying that English is crucial was not found very motivating by the students. Vural (2007)'s study also indicated that teacher's talking about the benefits of English was regarded as one of the least motivating teacher behavior by the students. One participant supported this finding saying that:

> "I already know that English is important. So, I am here in preparatory class to learn English. However, when my teacher frequently says that it is important, I get bored, and it does not motivate me a lot to study more enthusiastically."

Another student stressed that:

> "I already know that English is important and I am a hardworking and responsible student. However, when my teacher often reminds me the benefits of English, I have the impression that s/he does not know how often I study English. I believe that how often I study is not enough for her and s/he is trying to push us, but I am doing my best. So, what s/he says does not have much effect on me."

The sixth least motivating teacher behavior was teacher's giving information about English and American culture in the class hour. According to the answers of the participants, it is apparent that students are not interested in the culture of the language they are learning. Maybe it is due to the fact that they do not see learning the rules of a language and the culture of it as a whole, but rather see them separately. Hence, they may see learning the culture of the target language as not very important and helpful in their learning process. It may also be because of the exams. As the questions in the exams are not about culture, they do not find it very important and motivating.

In addition to these results, the students found teacher's stating the objectives of homework s/he gives as not a very motivating teacher behavior. It can be concluded that according to the students, the objectives of the given homework is not so important and motivating. In other words, the reason why their teacher gives that homework does not motivate them positively, or make them eager and enthusiastic for learning.

Another behavior which was regarded as one of the least motivating teacher behaviors by the students was teacher's stating the objectives and steps of the lesson at the beginning of the lesson. Like in the previous teacher behavior (teacher's stating the objectives of homework s/he gives), students do not seem to be very interested in learning the objectives of the lesson. Learning the objectives of that lesson does not make them motivated and eager. This teacher behavior and the previous teacher behavior, which is teacher's stating the objectives of homework s/he gives, were not found very motivating by the students. It can be concluded that the participant students are not very willing to hear what will happen next, and they do not want to have awareness about learning. These results do not agree with the commandment of Dörnyei and Csizer (1998). They stated in "Ten commandments" that one of the ways to enhance student motivation is to increase the learners' goal-orientedness. However, in this study it seems that the students are not very interested in being goal-oriented.
Teacher's giving importance to homework that helps students learn and improve themselves autonomously was found to be one of the least motivating teacher behaviors. It means that students do not find the homework given by their teacher to develop their autonomy very motivating. A student commented that:

> "We have already 25 hours of English every week. We are already exposed to English a lot. When my teacher gives us a lot of homework, I do not feel very motivated and happy."

Another item in that list was teacher's encouraging students to take part actively during the lesson. The students thought that teacher's effort to encourage the students to take part in the lesson was not very motivating. They may feel that they are forced to do something; hence, they lose their motivation and willingness during the course time. This result shows contrast with the one provided by Gorham and Christophel (1992)'s study in which the learners perceived that behavior as a motivating one. The difference between these two studies indicates that the different learner groups may perceive the same behavior differently.

The other least motivating teacher behaviors whose mean scores are below 4 were teacher's encouraging students to display their products created during classroom activities, assessing students' homework on time and giving feedback, giving equal importance to each and every learning experience in the class, being aware of some big events in students' lives, sharing her / his rules and expectations about her / his lecturing style frankly with the students at the beginning of the term, and

finally using time efficiently. It is clear that the participants considered these teacher behaviors not very motivating. Thus, it can be concluded that the students do not give much importance to teacher's encouragement to display their products created during classroom activities. The reason may be that they do not want their friends to see their own products. The fear of being criticized by their friends might be behind this unwillingness. They may be afraid of the fact that their classmates have the opportunity to see their mistakes if they display their own products; so they are not very fond of showing them. The participants also do not give much importance to teacher's assessing students' homework on time and giving feedback, teacher's giving equal importance to each and every learning experience in the class, teacher's being aware of some big events in students' lives, teacher's sharing her / his rules and expectations about her /his lecturing style frankly with the students at the beginning of the term, and teacher's using time efficiently.

4. Conclusion and suggestions for implication

This study focused on students' perceptions of several teacher motivational behaviors in language classes and certain remarkable effects of these behaviors on student motivation. The results and findings of this study are significant for teachers and the field. With the help of this study, teachers can have the opportunity to have an idea about very motivating teacher behaviors according to the students. Table 6 presents some suggestions based on the results of the questionnaire and the interviews.

Table 6: Suggestions for teachers to motivate students in language classrooms

1. put a smile on your face in the classroom

2. take some breaks when students are tired or bored

3. have a sense of humor

4. be energetic

5. create a relaxing atmosphere in which students can easily exchange ideas very motivating

6. correct mistakes with a smiling face and by motivating

7. display friendly behaviors where appropriate

8. be open to new ideas

9. make use of certain topics (music, TV, etc.) that draw students' attention

10. use your mimes and your body language while teaching

11. know your students well

12. be affectionate towards your job

13. give importance to teacher-student and student-student interaction based on course objectives

14. give positive feedback such as smiling and verbal praises

15. inform your students that mistakes are natural during learning process

16. inform your students about the learning strategies for better learning

17. try hard for students to have positive attitudes towards learning a language

18. call students by their first names instead of "you"

19. do warm-up activities at the beginning of the lesson

20. make use of activities such as games, songs and participating in these activities

The behaviours listed above are perceived as the most motivating teacher behaviours in language classrooms. These results are significant in the sense that they are derived from students' ideas. By taking all these behaviors into consideration, language teachers may have more opportunities to motivate their students, to create more relaxed atmosphere in their classes and to have a more fruitful language teaching process.

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Yabancı dil sınıflarında motive edici öğretmen davranışları: Öğrencilerin Algısı

Öz

Bu çalışma yabancı dil sınıflarında en çok ve en az motive edici öğretmen davranışlarını ve bunların potansiyel etkilerini üniversite öğrencileri açısından incelemektedir. Çalışmaya bir devlet üniversitesinin İngilizce hazırlık programındaki 314 öğrenci katılmıştır. Veriler katılımcılara uygulanan bir anketle toplanmış ve öğretmen davranışlarıyla ilgili daha fazla veri toplamak için 19 öğrenciyle de görüşme yapılmıştır. Nitel veriler tanımlayıcı istatistiklerle analiz edilmiş, nitel verilerin analizinde ise içerik analizi yönteminden faydalanılmıştır. Sonuçlar, motive edici öğretmen davranışlarıyla ilgili önemli bilgiler ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca, elde edilen sonuçlar çerçevesinde sunulan bilgilerin öğretmenlere sınıf ortamında rehberlik edeceği düşünülmektedir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Motivasyon; motive edici öğretmen davranışları; Türk öğrenciler

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Dynamic assessment versus static assessment: A study of reading comprehension ability in Iranian EFL learners

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Abstract

This study extends traditional or static assessment of reading comprehension in foreign language contexts and applies dynamic assessment (DA) to the development of learners' reading ability. To homogenize the research population (N= 250), an Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was administered. On the basis of the test results, the population was sorted into three groups of reading-low, reading-mid, and reading-high students. The participants of this study were a sample of 30 participants with the lowest level of reading comprehension proficiency randomly assigned into two groups of control and experimental. This study was conducted in the Nosrat Institute, located in Kermanshah Province in 2012. In order to determine their current zone or level of reading proficiency, a TOEFL reading comprehension pre-test was administered to both groups. Afterwards, DA training was applied to the EG in 9 successive 80-minute sessions on reading comprehension, Unlike EG, static assessment was applied to the CG. In the end, another TOEFL reading comprehension post-test was administered to the research groups to measure their reading comprehension performance level after their treatment. The statistical data analysis revealed that DA was statistically more significant and effective for the low skilled readers than static assessment.

Keywords: Assessment; dynamic assessment; static assessment; zone of proximal development; reading comprehension ability

1. Introduction

This paper lies in an interdisciplinary field of applied linguistics that includes second language acquisition, language pedagogy and sociocultural theory, as proposed by Russian psychologist and educator Lev Semenovich Vygotsky. More specially, it investigates the pedagogical application of Dynamic Assessment (hereafter DA), a testing approach nurtured by Vygotsky's theory to reading comprehension.

Given the varied and often conflicting responsibilities teachers face daily, it is not surprising that assessment issues may prompt an exasperated, "Why do we assess anyway?" Students frequently echo this frustration when they are required to undergo regular assessment in order to demonstrate mastery of content or competency to pass to the next level of instruction. Questioning the purpose of assessment may seem rhetorical since it has become as naturalized a part of everyday life as television and supermarkets. Nevertheless, assessment specialists are increasingly reflecting on the reasons behind specific assessment practices as well as the role of assessment in society. Traditionally, assessment is

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benignly described as an information-gathering activity (e.g., Bailey, 1996). For instance, McNamara (2004) explains that we assess in order to gain insights into learners' level of knowledge or ability. From this perspective, it is difficult to understand why educators, including second language (L2) teachers, often refer to assessment as "a necessary evil."

Changes in language teaching methods have always brought about changes in language testing and assessment. As expected such changes in language teaching orientation did not leave the assessment orientation untouched and along with teaching methods their corresponding testing or assessment systems also moved from product-oriented to process-oriented ones. But still as a result of focusing on wide-spread and commonly used product-oriented testing, teachers and assessors have no access to the needed information on performance of different learners because the only data provided for them by product-oriented testing is the final result of that test as a single score and nothing about the details of test task performance is in hand.

To solve this problem, DA in language learning derived from sociocultural theory (SCT) of Vygotsky and his idea on cognitive development offers new insights into assessment in the language classroom by revealing hidden aspects of individuals' abilities in answering each test item. While the results of traditional non-dynamic assessment (NDA) or Static Assessment (hereafter SA) can only show the already existent abilities of the student, the analysis of zone of proximal development (hereafter ZPD) makes it possible to evaluate the ability of the student to learn from the interaction with a teacher or a more competent peer and predict their possible future development. Vygotsky (1978) defined ZPD as the distance between a child's "actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving" and the higher level revealed in "potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more able peers" (p. 86). Unaided performance on static measures tells us what has already been learned or accomplished, whereas the breadth of ZPD is thought to provide prospective indications of what can be learned. While studying the development of children's mental abilities, Vygotsky (1978) observed that what a child is able to do independently only displays the tip of iceberg, that is, a partial picture of child's full capability, because the child can often do more when just a bit of assistance, or mediation, is offered by someone else. According to Vygotsky, what the child is able to do automatically shows a view of the child's past development, but what the child is able to achieve with mediation, provides insights into the child's future development. The mediator facilitates learning, allowing the access and the unfolding cognitive functions that the subject has not yet mastered: "… what the child can do today with the help of an adult, it will do tomorrow without any help" (Vygotsky, 1979, as cited in María del Carmen Malbrán; Claudia M. Villar, 2002, p.2)

This study intends to investigate that whether making strategies awareness (mediation) at the particular level of examinees cognitive development can assist examinees to figure out and to apply those strategies that potentially exist in their cognitive structures as capabilities, but never explicitly emerged in their true abilities. To put it another way, this study investigates the feasibility of the development and implementation of the DA procedures in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). The results of the study may illustrate whether dynamic procedure provides any information on students' learning over and beyond what is available from SA.

The present study in the domain of DA investigated reading comprehension performance of 30 Iranian EFL students in Nosrat Institute in Kermanshah whose age ranged from 16 to 20. They were high school students or college students attempting to learn English as a foreign language. There were thirty students enrolled in the course, and participated in the entire research process who were evenly divided in to two experimental and control groups. The major question is whether DA training affects the individual's reading comprehension performance.

2. Literature Review

The theoretical roots of Dynamic Assessment lie in Vygotsky's sociocultural theory of child development (Vygotsky,1986) in which the role of the parent, career, teacher, sibling, or peer, in interacting with the individual child, is seen as fundamental to the formation and growth of cognitive skills, which are culturally mediated through these interactions.

One of the fundamental concepts of sociocultural theory, according to Lantolf (2000), is its claim that the human mind is mediated. Lantolf claims that Vygotsky finds a significant role for what he calls 'tools' in humans' understanding of the world and of themselves. According to him, Vygotsky advocates that humans do no tact directly on the physical world without the intermediary of tools. Whether symbolic or signs, tools according to Vygotsky are artifacts created by humans under specific cultural (culture specific) and historical conditions, and as such they carry with them the characteristics of the culture in question. They are used as aids in solving problems that cannot be solved in the same way in their absence. In turn, they also exert an influence on the individuals in that they give rise to previously unknown activities and previously unknown ways of conceptualizing phenomena in the world. Therefore, they are subject to modification as they are passed from one generation to the next, and each generation reworks them in order to meet the needs and aspirations of its individuals and communities. Vygotsky advocates that the role of a psychologist should be to understand how human social and mental activity is organized through culturally constructed artifacts.

According to Vygotsky (1978 cited in Lantolf 2000), the sociocultural environment presents the child with a variety of tasks and demands, and engages the child in his world through the tools. In the early stages, Vygotsky claims that the child is completely dependent on other people, usually the parents, who initiate the child's actions by instructing him/her as to what to do, how to do it, as well as what not to do. Parents, as representatives of the culture and the conduit through which the culture passes into the child, actualize these instructions primarily through language. On the question of how do children then appropriate these cultural and social heritages, Vygotsky (1978 cited Wertsch 1985) states that the child acquires knowledge through contacts and interactions with people as the first step (interpsychological plane), then later assimilates and internalizes this knowledge adding his personal value to it (interpsychological plane).This transition from social to personal property according to Vygotsky is not a mere copy, but a transformation of what had been learnt through interaction, into personal values. Vygotsky claims that this is what also happens in schools. Students do not merely copy teachers capabilities; rather they transform what teachers offer them during the processes of appropriation.

Vygotsky (1978 cited in Lantolf 1994, 2002) argues that the field of psychology has deprived itself of crucial information to the understanding of complex aspects of human behavior by refusing to study consciousness. This refusal, according to him, has restricted the role of psychology to just the explanation of the most elementary connections between a living being and the world. Consciousness in his view distinguishes human behavior from other living beings and links the individual's knowledge to his/her behavior. It arises, functions and develops in the process of people's interaction with reality on the basis of their socio-historical practices. He insists that socially meaningful activity has to be considered as the explanatory principle for understanding consciousness and he rejects any attempt to decouple consciousness from behavior.

Lantolf et al. (1994) indicate that the latter understanding of consciousness in the field of teaching is embodied in the concept of metacognition, which, according to him, incorporates functions such as planning, voluntary attention, logical memory, problem solving and evaluation. Williams and Burden (1997) claim that sociocultural theory advocates that education should be concerned "not just with theories of instruction, but with learning to learn, developing skills and strategies to continue to learn, with making learning experiences meaningful and relevant to the individual, with developing and

growing as a whole person". They claim that the theory asserts that education can never be value-free; it must be underpinned by a set of beliefs about the kind of society that is being constructed and the kinds of explicit and implicit messages that will best convey those beliefs. These beliefs should be manifest also in the ways in which teachers interact with students.

Sociocultural theory has a holistic view about the act of learning. Williams & Burden (1997) claim that the theory opposes the idea of the discrete teaching of skills and argues that meaning should constitute the central aspects of any unit of study. Any unit of study should be presented in all its complexity rather than skills and knowledge presented in isolation. The theory emphasizes the importance of what the learner brings to any learning situation as an active meaning-maker and problem-solver. It acknowledges the dynamic nature of the interplay between teachers, learners and tasks and provides a view of learning as arising from interactions with others. According to Ellis (2000), sociocultural theory assumes that learning arises not through interaction but in interaction. Learners first succeed in performing a new task with the help of another person and then internalize this task so that they can perform it on their own. In this way, social interaction is advocated to mediate learning. According to Ellis, the theory goes further to say interactions that successfully mediate learning are those in which the learners scaffold the new tasks. However, one of the most important contributions of the theory is the distinction Vygotsky made between the child's actual and potential levels of development or what he calls Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) defined as the distance between learners' existing developmental state and their potential development. Put another way, the ZPD describes tasks that a learner has not yet learned but is capable of learning with appropriate stimuli. The ZPD is an important facet of sociocultural theory because it describes tasks "that child cannot yet do alone but could do with the assistance of more component peers or adults" (Karpov & Haywood, 1998).

Vygotsky claimed that instruction and assessment are only good when they promote development and stimulate a range of functions that are ripening within the ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky's understanding of instruction and development of cognitive abilities served as the basis for creation of educational approaches that seek to target learners' ZPD. According to Vygotsky, the development of the child involves the appropriation of humans' cultural experience in collaboration with adults and includes two levels, i.e. actual level and potential level of development. The actual level presumes the child's independent -problem solving and corresponds to zone of actual development. The potential level of development presupposes adult-child collaboration during problem-solving activities. These learning activities are intended to reveal the child's abilities that are in the process of maturation. The potential level is associated with the ZPD and is understood by Vygotsky as: the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent   problem-solving and the level of potential development as determined by problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86).

Simply put, for Vygotsky, exploring what the child [the learner] can do independently, one explores the previous or actual level of child's [the learner's] development. But exploring what the child [the learner] is able to do with a more –skilled other (e.g. parents, peers, teachers), one can determine the child's [the learner] potential development.

In his works, Vygotsky demonstrated that the ZPD of mentally retarded children is fairly small and for this reason, they have a limited capacity to appropriate assistance. However, this capacity may be quite significant among children with temporary development retardation. Within the testing framework, the ability to use adults' assistance as well as the ability to internalize this assistance and to transfer it to independent problem-solving is viewed as a positive diagnostic sign. This sign indicates that given child is not mentally retarded and that an appropriate instructional intervention can help the child overcome temporary mental retardation.

Lidz and Gindis (2003) state, "DA is an approach to understanding individual differences and their implications for instruction that embeds intervention within the assessment procedure. The focus of most dynamic assessment procedures is on the process rather than on the product of learning" (p. 99).In other words, in DA the mediator seeks to improve learner performance through modification of student activity. This interaction focuses on learner behavior and learner receptivity to mediation (Lidz, 1991).

Feuerstein, Rand and Hoffman (1979) suggested that DA differs from traditional standardized methods of psychological and psycho-educational assessment on several dimensions: Tzuriel summarizes them as follows: (Seng et al. 2003)

2.1. Experiments on Dynamic Assessment

A statistical analysis of the pretest and posttest scores revealed that students did more than one standard deviation better on the posttest than they did on the pretest. This shows, according to Kozulin and Garb (2002), mediation was beneficial to students and that they were able to apply the strategies to which they were exposed in the mediation phase to novel situations. Moreover there was a negative correlation between the gain scores and pretest scores. In the opinion of the authors, this shows pretest scores do not reflect the students learning potential but rather their actual development.

The study revealed that pretest scores do not accurately explain a student's ability to learn reading comprehension strategies. In fact, a closer examination of student scores reveals that students, who would have been classified at the same ability level according to a traditional placement test, instead have different developmental needs concerning text comprehension abilities.

Campione and Brown (1987) as cited in (Haywood and Lidz, 2007) have been pioneers in their attempts to assess specific academic domains in the framework of DA. Although primarily known for their highly structured approach to DA of mathematics learning, they, and primarily their student Palinscar, also designed a highly clinical appraisal of reading in the context of their reciprocal teaching model (Palinscar & Brown, 1984). Students are observed during reading comprehension groups regarding their abilities to summarize, formulate questions, clarify inconsistencies, and predict what will happen next. The teacher initially models these skills, increasingly releasing the role of group leader to the students. During this process, the teacher continues to model and provides feedback and prompts to enhance the students' development of competence. The possibilities for transfer are maximized because the activities take place in the context to which they are to apply (Campione & Brown, 1985). There is no formal prescription for these interactions and no structure for recording of observations, although it would not be difficult to devise informal ratings or formats for anecdotal records.

Ruijssenaars andOud(1987, in Hamers, Pennings,&Guthke, 1994) as cited in (Haywood and Lidz, 2007), also pioneers in this area, studied a long-term procedure in which they compared the effects of two reading programs with groups of kindergarten children. Intervention was provided by the classroom teacher during fifteen 10-minute sessions. The students were given pretests, as well as posttests that followed each of the lessons, a retention test 2 weeks following the completion of the sessions, and a reading speed test 5 months after completion of the sessions. The researchers found that 49% of the

variance in the final criterion measure could be accounted for by the posttests from the final learning session.

Tissink, Hamers, and Van Luit (1993) as cited in (Haywood and Lidz, 2007) applied their learning potential model to specific academic domains, including reading and spelling. Using a pretest–intervention–posttest format, these researchers sought to produce information that would predict later school achievement, profile strengths and weaknesses in children's cognitive functioning, and provide information relevant to classroom instruction. Their domain-specific procedure relevant to both reading and spelling is the Auditory Analysis Test. The components of this procedure include memory for sentences, auditory segmentation of words in a sentence and syllables within a word, "objectivation," to indicate which of two words is the longer and repeating a word leaving out one syllable, isolation of the first phoneme of words, and phonemic analysis segmenting words into their phonemes. Both pretest and posttest consist of 40 items, with 15 transfer items added to the posttest. The intervention offers a series of nonstandardized prompts (repeated presentation, revelation of item structure, provision of solution strategy, and modeling) that are offered as needed in response to learner errors. This procedure is appropriate for children in kindergarten and first grade, or any other children who are in the early stages of reading development. The authors provide data regarding construct, concurrent, and predictive validity; item analysis; and reliability. The domain specific tests were found to be better predictors of school achievement than the domain-general. Also, learning curves of the students differed per domain; that is, there did not seem to be a general trait of learning potential; rather, domain-specific responsiveness to intervention.

The Abbott, Reed, Abbott, and Berninger (1997) study of 16 second graders with severe reading and writing disabilities offers yet another approach within the broader DA model. These authors framed their study within the concept of "response to intervention" using growth curves as measures, with their tutorial intervention spanning a full program year. The tutorial targeted orthographic and phonological awareness, accuracy and fluency of word recognition and comprehension monitoring, handwriting fluency, spelling, and composing. The sessions began during the summer with 1-hour twice-weekly meetings over the course of 8 weeks; this continued through the school year with 1-hour once-weekly individual meetings over an average of 36.5 weeks. The lessons were standardized and scripted. This study showed gains beyond chance for most of the children on most of the measures but also showed their differential responses to the treatment. The results also generated individualized recommendations for their next school year.

2.2. Statement of the problem

Reading comprehension occupies a vital role in achieving success in all areas of life, in general, and academic life, in particular. Reading comprehension is a complex construct involving multi-level processes. In order to comprehend successfully, that is, to gain meaning from written text for a particular purpose, the reader must engage in various processes at the word-, sentence- and text level. The reader is required to identify a series of letters as a word, access the meaning of words and integrate individual

word meanings or sentence meanings into coherent sentence- and text-level representations (Best, Rowe, Ozuru and McNamara, 2005). Due to the intricacy of these prerequisites for effective comprehension is often the area where students with learning disabilities experience the most difficulty. Some of the problems for comprehending written texts originate from the traditional or Static Assessment (hereafter SA) in which the examiner is a neutral or "objective" participant who provides only standardized direction and does not give performance-contingent feedback. Indeed, the traditional assessment examiner is often explicitly discouraged from making any statements that may alter the independent achievement of the students.

Among the specific procedures currently used for reading placement are the informal reading inventory, basal placement tests, and standardized achievement tests. Each uses a static testing paradigm, a paradigm where a student's level of functioning is determined independently of any social interaction between the student and teacher. The teacher, following standardized procedure, administers these tests which presumably provide an objective measure of the student's reading ability. This test paradigm treats reading ability as a discrete, decontextualized trait. The students are allowed no support or aids throughout the testing period. The students cannot ask friends or the teacher how to pronounce a word or look at other resources to help determine the answer. These static tests, while useful for measuring what the students can read and understand without support, do not indicate the levels of reading materials that students can read with teacher support. Further, under the static paradigm, no information is provided regarding the amount or types of instruction needed to maintain adequate reading progress within the context of a reading lesson.

Bransford, Delcos, Vye, Burns and Haselbring (1987) described three reasons for moving away from traditional assessment or SA and moving toward Dynamic Assessment (hereafter DA). First, traditional assessment is only concerned with the products rather than processes of learning. Second, it fails to address each child's responsiveness to instruction because it is based on the premise that prior learning adequately predicts future performance. Third, it does not provide prescriptive information for designing potentially effective instruction. In other words, traditional assessment focuses on the product rather than the process of learning. It also emphasizes the outcomes rather than the strategies for learning and offers no information on the child's responsiveness to teaching, learner's future learning potential, or pedagogical needs. In line with these reasons, Jitendra and Kameenui (1993) argued that the failure of SA has prompted researchers to search for new assessment approaches designed to be more responsive to individual learner's potential strengths and weaknesses. The reason is traditional assessment is not designed to evaluate specific instructional strategies for remediation of learning deficits. It also does not recognize the learner's potential to succeed with adequate environmental support. To help alleviate this dissatisfaction with traditional assessment, many researchers have attempted to focus on DA to provide more information about the individual's learning ability. DA has emerged from both theoretical conceptions about human cognitive plasticity and practical needs to find novel diagnostic measures for children, unable to reveal their capacities in traditional assessment. On the other hand, Cioffi and Carney (1983) argued that SA procedures are best at evaluating the students' knowledge of skills, but insufficient for estimating the students' learning potential and provide little help for identifying the conditions under which the progress can be made. Finally, Lunt (1993) stated that the intention of traditional assessment or SA is to measure actual development, which is often subsequently confused with and used as measures of potential. DA procedures, on the other hand, involve a dynamic interactive exploration of the learner's learning and thinking processes, and aim to investigate a learner's strategies for learning and ways in which these strategies may be extended or enhanced. Since it offers individuals an opportunity to learn, DA has the potential to show important information about individual strategies and processes of learning. Therefore DA offers potentially useful suggestions about teaching. In sum, comparisons of SA versus DA could be described as in Table 1.

Table 1. Comparisons of static assessment versus dynamic assessment

Static Assessment	Dynamic Assessment
Examiner is an observer	Examiner is a participant
Examinee receives no mediation	Examinee receives mediation
Diagnosis ≠ Instruction	Diagnosis = Instruction
Focused on product	Focused on both process and product
Retrospective approach	Prospective approach
Decontextualized	Contextualized
Low transfer test ≠ Authentic task	High transfer test = Authentic task

DA procedures involve a dynamic interactive exploration of a learner's learning and thinking process and aim to investigate a learner's strategies for learning and ways in which these may be extended or enhanced. Since it offers individuals an opportunity to learn, DA has the potential to show important information about individual strategies and processes of learning and, therefore, to offer potentially useful suggestions about teaching.

While transferring DA techniques from purely cognitive functions to content learning (like language) certain factors must be born in mind. Unlike general cognitive functions associated with content-neutral logical reasoning that are to be fluid and amenable to change, the functions associated with reading are usually described as "crystallized" (Kozuiln and Garb, 2002) and resistant to short term changes. In the field of EFL reading comprehension, standard reading tests contain a large amount of materials (e.g., vocabulary and grammar for production), comprehension of which depends on students' previous knowledge rather than cognitive functioning (Kozuiln and Garb, 2002). Whereas DA tests of general cognition could be constructed by using the material of standard psychometric tests, DA in content areas requires the construction of special materials sensitive to both, more specific materials and more cognitive strategies use.

2.3. Purpose of the study

The purpose of this research is to study the Dynamic Assessment of reading comprehension and investigate whether this kind of assessment can have a positive effect on reading comprehension. Because of dissatisfaction with the use of IQ tests and discrepancy models over the past 10 to 15 years, researchers and educators have been investigating more efficient methods such as DA to improve learning ability.

Since reading is the basis of instruction in a social studies classroom, students must be able to comprehend the main ideas and themes of what they have read. Unfortunately, many students are unable to differentiate between what is important and what is not when they read primary or secondary source materials in class or for homework. Much of the literature states that DA treatment is often seen as useful tools to promote student reading ability.

2.4. Research questions and hypotheses of the study

The researchers investigated the following research questions, their hypotheses, and null hypotheses. The null hypotheses are those used for statistical analysis where significance is set at $p \leqslant .05$ for this investigation.

1. Does Dynamic Assessment (DA) affect Iranian EFL students' reading comprehension performance?

Null Hypothesis 1: Dynamic Assessment (DA) does not affect Iranian EFL students' reading comprehension performance.

To examine the difference in the effects of DA on the research groups before and after the DA treatment, the following two questions, hypotheses, and null hypotheses were also developed:

2. Will the Experimental Group (EG) of the study show any progress from the pre-test to the post-test of the study?
   Null Hypothesis 2: The EG of the study will not show any progress from the pre-test to the post-test of the study.

3. Will the control group of the study show any progress from the pre-test to the post-test of the study?
   Null Hypothesis 3: The Control Group (CG) of the study will not show any progress from the pre-test to the post-test of the study.

To answer these questions, a quasi-experimental research was carried out, including a pre-test (i.e. a TOEFL reading comprehension test), 9 successive 80-minute sessions training oriented towards DA originally designed for the EG and static assessment mainly intended for the CG, and a post-test i.e. a TOEFL reading comprehension test. The training on the use of DA in the EG and the use of SA in the CG provided knowledge of and practice on using GOs and Non-GOs respectively. The pre-test results helped determine the participants' current level of reading comprehension proficiency. The post-test results revealed the students' reading comprehension performance after the DA training. It should be added that the Oxford Placement Test aimed at homogenizing the research participants.

3. Method

The pre-test-intervention-post-test quasi-experimental design was used to investigate the effectiveness of using DA to enhance reading comprehension skill. This kind of design is one of the most frequently used designs in social studies research. It is structured as a pre-test-treatment-post-test experiment. The design of the research study includes four chronologically separate stages: OPT used to homogenize and select the research sample, the TOEFL reading comprehension pre-test intended to determine the current level of reading comprehension of the research participants; the training to use DA in the EG and SA in the CG; and the administration of the TOEFL reading comprehension post-test in order to determine the reading proficiency level of the EG and CG after DA and SA instructional intervention respectively. All the, tests i.e. OPT, pre-test, training, and post-test administered in the classroom setting during regular class time. The participants took the OPT in first class session and the pre-test in the second session, and received DA training in the 9 subsequent, successive class sessions.

The post-test took place in the twelfth class meeting after the training, and it completed the treatment process. As a matter of fact, the study took 12 successive 80-minutes class meetings that is, the first class meeting was for the OPT; the second for the pre-test, from the third to the eleventh were for the training; and the last but not the least was for the post-test). The schedule for participants from the control group, on the other hand, was within the same number of class meetings, but received SA instruction. Because the researchers wanted to investigate the effect of DA on reading comprehension upon those students who have low-reading ability, students were required to have the same achievement level i.e., low-reading ability in reading comprehension. It should be mentioned that each class was instructed in the same curriculum for the same amount of time, and had similar number of participants.

DA was used in the EG, while the CG received instruction on the same book and content using SA. They were in the same learning communities but different classes in the Nosrat Institute, located in Kermanshah as mentioned beforehand. Figure 1 depicts the research design, demonstrating the pre-test, intervention, and post-test.
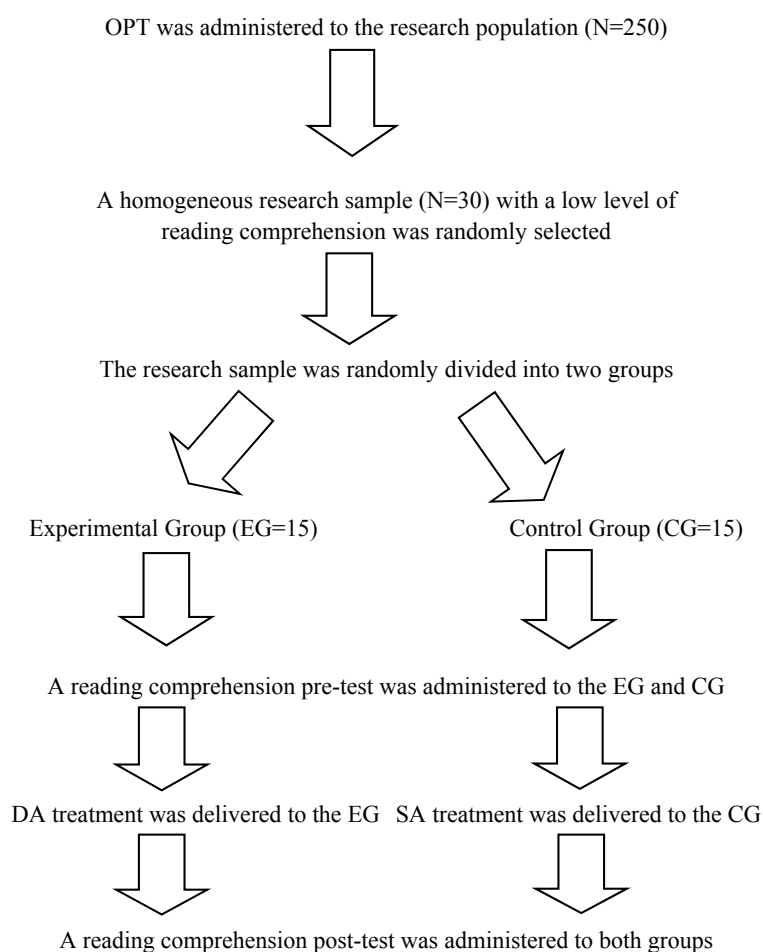
OPT was administered to the research population (N=250)

⬇

A homogeneous research sample (N=30) with a low level of
reading comprehension was randomly selected

⬇

The research sample was randomly divided into two groups

↙   ↘

Experimental Group (EG=15)   Control Group (CG=15)

⬇   ⬇

A reading comprehension pre-test was administered to the EG and CG

⬇   ⬇

DA treatment was delivered to the EG   SA treatment was delivered to the CG

⬇   ⬇

A reading comprehension post-test was administered to both groups

Figure 1. The Diagram of the Design of the Study

3.1. Participants

The research participants for the present study included the researchers as the mediators and two groups (i.e. the EG and CG) of students. A total of 30 students of English Nosrat Institute, located in Kermanshah province in Iran were randomly selected. Their age ranged from 16 to 20. It is worth mentioning that they did not remain constant throughout the data collection process that is, 4 participants (2 in the EG, and 2 in the CG) were absent on the tests, so they were excluded from the data analysis process. For the portion of the classroom instruction that involved DA in the EG and SA the CG, the researchers were the sole instructors of DA. All the participants were native speakers of Farsi and were chiefly from middle socio-economic background. Students' participation in the classroom activities and how prompting them to do so were the main researchers' concerns in the classroom. It should be mentioned that all the participants were male in gender.

As displayed in Figure 1, the number of the participants in each group was 15, but 2 students in the EG and CG did not take the research tests, and were therefore excluded from the study. Data on a student participant was valid only when s/he participated in all stages of the study. The ages of CG ranges from 15 t0 21 but their ages mean is, to some extent, similar to EG. It is worth mentioning that, in the procedure section, just the participants' numbers were mentioned, that is, student 1 (S1), students 2 (S2) and so on.

3.2. Instruments

To collect quantitative data for the present study, three instruments were utilized: (1) a homogeneity test (i.e. the OPT); (2) a pre-test (i.e. a TOEFL reading proficiency test; and (3) a post-test (i.e. a TOEFL reading proficiency test). The OPT was used to homogenize the research sample. The results helped to sort the research population into three groups: reading-low (33%), reading-mid (33%), and reading-high (33%) groups. The sorting was based on percentile ranking. Because the researchers wanted to investigate the effect of DA on students who have low-reading ability, students in the group with the lowest level of reading proficiency was chosen as the research sample. Their current reading proficiency level was measured by the pre-test and the hypothesized development in their reading comprehension ability after the treatment was determined by the post-test.

3.2.1. Oxford Placement Test

To homogenize the population, an Oxford Placement Test was utilized before the research intervention (DA training in the EG, and SA training in the CG). Some 30 EFL Iranian EFL learners with similarly low achievement levels in reading proficiency were selected. The reading comprehension ability before and after the DA-treatment in the EG and the SA-training in the CG was the major concern.

3.2.2. Pre-test and post-test

In order to identify the testees' current level of reading comprehension, a reading comprehension test was administered as one of the primary sources of data for this investigation (See Appendix B). The 30 students with low-reading ability participated in the pre-test (15 in the EG, and 15 in the CG). It included twenty multiple choice items for two reading passages. These passages were selected from Longman Complete Course for the TOFEL TEST (Deborah Philips, 2005) .The passages have different topics and almost of the same length and number of test items. The purpose of giving different reading subjects was to avoid topic bias and topic familiarity. Time allotment for the pre-test was forty-five minutes. In assessment, one point was awarded for a correct item.

Results of the post treatment test were compared with those of the pre-test in order to make inferences on the effectiveness of the DA training in the EG and the SA training in the CG through the change in the students' reading comprehension performances. The post-test in the EG was taken by thirteen out of the fifteen students who had gone through the pre-test and the DA training. Moreover, the post-test in the CG was taken by thirteen out of the fifteen students who had taken the pre-test and received the SA treatment (See Appendix C). It should be mentioned that the researchers used a pilot study in order to determine the reliability and the validity of pre-test and post- test. Five students were randomly chosen and after the test, the researchers used KR-21 method to determine the reliability of the test.

3.3. Procedure

To homogenize the research population (N= 250), an Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was administered. On the basis of the test results, the population was sorted into three groups of reading-low, reading-mid, and reading-high students. As many as 30 participants with the lowest level of reading comprehension proficiency was randomly selected and assigned to an Experimental Group (N=15) and a Control Group (N=15). This study was conducted in the Nosrat Institute, located in Kermanshah Province in 2012. In order to determine their current zone or level of reading proficiency, a TOEFL reading comprehension pre-test was administered to both groups. Afterwards, DA training was applied to the EG in 9 successive 80-minute sessions on reading comprehension, Unlike EG, static assessment was applied to the CG. In the end, another TOEFL reading comprehension post-test was

administered to the research groups to measure their reading comprehension performance level after their treatment.

The goal of this section was to focus on the mediational move introduced by the researchers (or mediators) during the study. The amount of mediation provided to each participant depended on the number of incorrect answers to each question. The participants received mediation on the questions they answered incorrectly. Therefore, the more incorrect answers a participant gave to the question, the more mediation he received. In addition, based on Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994), intervention should be provided in gradual progression. The purpose is to estimate the minimum level of guidance required by the students to successfully perform a given question. Therefore, guidance normally starts at a highly strategic (implicit) level, and progressively becomes more specific, more concrete, until the appropriate level is reached. In order to make the dynamic assessment more systematic, in this study the researchers designed a series of mediation which began with the most implicit hints to the most explicit ones.

At the outset of the each session, the students were asked to pose question whenever they encounter any problem with reading comprehension. The mediations used in each session included hints, prompts, questions, and explanations. The researchers also introduced different kinds of strategies that could be used to answer a reading comprehension question. In the five first sessions, for example, the texts were followed by detail questions; the researchers clarified the strategies for answering these kinds of questions correctly. It should be mentioned that when the explanations were difficult for students, they were explained in their native language, in this case Persian.

The researchers also helped students to understand the requirement of text comprehension, offered feedback, let the students verbally report the answering strategy, explain the reason, and examine the strategies that were introduced. Moreover, in order to make interaction possible during mediation, the researchers allowed the students to use their native language.

In order to work on vocabulary, the researchers or rather the mediators introduced new techniques to the learners in order to learn unknown vocabularies such as associating a certain word with a routine activity, visualizing and making mnemonics for words, paying attention to the second meaning of words, thinking logically about the relation between words and sentences, making an educated guess through context clues, making flash cards and using them here, there, and everywhere, posing a bunch of flash cards around yourselves (peripheral learning), and making a notebook and learning how to use a dictionary.

3.4. Data analysis

To answer the research questions an Independent Samples T-Test, Pearson Product Moment Coefficient Correlation (PMMCC), paired sample t-test, and independent sample t-test were used. An independent one-sample t-test was used to test whether the average of a sample differ significantly from a population mean, a specified value µ0. In order to investigate whether there was any difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of control group on one hand and pre-test and post-test scores of experimental group on the other hand, paired sample t-test and estimate of correlation between each group was used. For estimating the difference between the group receiving treatment, experimental group, and the group not receiving treatment, control group, Independent sample T-test was used to see whether the difference was meaningful or not.

4. Results

This section is oriented towards the descriptively and inferentially statistical analysis of the quantitative data and findings gathered through two major instruments of the present research study (that is, the pre-test and post-test in the two independent groups of the study). The analysis was performed in

the light of two different but related branches of statistics: descriptive and inferential statistics. Each will be presented and discussed.

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

Before examining the descriptive results obtained from the descriptive statistics, it should be borne in mind that in any empirical study a set of statistical assumptions should be satisfied in order to interpret the statistical results gathered from the data collection process. The following four SPSS outputs represent one of these assumptions showing the statistical analysis of the scores gained on the pre-test and post-test for the research groups (See Figure 4.1., and Figure 4.2).

Table 2. One-Sample Statistics for the pre-test and post-test scores of experimental group

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test EX	15	8.4667	2.13363	.55090
Post-test EX	13	23.1538	23.1538	2.74527

Table 2 pertains to descriptive statistics. It is the first output of the T-Test. It represents the results of the descriptive analysis showing how the participants (N=13) performed on their pre-test and post-test as well as the dispersion of the scores on the two tests. Their performance is manifested by the mean scores. The first row represents the normal parameters and descriptive statistics including the mean, standard deviation, and standard error mean. The mean scores of the pre-test and the post-test are M= 8.46 (N= 15, SD= 2.133) and M= 23.1538 (N=13, SD= 23.15) respectively. The difference between scores on the pre-test and post-test in terms of the two mean scores, the standard deviation values, and the standard error mean scores indicates that the group performed differently before and after the training. Therefore, it is of high importance to study these differences by inferential statistics displayed in Tables below to answer the main research question of the present study.

Table 3. One-Sample Statistics for the pre-test and post-test scores of control group

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test CO	15	9.0000	2.42015	.62488
Post-test CO	13	10.6154	1.93815	.53755

Table 3 is also related to descriptive statistics. As shown in it, the mean scores of the pre-test and the post-test in the CG are M=9.00 (N=15, SD=2.42), and M=10.61 (N=13, SD=1.93) respectively. The difference between the two mean scores, the standard deviation values, and the standard error mean scores on the pre-test and post-test shows that this group of participants, like the EG members, performed differently before and after static assessment, but how much change they underwent and whether the change was statistically significant in comparison with the EG will be studied in the following tables of Inferential statics.

4.2. Inferential Statistics

Having calculated the descriptive statistics based on the participants' scores on the pre-test and post-test, the researchers conducted some other data analysis statistical methods including the Paired Samples T-Test, the Independent One Sample T-Test, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (PPMCC) Test. The results of the each method will be presented and described.

Table 4. Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences							
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviator	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Pair1 pre test EX- post test Ex	14.53846	8.21194	2.27758	-19.50088	-9.57604	6.383	12	.000

Table 4 represents the results of the T-Test for the EG of the study. As it is clear, it shows the comparison made between the pre-test and the post-test mean scores for the EG. The purpose of this comparison is to find out whether the participants in the EG made changes in their reading comprehension performance after Dynamic Assessment, and if so, how much change they underwent after the DA. To the right of the Paired Differences, the T (6.38), degrees of freedom (12), and significance (.000) are represented. Because the p-value is below 0.05, the H0 (there is no significant difference between the means of the two variables) is rejected. Here, it is seen that the significance value is statistically significant. There is a great difference between pre-test and post-test scores. It attests to the point that the DA training did help those who received the DA training to enhance their reading comprehension performance.

Table 5. Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences							
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviator	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Pair1 pre test CO- post test CO	1.07692	1.93484	. 53663	-2.24613	.09229	2.007	12	.068

Table 5 is based on the results of the T-Test for the CG of the study showing the comparison between the pre-test and the post-test mean scores of the CG of the study. They are compared to determine the change level the participants in the group made achieved in their reading comprehension proficiency after static assessment. The T (2.00), degrees of freedom (12), and significance (.068) help reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the means of the two variables. Here, it is seen that the significance value is statistically significant. That there is difference between pre-test and post-test scores meaning that static assessment did help those who received it to enhance their reading comprehension performance.

Table 6. Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Differences	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidece Interval of the Difference		
								Lower	Upper	
Pretest Equal variances Assumed	.944	.340	.640	28	.527	.53333	.83305	-1.17309	2.23975	
Equal variances Not assumed			.640	27.567	.527	.53333	.83305	-1.17430	2.24096	

This table consists of two major parts. The first section is related to the equality of the variances of the two samples, but the other one deals with the equality of the means of the two samples. The former is where the Levene's Test for Equality of Error Variances is represented. It tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups. If the Levene's Test is significant (the value under "Sig." is less than .05), the two variances are significantly different. If it is not significant (Sig. is greater than .05), the two variances are not significantly different; that is, the two variances are approximately equal. If the Levene's test is not significant, the second assumption is met. Here, the significance is .000, which is less than .05. Therefore, it is assumed that the variances are significantly different. In this table, the dependent variable is the post-test scores, and the design is Intercept+GROUP_NA+PRETEST+GROUP_NA * PRETEST. Since the Sig. value is below 0.05, the null hypothesis that the variances are equal is rejected and the second section should be studied. As seen in Table 6, T value is .64 and here exists 27.56 degrees of freedom. The Sig. value in the t-value for equality of means equals (.52). Therefore, the null hypothesis the means of the two groups are not significantly different is rejected and it can safely be stated that there is a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of their performance on the post-test on reading comprehension ability. Students who took the DA had significantly higher reading comprehension performance than those who took the Static Assessment.

Table 7.Correlation between pre-test and post-test scores of experimental group

		Pre-test EX	Post-test EX
Pre-testEX	Pearson Correlation	1	.798(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001
	N	15	13
Post-testEX	Pearson Correlation	.798(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	
	N	13	13

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

As it is clear, Table 7 shows that the Sig. value is .001 which is below 0.05, so the H0 (i.e. there is no significant correlation between the two variables) is rejected and it is hypothesized that the there is a significant but not accidental relationship between the pre-test and post-test scores. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 8.Correlation between pre-test and post-test scores of control group

		Pre-testCO	Post-testCO
Pre-testCO	Pearson Correlation	1	.545
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.054
	N	15	13
Post-testCO	Pearson Correlation	.545	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.054	
	N	13	13

Here, the table shows that the Sig. value is .054 which is above 0.05, so the H0 (i.e. there is no significant correlation between the two variables) is accepted and it is assumed that the there is a significant, not accidental, relationship between the pre-test and post-test scores. Correlation is significant at the 0.054 level (2-tailed).

4.3. Null Hypothesis 1 Testing

The main null hypothesis put forth by the researchers was: Dynamic Assessment (DA) does not affect Iranian EFL students' reading comprehension performance. As a result, the first null hypothesis is rejected, and it can be claimed that DA instruction exert a statistically significant influence on the participants' reading comprehension performance.

4.4. Null Hypothesis 2 Testing

The second null hypothesis derived from the main null hypothesis was: The experimental group of the study will not show any progress from the pre-test to the post-test of the study. This hypothesis was intended to test the development level the experimental group (N=15) of the research study achieved after DA. The results of the paired t-test helped reject this hypothesis in that the group showed significant development from the pre-test to the post-test of the study. Their reading comprehension gain on the post-test attested to the effectiveness of the treatment they all received for 9 sessions. There was a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores.

4.5. Null Hypothesis 3 Testing

The last null hypothesis of the current study is: The control group of the study will not show any progress from the pre-test to the post-test of the study. In a similar fashion, paired t-test was utilized as an important data analysis method to accept or reject the null hypothesis. The results of the measure rejected this hypothesis, too. The control group of the study also improved their reading comprehension ability at the end of their 9-session treatment of Static Assessment. The major difference between the EG and the CG of the study was the development level they reached after their treatment. In the former, the development was statistically significant while in the latter the reading comprehension gain was not statistically significant, though they showed some progress. To put it another way, the level of significance the EG experienced was statistically higher than that of the CG.

5. Discussion

This longitudinal research study consisting of nine consecutive, 80-minute sessions was to empirically investigate the effects of Dynamic Assessment on the reading comprehension performance of the EG participants in Nosrat Institute, located in Kermanshah. The researchers (mediators) used DA in the EG, while the CG received traditional assessment or Static Assessment. The research instruments included a pre-test (that is, a TOEFL reading comprehension test), and a post-test (that is, a TOEFL reading comprehension test). It should be added that the research was homogenized through an Oxford Placement Test which sorted the population into three groups of reading-low, reading- mid, reading-high students. 30 students were randomly selected from the group with the lowest level of reading comprehension proficiency. The participants in both groups took part in these three consecutive steps of the research procedures: the pre-test (that is, a TOEFL reading comprehension test), DA was used for the EG and SA was used for the CG and the post-test (that is, a TOEFL reading comprehension test). The primary purpose of this study was to determine the effects of utilizing DA Reading Comprehension. To put it another way, the researchers were to determine if DA can be used instead of

SA to improve the learners' Zone of Proximal Development (hereafter ZPD) to enhance the comprehension of content-based lessons.

The results achieved through the data analysis methodologies indicated a trend in the direction of some advantages for the use of DA. Participants in the EG scored higher on the post-test than those in the CG. The study found some statistically significant evidence to support the overall effectiveness of DA use in reading comprehension tasks. A reason for this may have been the long GO training time. The EG had an ample amount of practice and consistent exposure to different types and strategic ways to answer the questions in the reading comprehension texts . This may have resulted in their knowledge gains which were possibly manifested in the post-test scores.

The present study builds on the recommendations of Poehner and Lantolf (2005) and provides empirical support for their claim that DA principles can make classroom formative assessment practices more effective by providing assistance that is continually tuned and returned to learners needs. The inclusion of interaction brought to light the extent of learners' understanding and control over linguistic forms and their relation to meaning, and also helped with the identification of problems underlying poor performance. Evidence was also presented to suggest that interaction provided an opportunity for these problems to be addressed and for learners to develop. The fact that the learners themselves arrived at a greater awareness of their abilities, as evidenced by the verbalization data, is especially important. According to Vygotsky's (1986) argument the goal of instruction should be to render the invisible visible.

In this study, the increase in the post-test performance by the low-reading group was promising. Perhaps this group found DA as an effective learning and/or test performance strategy. This study found statistically significant evidence that DA is effective for the EG. Specifically, DA use has been statistically seen as effective for low-skilled readers. This finding could support previous claims concerning the applying of DA in educational setting in Islamic Republic of Iran. It worth mentioning that the results of the present study confirmed the results obtained in the study of Campione & Brown (1987), Valencia, Campione, Weiner, and Bazzi (1990), Abbott, Reed, Abbott, and Berninger (1997), Kletzien and Bednar (1990), and Kozulin and Garb (2002).

Campione& Brown (1987) were among the pioneers who used the framework of DA to specific educational domains. The principal of their assessment model was to investigate how learners learn from each other and how flexible they were in using what they have learned. Result showed that predictions based on initial performance significantly underestimated what children could achieve with minimal assistance. Therefore, DA measures often provide better estimates of reading comprehension than SA.

Valencia, Campione, Weiner, and Bazzi (1990) applied DA to reading domain (as cited in Haywood & Lidz, 2007, p. 80). They used an experimental dynamic test approach with several control groups and their sample consisted of 196 sixth-grade students. Posttest results showed that increased strategy use and improved reading comprehension for those learners who had been moderately or strongly exposed to scaffolding strategies during intervention. As a matter of fact, this enhancement in strategy use persisted for at least five month. The more intense the scaffolding procedure during the intervention had been, the higher the retest performance at five-month follow-up.

The Abbott, Reed, Abbott, and Berninger's (1997) study of 16 second graders with severe reading and writing disabilities offers yet another approach within the broader DA model. These authors framed their study within the concept of "response to intervention" using growth curves as measures, with their tutorial intervention spanning a full program year. The tutorial targeted orthographic and phonological awareness, accuracy and fluency of word recognition and comprehension monitoring, handwriting fluency, spelling, and composing. The sessions began during the summer with 1-hour twice-weekly meetings over the course of 8 weeks; this continued through the school year with 1-hour once-weekly individual meetings over an average of 36.5 weeks. The lessons were standardized and scripted. This

study showed gains beyond chance for most of the children on most of the measures but also showed their differential responses to the treatment. The results also generated individualized recommendations for their next school year.

The other study was conducted by Kletzien and Bednar (1990) which their clients were fifth-grade students. Initial learning level was established using a reading inventory and learners' reading process and strategies utilization by means of probes and observations. The intervention program consisted of strategy training such as visualization as well as guided and independent practice sessions. Finally, learners were administered a parallel version of reading inventory. The observed increase in reading level was significantly correlated with reading improvements six month after the assessment. Based on the results, they concluded that teachers who instruct students need a "a firm understanding of strategies, their use, and ability to infer strategy use from reader responses" as well as "expertise in utilizing a range of instructional techniques".

The goal of Kozulin and Garb's (2002) study was to explore the feasibility of the development and implementation of the dynamic EFL assessment procedure with at-risk students. The results indicate that the procedure is both feasible and effective in obtaining information on students' learning potential. It was confirmed that students with a similar performance level demonstrate different, and in some cases dramatically different ability to learn and use new text comprehension strategies. Because of this, they affirmed that the paradigm of dynamic assessment is useful not only in the field of general cognitive performance but also in such curricular domain as EFL learning (Kozulin and Garb's 2002). They continued that "any dynamic assessment that includes an element of intervention depends on the quality of mediation provided by the assessor. In this respect dynamic assessment is closer to a situation of instruction rather than examination (Kozulin and Garb's 2002).

It is noteworthy to mention that the result of this study confirmed the study that conducted by Mardani and Tavakoli (2011). The aim of their study was to explore the feasibility and practicality of development and implementation of DA to reading comprehension of EFL students in the context of Iran. A comparison of mean score of experimental group displayed that the mean score of experimental group had an increase of 2.3 score in posttest while the increase for the control group was only 1.1. It reveals that the students in the experimental group performed better in comparison with the students in the control group. Based on the results, they stressed that "it can be discussed that DA is more than just a formative assessment. Thus, one possible explanation for the positive effect of DA on reading comprehension is that it is more than just a sheer form of assessment. DA is a pedagogical approach which is supported by theories of mind and development. It is an approach which stresses the inseparability of assessment and instruction. Adding DA to the testing setting reduces the stress, gives learners extra confidence and they feel that there is someone who cares about them when they get stuck" Mardani and Tavakoli (2011).

Feuerstein (1998) said, "human beings are open rather than closed systems, meaning that cognitive abilities … can be developed in a variety of ways, depending on the presence and the quality of appropriate forms of interaction and instruction". In this study, in the students' open systems, the researchers established students' Zone of Proximal Development through the interaction and instruction in a cooperative and equal way with the tool of dialogue.

The results of this study assures us that the EFL reading comprehension integrated with DA can improve students' reading competence and build up their reading confidence in the following chain reflection. Face to face interaction with the teacher shows students' progress to themselves clearly and completely . In the last session, the students were able to answer the questions by themselves so that the researchers could conclude that the DA had a positive effect on reading comprehension.

Based on this study and the other studies, I can say that if we want to use suitable instructional techniques for a better reading comprehension, teachers or rather mediators should apply tasks and feedbacks within dynamic reading-competence tests. Most of the time, DA in the domain of reading

and text comprehension depend on instruction and practice in meta-cognitive knowledge such as strategies which is specific to certain reading tasks and goals. Also, successful DA relies on the prompting of domain-specific processes which are vital to do the tasks and practices.

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6. Conclusion

The aim of this study was to explore the feasibility and practicality of development and implementation of Dynamic Assessment (DA) to reading comprehension of EFL students in the context of Iran. The present study follows Lantolf and Poehner's (2004) reasoning that DA can optimally promote learner development through application of a clinical methodology, as called for by Vygotsky (1956, 1998) with regard to the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), in which mediator and learner collaborate to perform the assessment task. Therefore, this study contributes to the second language DA literature by devising and implementing a DA procedure with 15 institute students in the 16-20 age range. The results of this study displayed that the participants' performance improved dramatically on the post-test after DA- training. As Xiaoxiao and Yan (2010) state, Feuerstein regarded DA as a way of assessing the true potential of children that differs significantly from conventional tests. Dominating the field of language testing, static assessment used to determine whether some pre-determined achievement level had been reached. Traditional static assessment was limited because it did not directly aim to stimulate learners into becoming independent knowledge constructors and problem solvers. Unlike static assessment, DA gives the language teacher a chance to appropriately gauge the students' understanding and ability level and how to improve the students' level development. To put it in another way, by engaging in DA activity, teachers may be able to challenge individuals to reach higher levels of functioning (Poehner, 2005, cited in Naeini and Duvail, 2012).

As a matter of fact DA with its monistic view toward teaching and testing not only assesses the learners' abilities but also provides them with opportunities for learning and development. This in turn has some positive results both for teachers and learners; therefore, the implications can be multifold.

First, it helps students to take the advantage of mediation provided by the assessor and become autonomous in doing similar tasks later on. As we can see the learners were able to answer the reading comprehension questions by themselves in the last session of the study.

Second, applying DA provides the opportunity for learner to being mediated without suffering from stress. In some educational setting such as Iran in which test scores lay the students under stress is a major test score pollution source. Therefore, test scores unaffected by stress factor can be more accurate for educational decisions. So it can be concluded that DA results in presenting a true picture of the abilities which is the most concern of assessment. To put it in another words, DA provides more valid measures of students' ability.

Third, DA of learners' abilities can avoid misinterpretations and misrepresentations of the abilities. Contrary to Static Assessment, DA presents learning potential of the learners because it sheds light on both current zone of the learners and their hidden potential in the zone of proximal development after removing hindering factors.

Fourth, DA intervention in the form of mediation was shown to have a significant role in the diagnostic perspective of students' problem areas. The procedure section provides a lot of examples showing that in many cases that the students were not able to display their second language during the independent performance but they could overcome the problem after receiving implicit or explicit assistance provided by researchers or rather the mediators.

Fifth, this study contributes significantly to provide mediation. As noted by the researchers working within the psychological DA framework, the provision of mediation is one of the most intimidating aspects of DA application in practice (Haywood and Lidz, 2007). This issue has not received much attention in general DA research (Lidz, 1991) as well as in second language DA research (Aljaafresh & Lantolf, 1994; Poehner, 2005). Therefore, the mediational strategies used in this study can offer ways how to apply DA-based mediation.

Sixth, this study introduces a substantial way to assess and teach reading comprehension in empirical research. According to the results, mediational strategies can be useful in diagnosing the source of the problems which second language learners experienced during the reading process.

In the current study, the researchers only worked with 15 male students. Future research can investigate the same research project with both male and female participants and even more participants. This study attempted to use a DA approach in one skill known as reading comprehension. Further research can focus on DA approaches in the other domains such as listening, writing, vocabulary acquisition and so forth.

In this study, students were motivated by the promise of a prize if they "worked hard" and "paid attention." These conditions do not closely resemble whole class instruction in schools. It may be interesting in future studies to investigate whether DA plus a measure of student attention can improve the reading comprehension better than DA alone.

As a matter of fact, different students have different degree of responsiveness to the mediation and the assistance introduced by the mediator, that is the effect of mediation varies from one student to the other student. Future research can work on the extent to which different students benefit from the mediation. Group DA (G-DA) is one of the new directions that recent second language DA research has begun to explore. The future research can focus on this kind of DA and find out what contributions G-DA can have, but in different contexts of more participants to come to a more reliable findings.

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Dinamik değerlendirmeye karşı statik değerlendirme: İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen İranlılardaki okuduğunu anlama yetisi üzerine bir çalışma

Öz

Bu çalışma, yabancı dil bağlamlarında okuma yetisinin geleneksel veya statik değerlendirmesini verir ve öğrenicilerin okuma yetisinin gelişiminde dinamik değerlendirmeyi (DA) kullanır. Araştırma evrenini (N=250) bağdaşık hale getirmek için bir Oxford seviye tespit sınavı (OPT) yapılmıştır. Sınav sonuçlarına dayanarak evren; okuma düzeyi düşük, orta ve yüksek öğrenciler şeklinde üç gruba ayrılmıştır. Bu çalışmanın katılımcıları; kontrol ve deney gruplarına gelişigüzel ayrılan, okuduğunu anlama yetkinliği en düşük düzeyde olan 30 katılımcısı olan bir örneklemdir. Bu çalışma 2012 yılında Kermanşah şehrinde Nosrat Enstitüsünde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Mevcut eğitim alanlarını ve okuma yetkinlik düzeylerini belirlemek için iki gruba da okuduğunu anlama ön testi yapılmıştır. Ardından dinamik değerlendirme (DA) çalışması; deney grubuna (EG) okuduğunu anlama üzerine 80 dakikalık birbirini takip eden 9 oturumda uygulanmıştır, deney grubunun aksine kontrol grubuna (CG) da statik değerlendirme uygulanmıştır. Sonunda eğitimden sonraki okuduğunu anlama başarı düzeyini ölçmek için araştırma grubuna başka bir TOEFL okuduğunu anlama ön testi yapılmıştır. İstatistiksel veri analizi, dinamik değerlendirmenin düşük yetiye sahip okuyucular için statik değerlendirmeden daha önemli ve etkili olduğunu göstermiştir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Değerlendirme; dinamik değerlendirme; statik değerlendirme; yakınsal gelişim alanı; okuduğunu anlama yetisi

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Culture of language learning: A comparative study of English language textbooks used in Pakistan

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Abstract

This study is concerned with the evaluation of two English language teaching (ELT) textbooks from the point of view of hidden curriculum i.e. the invisible or implicit ideological assumptions hidden in the content of these textbooks and the culture of language learning and teaching they promote. Both the textbooks (selected for the present study) are used for ELT in two different systems of education in Pakistan. One is used in the government owned schools; the other in private system of education which follows the Cambridge system of education. The research framework includes the detailed analysis of the selected units from the two textbooks. Firstly, the text of the units was analyzed by focusing on genre, contents and hidden curriculum the contents may embody. The second part of the framework is the analysis of the culture of language learning and teaching these books promote. For this purpose the focus was on the rubrics and questions/activities of grammar, vocabulary and four language skills given in the exercises at the end of each unit. The results reveal a clear-cut difference in the two textbooks from the point of view of hidden curriculum and the culture of language learning and teaching they espouse.

Keywords: Culture; textbooks; language learning; English language teaching; hidden curriculum

1. Introduction

Language learning materials produced all over the world do not only serve as a source of linguistic knowledge but also carry some cultural messages (Gray, 2002). These cultural messages are usually identified in two ways. Firstly, they are supposed to reflect specific values and beliefs based on some social or political ideology which are very implicit and invisible in nature and are often termed and investigated as hidden curriculum. The purpose of such a hidden curriculum is to "socialize students to a particular view of the world whether learners or teachers are made aware of it or not". (Tin, 2006, p. 132). Secondly, the language teaching material is supposed to determine a specific culture of language learning in the form of language teaching methodology, approach and role relations between teachers and learners in a language classroom (Richards, 1998).

The present study explores the cultural component of the textbooks used for ELT in Pakistan. The focus of the study is on what culture of language learning is promoted by English textbooks used in

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the educational set up in Pakistan. Littlejohn (1998) suggests that the analysis of both internal and external aspects of a book is essential in order to have a comprehensible picture of the culture of learning promoted by the books. According to Littlejohn (1998) and Cunningwoth (1995), external aspects include the overall layout of the book like the table of contents, visuals and how the items included in the course book are sequenced. The internal aspects involve content of the units, visual images and tasks or activities given in the exercises of the units.

Owing to the small scale of the study, it is not possible to analyze both internal and external aspects. Hence, the major focus of this study is on in-depth analysis of the internal aspects i.e. two units selected from each textbook. The culture of learning will be investigated by analyzing the content of the selected units and the exercises given at the end of each unit. However, before analyzing the two textbooks in detail, it is pertinent to briefly discuss the role of the textbooks in ELT, the educational context in Pakistan, the rationale for the selection of the two textbooks and the units and a brief theoretical background of the role of culture in language teaching.

1.1. Role of textbooks in ELT

Opinion about the use of textbook in language class varies. The modern teaching approaches like communicative language teaching (CLT) and task based language teaching (TBLT) used in BANA (English speaking countries) have reduced the role of course books for language teaching in these countries. On the other hand language course books or textbooks still play a significant role and function as part of the curriculum in TESEP (non-English speaking countries (Holliday, 1994). By and large, textbooks are still an important source for the teaching of English as a foreign language in different parts of the world. They determine the objective of the language program, kind of the syllabus used, skills to be focused on, and the language teaching methodology used in the class. They serve as the mediating object between the teacher and the learner (Littlejohn & Windeatt, 1989), provide a structure to the course and also bring uniformity and standardization in the instruction so that the learners studying in different institutions working under the same education system may receive similar content and be tested the same way. Well-prepared textbooks are also very helpful to the teachers. They save teachers from the burden of material designing and enable them to devote their time to teaching. They also train and assist teachers in determining their language teaching methodology and offer guidance and orientation not only to the fresh inexperienced teachers but also to the experienced ones (Huntchinson & Torres 1994). However, many researchers have also found out that the experienced teachers working in both BANA and TESEP countries do not rely exclusively on textbooks. According to Brophy (1982) the teachers in United States do not use textbooks for teaching in elementary schools; rather they teach the students according to their needs by selecting the topics and material from different sources. Richards and Mahoney (1996) in their survey for the teaching of English in Hong Kong and Chandran (2003) in Malaysia found that teachers did not really use the prescribed textbooks. But it is not the case in Pakistan where ELT is completely based on the prescribed language course books and even experienced teachers have to rely on the textbooks due to a number of reasons. In Pakistan, the ELT course books serve as the content for language teaching and are strictly followed in developing the tests for the examinations. (Mansoor, 2005).

1.2. Educational context in Pakistan

The education system in Pakistan is not unified. There are two main streams of education systems: public and private sector education systems. Both the systems use different textbooks for ELT. The reason behind this is that the two systems are controlled by different setup. The public sector schooling system is under the control of the government. In this system, the textbooks prescribed by the government are used, whereas the private system of education is autonomous and is affiliated with

the University of Cambridge. Hence, it follows the textbooks prescribed by the University of Cambridge, though; they are published locally by the oxford university press.

2. The Study

2.1. Target materials

The target materials for this study are Oxford Progressive English (OPE) volume 9 and 10. This book is published by Oxford University Press (2009). The other book is English course book (ECB) volume 9 and 10 published by Pakistan textbook board (2009). Both books are academic course books prescribed for the secondary level students in Pakistan. The OPE is used by the private system of education, whereas the ECB is used in the government schools. The main purpose of these books is to improve learners' linguistic abilities and to help them meet the educational requirements set by the ministry of education.

2.2. Rationale for the selection of the books

The two books are selected for a number of reasons. Firstly, they are prescribed textbooks for ELT in the two distinct systems of education in Pakistan. Secondly, they target the same level of learners i.e. secondary school students and share a general purpose i.e. to develop learners' linguistic abilities. Thirdly, they have the same year of publication. Hence, all the variables are well controlled. The only difference is that these books are used in two distinct systems of education and reflect different language teaching and learning approaches, though, such a claim can only be confirmed after the analysis of the two books. Another important reason for the selection of the two books is that the learners studying these two books in the two distinct systems of education show a striking difference in their level of proficiency which is reflected in terms of their enrolment in higher level studies, success in job acquisition and success in competitive exams (Mansoor, 2005). Since, textbooks play a vital role in ELT in both public and private sector educational institutions in Pakistan, it seems logical to explore how the two types of textbooks promote different culture of learning which, ultimately, results in different linguistic outcomes and proficiency level of the learners.

2.3. Rationale for the selection of units

Owing to the limited scope of the study, the data collection and analysis are based on the selected units from the chosen textbooks. Two units from each book are selected for detailed analysis. Table 1 displays the units selected from each text book.

Table 1: Selected textbooks and units

Oxford Progressive English (OPE)		English Course book (ECB)	
Unit	Topic	Unit	Topic
2	At the New Year Celebration	2	Festivals of Pakistan
9	The Time Machine	5	Marco Polo

One unit from both textbooks has been taken from the beginning and the other from the middle of the books. The selection of the units is done on the basis of the similarity of topics. For example the unit from OPE **'At the New Year Celebrations'** and the unit from ECB **'Festivals of Pakistan'** deal with almost same topic i.e. festival. Similarly, the unit from OPE **'The Time Machine'** and the Unit from ECB **'Marco Polo'** are about journeys. Both the books present same pattern of the units i.e. the units start with the reading of the text followed by exercises presenting different aspects of language

like vocabulary, grammar, comprehension questions and tasks and activities for practicing language skills.

3. Methodology

This is going to be an exploratory study. It mainly focuses on the evaluation of the course books. The evaluation of the course books will be done by following the technique of 'in-depth evaluation' as according to Cunningworth (1995, p. 2) "an in-depth examination of representative samples of the material will form a sound basis for evaluation and for the ensuing choice of the most suitable course book for adoption". The in-depth evaluation involves a detailed analysis of the content, exercises, tasks and instructions in the selected units of the text. The internal aspects will be evaluated in detail by doing in-depth analysis of the two selected units from each textbook Firstly, the text of the units will be analyzed by focusing on genre, contents and hidden curriculum the contents may embody. The second part of the framework is the analysis of the culture of language learning and teaching these books promote. For this purpose, focus will be on rubric, questions/activities of grammar, vocabulary and four language skills given in the exercises at the end of each unit. Cunningworth (1995) and Littlejohn (1998) suggest that the analysis of the representative sample i.e. 10% to 15% of the total material is enough in order to have a comprehensible picture of the nature of the material and the culture of learning promoted by it. The two units selected from each book make approximately 15% of the total books as both books consist of 15 units. Hence, the in-depth analysis of the two units from each textbook is deemed suitable for this study.

3.1. Framework for Analysis

The detailed breakdown of the framework for analysis is given in table 2.

Table 2: Framework for analysis

The text / Reading passages
• Lay-out of the text
• Hidden curriculum
• Language style
Exercises/Tasks/Activities
• Vocabulary
• Reading comprehension
• Grammar
• Language Skills
Culture of Learning

The two major areas for the analysis of the internal aspects are:
  i.   The text or reading passages of each unit
  ii.   The exercises/tasks/activities given at the end of each unit
The text contents will be analyzed on the basis of lay-out of the text, hidden curriculum and language style used in the text. The second part of the framework for internal analysis i.e. the exercises will be analyzed on the basis of vocabulary items, items for language skills and grammar. The exercises will be analyzed with reference to the teaching methodology they promote and the role-relation between the teachers and learners they determine.

4. Analysis

4.1. The Text

4.1.1. Lay-out of the text

There is an obvious difference between the lay-out of the text of the units in the two books. The OPE clearly identifies the genre at the beginning of each unit. For example the genre 'fiction' has been clearly identified at the beginning of the unit 'At the New Year Celebrations', whereas ECB does not contain any identification of the genre of the text. The identification of the genre and the type of the text sets the mindset of the learner according to the text which facilitates understanding the text. Moreover, there is also proper identification of the four language skills on the concerning sections in each unit in the OPE. The clear identification of reading, writing, speaking and listening skills by the use of the icons in the units makes the lesson more purposeful and facilitates learners to focus on a particular skill. Such identification of skill is not found in the ECB. The OPE also contains an introductory paragraph at the beginning of the units. This introductory paragraph provides information about the source of the extract, the author and the characters. For example the introductory paragraph of the unit 'The Time Machine' tells that the unit is an extract from a famous science fiction by H.G. Wells. This provision of basic information about the genre, source of the text, the author and the characters help the learners to have a clear understanding of the text which helps the learners to comprehend the text easily. It also orients the reader to read with a clear perspective and, hence, facilitates learning. On the other hand, such introductory paragraph and orientation are not found in ECB; rather the text starts directly without providing any information to the reader.

Another important aspect of the layout of the text in the OPE is the clear marking and identification of paragraphs and lines. The paragraphs are set in a logical and meaningful sequence. There are no errors of sequencing of information. On the other side, the text in the ECB seems to have illogical sequencing. The text lacks cohesion and coherence. The paragraphs are not divided on logical basis. For example, one of the paragraphs in the unit 'Marco Polo' ends at the description of Marco Polo's journey to Venice. The description is still going on, but the next paragraph is started. The next paragraph presents the same idea and consists of just three sentences which should have been linked to the same previous paragraph. Similarly, problematic sequencing of information is another flaw detected in the ECB. The unit "Marco polo" contains information about Marco Polo's book. The writer provides information about the book, but the title of the book is mentioned at the end which should have been mentioned earlier.

4.1.2. Hidden curriculum

The hidden curriculum refers to the sets of social and cultural ideologies behind the physical makeup of the text (Cunningworth, 1995). The ECB seems to promote a typical moral and religious ideology. The unit 'Festivals of Pakistan' is totally based on the description of the religious events of the Muslims like 'Shabe-e-Barat', 'Eid-ul-Fitr', 'Hajj', 'Eid-Milad-un-Nabi' which seems contrary to the title of the unit because the term 'festival' also relates to the cultural events which have been totally ignored by the writer. The names of some cultural events like 'Horse and Cattle Show' and 'Shindhoor Mela' have been mentioned but their details have not been provided which could have been a good source of cross-cultural knowledge. Similarly, the description of the 'Urses' of saints seems to promote the religious ideology of a specific Muslim sect not the whole Muslim community. It reflects the subjective approach of the writer. On the other hand, the unit in OPE "At the New Year Celebrations" which also describes a cultural event i.e. the new year celebration does not seem to

promote any religious or social ideology. Though the character of Buddha is introduced in the chapter, but the writer does not seem to promote any religious ideology through the character of Buddha.

Hidden curriculum not only involves the implicit representation of any social or political ideology, but it also reflects what view of language learning is promoted by the text (Littlejohn & Windeatt, 1989). The two significant approaches used for ELT in different parts of the world are CLT or TBLT and the old, traditional structural approach. The CLT or TBT emphasize the acquisition of language as a skill, whereas the traditional structural approaches put emphasis on language as knowledge (Richards & Rogers, 2001). Though, the exercises in ECB seem to be based on structural approach emphasizing language as knowledge, but the content of the text does not seem to focus on even language as knowledge; rather it seems to focus on just information. The unit 'Festivals of Pakistan' is based on the description of the religious events and the dates when those events take place. Similarly, the unit "Marco Polo" also provides information about the visits of Marco Polo to different parts of the world, the dates he arrived at a place, number of years he spent in different countries and the distances he covered.

The units in ECB do not contain even a single dialogue. On the other hand, the use of dialogues is a salient feature of the text in OPE. Such use of dialogues promotes communicative aspect of language and facilitates learners' understanding of how language can be used in communication which is an important aspect of language learning. According to CLT the main purpose of language learning is the ability to use language in real-life situations (Hu, 2002). Hence, the OPE seems to promote CLT through its content.

4.1.3. Style

The mode of discourse used for the description of the text is another difference between the two books. The units or text in OPE are written in the first person narrative mode in which the writer shows himself as a character. The unit 'The Time Machine' starts in the following way "I stopped and sat upon the Time Machine……..". This type of first person narrative discourse creates affinity among the author, the text and the reader which motivates the learner. The units in the ECB are written in third person descriptive or narrative mode. The writer seems to adopt the role of an outsider and the whole unit is a sort of commentary. For example the unit 'Marco Polo' reflects the narrative mode of the writer in the following way "Marco Polo was born in the middle of thirteen century …….. His father and his uncle……. They were great travelers". The unit 'Festivals of Pakistan' also starts in a descriptive mode like "A festival is a public celebration of an event ……..". The use of first person as a mode of discourse renders the text too formal and monotonous and resultantly has a discouraging effect on the reader.

The information provided in the units in ECB is that of surface level and mainly revolves around the description of events, places, dates and personalities. Such surface level description does not seem to have any contact with real life. We do not find any expression of feelings or emotions which give a lively touch to the text. On the other hand, the text in the OPE is not based on linear description of events; rather it provides minute description of pictorial imagery which produces a real life like image. For example in the unit 'The Time Machine' the sky is described in the following way "the sky was no longer blue. Ahead it was inky dark and out of the blackness shone brightly and steadily the white stars". Many metaphors like 'breath of wind', 'crab-like', 'red-hot dome of the sun', 'blood-red water' have also been used which beautify the language and develop the reader's interest.

4.2. Exercises/Tasks/Activities

Now, we focus on how the culture of learning is promoted through the exercises, tasks and activities given at the end of the units of the textbooks.

4.2.1. Vocabulary

The first element given in the exercises of the textbooks is vocabulary, but both the textbooks reflect different approaches for vocabulary teaching and learning. The ECB seems to promote learning of independent vocabulary items. The following examples from ECB can illustrate the point.

<u>*Vocabulary*</u>
Port   harbour
Venetian   of Venice
Illuminate   light up
Induce   persuade
Shrine   tomb

It is quite obvious from the above given examples that ECB seems to believe that memorization is the best way for learning new words. This sort of vocabulary learning is based on one word substitution. Neither content nor context is given for the learning of vocabulary. Contrary to this, the OPE does not see vocabulary learning as rote learning or memorization. This point can be illustrated by the following examples from the OPE.

<u>*Find the words and phrases in the text which mean the same as the following.*</u>
Sticking out   (paragraph 1)
Recede   (paragraph 4)

<u>*Explain the following words and phrases in your own words.*</u>
Wide portals (line 18)
A mocking lear (line 21)

<u>*Identify the following pairs of words as either homophones or synonyms.*</u>
Porcelain   fine china
Rheumy   roomy
Tumblers   acrobats
Cymbals   symbols
Use one of each pair in an interesting sentence of your own.

To be effective, vocabulary learning must occur in context (Curtis & Longo, 2001). The OPE seems to follow more inductive approach for vocabulary learning. It does not promote memorization; rather encourages the learner to learn the vocabulary and its usage by figuring it out from the context which has also been clearly mentioned by giving the paragraph number and line number. Hence, the OPE uses tasks and activities which are more cognitively demanding and effectively engaging than simple rote learning. If the frequency of vocabulary is analyzed, each unit in the ECB contains 5 to 8 words, whereas each unit in the OPE contains four different items or tasks for vocabulary in a sequential order and each item contains 5 to 6 vocabulary items. Apart from vocabulary, the OPE also gives a glossary of specialized terms or archaic words.

4.2.2. Reading comprehension

The second important aspect of exercises in both the books is comprehension questions, which require and promote both reading and writing skill. The questions given in the ECB require only specific information that can be traced or copied directly from the text. For example:

- *Name the religious festivals of the Muslims?*
- *When does Shab-e-barat take place?*
- *What important religious event took place on 12ᵗʰ Rabi-ul-Awwal?*

The questions are not cognitively demanding; rather their answers can be given in a single word or phrase. They do not promote various aspects of reading and writing skills. Cognitively demanding questions always prove helpful to promote effective language learning. Comprehension is defined as reading text with understanding. It is the process of making sense of words, sentences and connected speech. Rice (2009, p. 2) suggests that comprehension is not an outcome in itself. It is rather a complex process "through which a reader interacts with a text to construct meaning". The comprehension questions given in the OPE are more challenging and require inferencing, critiquing and integration which are important for developing reading and writing skills. The point can be explained by the following examples from the OPE.

- *Why do you think the people trusted the fortune teller? Give two reasons which you have inferred from paragraph 3.*
- *What do you think the straws were for? (Paragraph 3, 4 and 5).*
- *Explain how Low Hee's grandmother betrayed her feelings? (Paragraph 5)*

The use of expressions like 'why do you think', 'what do you think' and 'explain how' promote thinking ability of the learners.

4.2.3. Grammar

The two books also differ from each other in their treatment of grammar. The items given in the exercises in the ECB neither seem to promote language as knowledge nor language as skill; rather they seem to emphasize only on factual information given in the text of the units. For example the items like MCQs, matching column and true/false focus on the knowledge given in the text. This point can be illustrated by following examples:

Choose the correct answer from the following:
Shab-e- barat is celebrated on
   a) *15ᵗʰ Shaban*   b) *1ˢᵗ Shawal*
   c) *10ᵗʰ Zilhaj*   d) *12ᵗʰ Rabi-ul-Awwal*

Tick the true statements and cross the false ones.
   i. *Festivals are not celebrated with strong feelings.*
   ii. *Festivals create enmities.*
   iii. *Festivals bring cultural harmony.*

Connect the part of the sentence in column I with the relevant part in column II.

Column I	Column II
Shab-e-barat is	*on 1ˢᵗ of Shawal*
The Shaban is the	*a night of blessing*
Muslims celebrate Eid-ul-Fitr	*On 9ᵗʰ Zilhaj*
The great event of Hajj is performed	*8ᵗʰ month of Islamic calendar*

Such questions as based on giving answers in the form of factual information do not help to promote any of the language skills.

Moreover, in the exercises of both the units in the ECB the items used for the teaching and learning of grammar are based on traditional structural approach as they are given in the form of drills like changing of present tense into past. For example:

Write down the following sentences in the past tense.
 i.   *After the prayer, they greet one another.*
 ii.   *They bring the people closer.*
 iii. *They illuminate their houses.*

Similarly, the unit 'Marco Polo' in the ECB is replete with the items based on the drill for the formation of plural nouns from singular nouns. For example:

Most nouns form their plurals by adding 's' to the singular
 boy - boys   *girl - girls*
 dog - dogs   *horse – horses*

By changing 'y' into 'i' and adding 'es'
 pony - ponies   *lady - ladies*
 fly - flies   *city – cities*

Hence the approach used in the ECB is based on traditional structural approach. The ECB entails explicit instructions of grammar based on drill and practice of specific items. On the other hand, the OPE does not focus on the explicit instruction of grammar. In both the units in the OPE there is just one item for grammar i.e.

Write down five hyphenated adjectives from the text.
Besides each one, write a definition of not more than five words.

Even this item is not based on the explicit instruction of grammar; rather a more inductive approach has been used in order to promote self-dependency among learners which is the main aim of modern language teaching approaches like CLT and TBLT (Richards & Rogers, 2001).

4.2.4. Language Skills

The two textbooks also differ from each other in their representation of four language skills. The ECB does not seem to explicitly focus on any of the four language skills, whereas the OPE contains marked sections representing each language skill. The approach used for the teaching of the four skills in the OPE is based on CLT and TBLT. CLT is based on the concept that the basic purpose of foreign language teaching is to develop communicative ability of the learners. In CLT teacher serves as a facilitator and the class is more student-centered (Richards & Rogers, 2001). Berns (1990, p. 104) explains that CLT is based on the view of "language as communication… as a social tool which speakers use to make meanings". Hence, CLT focuses on the development of language as a skill rather than as knowledge. The OPE involves many activities like role-play, pair work and group work for the promotion of speaking and listening skills. The unit 'The Time Machine' contains the following task for speaking and listening skills.

You are a group of film directors who are going to make a film of this section of **The Time Machine.**

Amongst other topics you may choose to talk about, discuss:
- *Whether an animated film would be a good idea*
- *Whether special effects would be effective*
- *How you would present the crab-like creatures*

Similarly, the OPE also promotes various types of writing skill in a systematic and gradual sequential order. Firstly, it gives tasks for guided writing in which learners are properly guided about how to make an outline. This type of guidance develops the habit of brainstorming among the learners. One example of guided writing in OPE is given below:

*Now select three topic headings relevant to your film, such as **Visual effects** or **The Time Machine**.*
Under these headings write down bullet points, each bullet point expressing an idea.
You may use ideas of your own as well as those ideas which emerged from your discussion above.
You may begin this way:

  Visual effects
- *Use only red, black, white and green*
- *The crab-creature must be…………..*

After the guided writing, the tasks for more independent and imaginative writing are also given in the units in the OPE. This sort of independent writing practice may prove to be very helpful in promoting creative writing skill among the learners.

5. Conclusion

The two books show a striking difference in the culture of language learning they promote through visible and hidden aspects they promote. The ECB focuses only on language as knowledge and language as a source of transmitting knowledge. ELT in the ECB is based on the traditional structural approach. The learning of language is only confined to the memorization of independent vocabulary items, drills and exercises for limited grammatical items. It does not seem to focus on the development of language as a skill as it neglects all the four skills of language. It does not seem to follow the modern approaches of language teaching like CLT and TBLT; rather the structure based grammatical drills, the memorization of vocabulary and other factual information reflect the tendency towards old theories of GTM and behaviorism. The absence of any activity or task and the focus on language as knowledge steers the teacher to adopt the role of an instructor and knowledge giver instead of adopting the role of a facilitator who can encourage language learning through scaffolding. Hence, these features of the ECB seem to promote teacher-centeredness and instructionist approach in a language classroom.

On the other hand, the OPE is properly structured and well-planned in terms of its content and exercises. The content of the text is free from any social or religious bias. The expression of emotions and life like images are helpful in developing interest of the readers. The use of dialogues makes the text closer to the real life and shows how language can be used for communication in real life situations. The exercises in the OPE include all four skills of language. Language learning is promoted by using tasks and activities which make the class more learner-centered. Moreover, the rubrics of the tasks are detailed and easy to understand. The OPE seems to believe in making more use of modern language teaching methodologies like CLT and TBLT. Hence, it promotes more western culture of language learning.

6. Recommendations

The curriculum development in Pakistan is based on a top-down policy and the decisions about the curriculum development are done only at a higher official policy making level in which there is no role of the teachers (Rahman, 2003). The teachers are bound to follow the textbooks for language teaching because the textbooks not only provide the structure and content of the course but are also the major source for developing the tests for the examinations. (Mansoor, 2005). However, on the basis of the above given discussion, it can be recommended that the teachers should try to mould their teaching methodology according to the interest and needs of the learners. They should find out the means of developing interest of the learners which can be done by making some modifications in the language teaching materials, providing some extra interesting material to the learners and adapting their teaching methodology in accordance with the learners' needs and interests. They should also integrate themselves with the material and the learning process as according to Tudor (1993), effective learning can be promoted by steering the teaching methodology and study modes in accordance with the students' preferences. The use of learner centered activities like pair work, group work and role-plays can play an important role in promoting learners' interests and develop more and better communicative ability of the students. Similarly, teachers should make more use of inductive way of teaching and develop the habit of self-dependency among the learners.

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Dil öğreniminin kültürü: Pakistan'da kullanılan İngilizce ders kitaplarının karşılaştırmalı incelenmesi

Öz

Bu çalışma iki tane İngiliz Dili Öğretimi (İDÖ) ders kitabının örtük program (bu ders kitaplarının içeriğinde ve dil öğrenimi ve öğretiminin kültüründe saklı olan görünmeyen ve örtük ideolojik varsayımlar) açısından değerlendirilmesini kapsamaktadır. Bu çalışma için seçilen her iki ders kitabı Pakistan'da iki farklı eğitim sisteminde İDÖ için kullanılmaktadır. Biri devlet okullarında diğeri ise Cambridge eğitim sistemini izleyen özel eğitim sisteminde kullanılmaktadır. Araştırmanın çerçevesi her iki ders kitabından seçilen ünitelerin detaylı analizini içermektedir. İlk olarak, ünitelerdeki metinler tür, içerik ve içeriğin kapsadığı örtük programa odaklanarak incelenmiştir. Çerçevenin ikinci bölümü bu kitapların teşvik ettiği dil öğrenim ve öğretiminin kültürünü incelemeyi içermektedir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda, rubrikler, her bir ünitenin sonundaki alıştırmalarda verilen gramer, sözcük ve dört dil becerisine yönelik soru ve etkinliklere odaklanılmıştır. Sonuçlar örtük program ve dil öğrenimi ve öğretiminin kültürü açısından her iki ders kitabında açık farklılıklar ortaya koymaktadır.

Anahtar sözcükler: Ders kitapları, dil öğrenimi, İngiliz dili öğretimi, örtük program.

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The impact of English proficiency on the use of communication strategies: An interaction-based study in Turkish EFL context

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Abstract

The present study investigated communication strategies employed by Turkish EFL learners and aimed at revealing the relationship between language proficiency and the use of communication strategies. An interaction-based methodology was used in which 17 pairs at different proficiency levels were asked to negotiate on two short movies and stimulated-recall interviews were implemented. The results of Kruskal-Wallis test illustrated that participants use particular strategies such as 'use of fillers', 'self-repair', and 'self-repetition'. Proficiency level was not found as a factor influencing learners' strategy choice but significant differences were found in three strategies: 'message reduction', 'topic avoidance', and 'mime'. These findings allow for generating implications for issues to consider in designing classes.

1. Introduction

There have been significant changes in the conceptualisation of language after Hymes (1972) proposed communicative competence which focuses on learners' ability to use language effectively in communication. This view was expanded by Canale and Swain (1980) who introduced 'strategic competence' as one of the components of communicative competence (Kaivanpanah & Yamouty, 2009). Strategic competence is related to the use of communication strategies (CSs) (Chen, 1990; Thornbury, 2005) as it refers to "the ability to cope in an authentic communicative situation and to keep the communicative channel open" (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 25). Therefore, investigating learners' ability to use CSs indicates their strategic competence.

In addition to studies designed to introduce a systematic definition and classification of the concept, many studies were carried out in different contexts to explore the impact of different variables on the use of CSs such as proficiency level, gender, personality, cultural issues and strategy training. Studies focusing on the effects of proficiency are important, as they reveal how developing competencies in English influences learners' ability to overcome communication problems. Despite this empirical tendency to investigate this problem, the relationship between language proficiency and the use of CSs is still questionable (Grenfell & Macaro, 2007). This is the main concern of the present study which is designed to investigate how Turkish EFL learners at university level deal with communication problems during conversations and reveal whether proficiency level has an impact on the use of CSs.

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2. Theoretical background

2.1. Defining communication strategies

There are two main approaches to conceptualise CSs: 'psychological' and 'interactional'. The psychological view (e.g. Bialystok, 1990; Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Poulisse, 1987) underlines the individual's communication behaviour with particular attention to their mental processes and regards CSs as "strategies which a language user employs in order to achieve his intended meaning on becoming aware of problems arising during the planning phase of an utterance due to (his own) linguistic shortcomings" (Poulisse, 1990, p. 88). In researching CSs, this view highlights the need for understanding the cognitive aspects. Conversely, interactional approach (e.g. Tarone, 1980) refers to the interactive nature of using CSs and draws attention to the role of 'negotiation of meaning' in communication (Nakatani, 2010). Within the social interactional perspective, interactionalists conceptualise CSs by focusing on the interaction process between the speaker and the interlocutor (Kongsom, 2009): "CSs are seen as tools used in a joint negotiation of meaning where both interlocutors are attempting to agree as to a communicative goal" (Tarone, 1983, p. 420). Research on CSs adopting interaction approach therefore seeks for identifying the interaction between speakers. Both of these approaches are worth considering in researching CSs because communication is both individual and interactive in nature. Instead of distinguishing these, CSs can be conceptualised as having both personal and mutual aspects. This is because, during communication, both speaker and the interlocutor experience cognitive processes and these are mainly modified through interaction. Therefore, the present study addresses both interactional and cognitive aspects of CSs.

Problem-solving function of CSs is one of the common aspects that is addressed in defining CSs (Yang, 2006). This is underpinned by the assumption that "strategies are used only when a speaker perceives that there is a problem which may interrupt communication" (Bialystok, 1990, p. 3). However, as pointed out by Canale (1983), CSs can also serve as non-problem-solving strategies and used as a means to "enhance the effectiveness of communication" (p. 11), in that speakers can employ CSs to clarify or elaborate on the intended message. This suggests that CSs could be regarded as message enhancers (Nakatani & Goh, 2007).

Consciousness is another common issue of debate in defining CSs and there are conflicting views in the literature concerning speaker's consciousness level while using CSs. According to Dörnyei and Scott (1997), accepting CSs as conscious attempts may be problematic because communication is a complex and dynamic process that requires giving immediate responses. Hence, some strategies can be employed automatically, which may hinder speakers' consciousness (Wiemann & Daly, 1994, cited in Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). They assert that, instead of relying on consciousness level, speaker's 'awareness of the communication problem' and 'intentionality' should be concerned in investigating CSs.

2.2. Classifying communication strategies

The conflicting views about conceptualising CSs that are summarised above have led to different taxonomies (e.g. Bialystok, 1983, 1990; Dörnyei & Scott, 1997; Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Paribakht, 1986; Tarone, 1980). Before delving into the taxonomy adopted in the present study, it is worth discussing two substantial taxonomies. The first one has been introduced by Bialystok (1983) and refers to the 'language source' of CSs: She classified strategies related to speaker's first language as L1-based strategies (e.g. language switch, foreignising, transliteration); strategies related to the target language as L2-based strategies (e.g. semantic contiguity, description, word coinage), and non-verbal strategies as non-linguistic strategies (e.g. gestures, mime).

Faerch and Kapser (1983) categorise CSs as 'reduction' and 'achievement' strategies. Reduction strategies indicate negative speaker performance (Willems, 1987) as they comprise strategies that are employed to avoid sending the intended message (e.g. topic avoidance, message abandonment, meaning replacement). Conversely, achievement strategies are speaker's attempts to send the message by using different CSs such as 'code switching', 'inter-/intralingual transfer', 'generalisation', 'paraphrase', 'word coinage', and 'restructuring'.

The present study adopts Dörnyei and Scott's taxonomy (1997) as it introduces a comprehensible categorisation by taking into account both interactional and cognitive aspects CSs and addresses different functions of the concept with regard to their problem-, process-, and performance-orientated natures. The categories of this taxonomy are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1. Dörnyei and Scott's taxonomy (1997)

Categories	Sub-Categories	Sample strategies
Direct Strategies	Resource deficit-related	Message reduction; circumlocution; approximation; code switching; mime
	Own performance problem related	Self-rephrasing; self repair
	Other performance problem related	Other repair
Interactional strategies	Resource deficit-related	Appeals for help
	Own-performance problem-related	Comprehension check; own-accuracy check
	Other-performance problem-related	Asking for repetition; guessing; responses
Indirect strategies	Processing time-pressure related	Use of fillers; repetitions
	Own-performance problem related	Verbal strategy markers
	Other performance problem related	Feigning understanding

As displayed in Table 1, the taxonomy comprises three main categories: 'direct', 'indirect', and 'interactional strategies'. Direct strategies are problem-based in nature and involve strategies that are used "to provide an alternative, manageable, and self-contained means of getting the meaning across" (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997, p. 198). Secondly, indirect strategies are not particularly problem-oriented but play a facilitative role to achieve the conveyance of meaning by creating positive conditions for communication (e.g. use of fillers, repetitions). Thirdly, interactional strategies involve strategies that are used collaboratively by the speaker and the interlocutor (e.g. appeals for help, comprehension check, asking for repetition).

Each category comprises three sub-categories that are categorised according to the source of the problem: 'own-performance problem', 'other performance problem', 'resource deficit', and 'processing time-pressure' related strategies. While 'own-performance' problem-related strategies refer to the problems that the speaker experiences, 'other-performance' problem-related strategies are about the interlocutor's communication problems. Resource deficit-related strategies are particularly related to the speaker's lack of knowledge and employed as a means to compensate this gap. 'Processing time-pressure' related strategies involve strategies that are used to gain time in communication.

2.3. Research on communication strategies

Among the factors influencing the choice of CSs, the relationship between language proficiency and the use of CSs has been one of the major areas of investigation. Some argue that less proficient learners are likely to experience more communication problems, and hence, implement greater number

of CSs (Chen, 1990; Hua, Nor & Jaradat, 2012; Kaivanpanah, Yamouty & Karami, 2012; Nakatani, 2010). However, previous research studies have provided some conflicting findings.

Paribakth (1986) compared CS uses of intermediate and advanced English as a second language learners in Canada. Participants were asked to do a concept-identification task which required oral interaction with their native speaker interlocutors. The study found no differences between intermediate and advanced students in the choice and frequency of CSs. A study with a similar research procedure was conducted by Chen (1990) in Chinese context, in which high and low proficient EFL learners were asked to communicate two concrete and two abstract concepts with native speakers. The findings contradicted with Paribakth's study: while high proficient learners employed significantly greater CSs and linguistic-based CSs in particular (e.g. approximation, antonym, synonym, circumlocution); the knowledge-based CSs (e.g. exemplification, comparison) and repetitions were used more frequently by low proficient learners. A quantitative study carried out by Chuanchaisit and Prapphal (2009) at a university in Thailand also revealed differences between high and low proficient learners. The study concluded that low proficient students more frequently employed risk-avoidance strategies (e.g. time-gaining) and high proficient learners took risk by using strategies such as social-affective, fluency-oriented, help seeking, and circumlocution. Conversely, in Ting and Phan's study (2008), proficiency level was not found as a factor influencing the use of CSs: the strategy uses of high and low proficient learners did not vary in a simulated oral interaction task where they were asked to discuss a social issue. In Turkish context, Gümüş (2007) investigated strategy uses of high school students at different proficiency levels and no significant differences were found between high and low proficient learners.

These contradictory findings show that it is not clear whether language proficiency is a factor that influences the use of CSs. Hence, further research is needed to understand the relationship between proficiency level and the use of CSs. This was the main concern of the present study which was designed to reveal how CSs uses of EFL learners at different proficiency levels differ in an interaction-based communicative task. This study also attempts to portray strategy repertoires of Turkish EFL learners and seeks for answers to the following research questions:

1. Which CSs are used more frequently by Turkish EFL learners?

2. What is the difference between high and low proficient learners in CS use?

3. Methodology

In the last decade, there is a growing body of research that implements quantitative methods to investigate CSs. These studies mainly attempt to explore the relationships between different factors influencing the use of CSs (e.g. Kaivanpanah & Yamouty, 2009; Khan & Victori, 2011; Metcalfe & Noom-Ura, 2013; Nakatani, 2005). These studies are useful for revealing the statistical correlations between different variables influencing strategy choice. Nevertheless, the validity of studies within quantitative scope remains questionable as they investigate the strategy use within a limited perspective by solely relying on learners' self-reports. To avoid this, the present study implemented an interaction-based research methodology by providing a communicative research environment. This methodology focuses on learners' conversational interactions through "manipulating the kinds of interaction in which learners are involved … in order to determine the relationship between the various components of interaction and second language learning" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 65). Additionally, the present study seeks for understanding mental processes that participants undergo while using CSs, which makes it essential to implement an introspective study where participants are asked to elaborate on the cognitive and affective aspects of their consciousness (Brown & Rodgers,

2002). In doing so, stimulated recall interviews were implemented in which video records and transcripts were used and participants were asked to comment on their performances (Nunan, 1989).

Story-telling was utilised because it requires 'mutual understanding' which is one of the characteristics of everyday communication. Two short movies were selected from Viney and Viney's (1987) video book. These movies were selected because they included basic daily events that speakers with low proficiency levels could talk about, namely, introduction of the main characters, getting prepared for a holiday, and events taking place in a campsite. The movies were muted so that the participants would avoid picking up particular utterances of the characters, which would hinder the authenticity of the communication. This study was not concerned with participants' ability to describe movies and these stories were provided as a means to establish communication. No instruction was provided and participants were free to control the flow of communication.

46 students were invited to the introductory meeting which was held to give information about the research issues. Students were asked to read the consent letter in which ethical issues were addressed. They were assured that their confidentiality would be preserved and the data would be solely used for research purposes. 25 students volunteered to participate. Another meeting was held by different students and 34 students in seventeen pairs agreed to participate in the study. Before the main study, a pilot study was implemented to identify the strong and weak points of the research procedure and necessary changes were made in the design of the main study.

Participants were university students at English Language Teaching Department (ELT) at a university in Turkey. This department was selected because ELT Departments comprise students with different proficiency levels. The majority of students at ELT Departments are female and this made it difficult to have a homogenous sample in terms of gender and proficiency level. Therefore, all participants were female. Participants were divided into two groups considering their proficiency levels. High proficient (HP) learners were the final year students and low proficient (LP) students were the first year students. This was because there was a clear difference between these two groups in terms of language proficiency: while first year students were highly competent in structural aspects of English and less so in communication skills, final year students were highly proficient in communication skills. First year students were around eighteen years old and final year students were around 22 years old. Purposive sampling was used. LP participants were selected considering their exam scores for 'Oral Communication Skills' course. The testing procedure was observed by the researcher. HP participants were selected according to their presentation performances in different courses.

3.1. Data collection procedure

Participants were paired up randomly and asked to negotiate on two different stories. Each pair comprised one story teller and one interlocutor. All interlocutors were highly proficient as they were expected to control the flow of communication through asking relevant questions to story tellers. The story tellers of nine pairs were highly proficient and eight pairs comprised low proficient story tellers.

The data collection process comprised three parts which lasted two days. Part 1 and 2 had similar process, in which story tellers viewed two different movies and described them to their interlocutors. Only story tellers participated in Part 3 in which stimulated recall interviews were conducted. The research procedure is displayed in Table 2.

Table 2. Data collection procedure

1st Day	Part 1	Story teller views the first movie twice Preparation for describing the story The interlocutor enters the room Communication The story teller leaves the room The interlocutor describes the story to the researcher
	Part 2	Story teller views the second movie Preparation for describing the story The interlocutor enters the room Communication The story teller leaves the room The interlocutor describes the story to the researcher
2nd Day	Part 3	Stimulated recall interview with story tellers

In Part 1 and 2, the story teller watched each movie twice. After the story teller felt ready to describe the movies, the interlocutor was invited in the room and they started to communicate. The story tellers were expected to describe the movies as fully as they could and the interlocutors were asked to understand the events as much as they could. When the story telling had ended, the story teller left the room and the interlocutor described the stories to the researcher. The researcher listened to the interlocutor without intervening or asking any question because this process was designed assuming that interlocutors might not carefully engage in conversations unless they were asked to explain what they understood to a third party.

Only story tellers participated in Part 3. As pointed out by Brown and Rodgers (2002, p. 55), in introspective research, "time intervening between mental operations and report is critical and should be minimized as much as possible". Therefore, Part 3 was implemented on the following day. To be able to ask relevant questions to story tellers, before interviews, the researcher transcribed the communication verbatim and analysed the CSs used. Story tellers and the researcher watched the story-telling process together and the researcher asked story tellers to comment on their particular communication behaviour. Questions were asked such as 'why did you say so?', 'why did you mean by this?', 'how did you feel here?' in order to support the analyses of CSs and understand mental processes that participants experience in using CSs. Interviews were conducted in Turkish.

To ensure the inter-coder reliability of the data analysis, CS were analysed by two specialists and a high significant correlation coefficient was found between coders [Pearson's $r = 0.92$, $p < 0.001$]. Content analysis was used to explore the similarities and differences between participants. The performances of participants at different proficiency levels were measured through Kruskal-Wallis test, which is the non-parametric equivalent of One Way ANOVA (Field, 2009). Non-parametric test was conducted because no assumptions and further statistical analysis were made regarding the distribution of the data.

4. Findings and discussion

4.1. The frequency of the use of strategies

The descriptive analysis of the data illustrated that participants relied on particular strategy categories. More than half of the strategies employed in the study were direct strategies, followed by indirect and interactional strategies. The distribution of categories employed is displayed in Table 3.

Table 3. The use of strategy categories

Category	%	Sub-category	%
Direct Strategies	57.6	Resource deficit-related	34.1
		Own performance problem-related	23
		Other performance problem-related	0.5
Indirect Strategies	35.3	Processing time pressure-related	35.3
		Own performance problem-related	-
		Other performance problem-related	-
Interactional Strategies	7.1	Resource deficit-related strategies .	0.5
		Own performance problem-related	1
		Other performance problem-related	5.6

The dependence on direct strategies shows that the main reason for implementing CSs was the lack of knowledge. This is because direct strategies involve strategies that enable speakers to compensate the gaps in knowledge. As displayed in Table 3, the majority of direct strategies employed in the present study were 'resource deficit-related strategies', which indicates that participants employed CSs because of deficient competence in the target language (Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998). 'Own-performance problem-related strategies' were the other popular category of direct strategies, which shows that it was not interlocutors' but speakers' lack of knowledge that led to the high frequent use of direct strategies in this study. Other popular category was 'processing time pressure-related strategies'. This type of strategies involves stalling mechanisms which are employed to gain time in conversations (Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998).Van Hest (1996) points out that dependence on this type of strategies indicates speaker's lack of fluency. The great majority of interactional strategies employed in the study were 'other performance problem-related strategies'. This shows that participants mostly employed interactional strategies when there was a communication problem emerging from interlocutor's performance or comprehension of the intended message.

Besides popular strategy categories, the use of individual CSs is also worth considering as they profile participants' strategy repertoires. The frequency analysis of the communication strategies used by all participants in the study revealed that 1,516 CSs were employed in total. Interestingly, out of 40 different strategies, participants relied solely on six strategies and 76.7% of strategies employed in the study were these popular strategies. Learners' reliance on particular strategies was also found by Paribakht (1986) who stated that learners essentially exploit the same CSs. The distribution of the frequencies of popular strategies is displayed in Table 4.

Table 4. The popular communication strategies

	Strategy	N	Freq.	%
1.	Use of Fillers	17	331	2.8
2.	Self repair	17	207	13.7
3.	Self repetition	17	204	13.5
4.	Self rephrase	17	147	9.7
5.	Mime	17	141	9.3
6.	Approximation	17	133	8.7
	SUBTOTAL	17	1.163	76.7%
	TOTAL	17	1.516	100%

'Use of fillers' was the most popular strategy in this study. Dörnyei (1995) discusses this type of strategies as 'communication maintenance strategies'. These strategies are not related to speakers' lack of competence but employed when speakers need to gain time in conversations. According to Canale (1983), these strategies are essential for developing strategic competence which is required to maintain conversation. In this study, participants mostly uttered 'err' to fill pauses in conversations:

> "He is **err** [body language] **err** drinking." (Student 1)

> "... she is a very energetic woman **err** I think she is **err** she looks as if she is a doing some sports." (Student 12)

Participants' responses to interviews regarding reasons for uttering 'err' confirmed the function of 'use of fillers':

> "I was trying to say that 'she has just stopped doing sport' but I could not say it. Therefore I utter err to gain time to think how to say that expression." (Student 12)

Self-repetition has similar function to 'use of fillers'. Instead of uttering non-lexicalised fillers, speakers repeat a word or a phrase in order to fill pauses in conversations (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). Self-repetition was the third popular strategy in this study and participants frequently repeated their utterances:

> "And also **while she is trying err while she is trying**." (Student 14).

> "**The first couple's the first couple's** man who sits in the restaurant couldn't manage to play tennis." (Student 13)

When asked about the reasons for repeating her utterances, Student 14 accepted that she "was thinking what to say next". High dependence on 'time-gaining' strategies shows that developing fluency is participants' one of the main communication needs. This is because fluent speakers do not make pauses, and hence, do not need to use stalling mechanisms to fill these pauses.

Self-repair was the second popular strategy. These strategies are self-initiated corrections (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997) and speakers use modified output (Nakatani, 2010) to correct their utterances:

> "In fact there was a camping, **there were there was** a tent with them." (Student 1)

> "The girl **want to wants to** go on a holiday." (Student 6)

As displayed above, having noticed the grammatical mistake, students repaired their utterance immediately:

> "After uttering the sentence I realised that I made a grammatical mistake and I uttered the word again in correct form." (Student 6)

Implementing self-repair indicates learners' ability to monitor their performances. They seemed to be competent enough to identify their grammatical mistakes while speaking. However, high frequent use of self-repair also shows that students need to develop accuracy in speaking so that they can avoid incorrect utterances.

Self-rephrase, which is repeating a term by adding something or paraphrasing (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997), was also employed frequently in the study. Participants employed this strategy when they noticed ambiguous points in their explanations:

> "Then **she the hairdresser** show her hairs new err her new hair style." (Student 3)

> "Later on we see that **man I mean the husband**." (Student 2)

As seen in the quotes above, speakers felt that a clarification was needed and restructured their utterances. This was mentioned by Student 3:

> "I thought that my partner might be confused. Therefore I thought that I should have clarified that she was the hairdresser."

Mime was also one of the popular CSs. It involves the use of non-linguistic means that are implemented to support verbal expression (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997; Manchón, 2000). In this study, mime was mostly used when the speaker had difficulty in recalling lexical items and participants expressed the intended message by using their body language:

> "The woman was a err [**showing her hair**] hair dresser." (Student 5)

> "… and he says what are you doing here and err look at his err [**showing watch**] [laugh] clock." (Student 1)

As confirmed by the speaker in stimulated recall interview, Student 1 could not remember the target word 'watch' and overcame this problem by using her body language.

The final popular strategy was 'approximation'. Similar to the use of mime in this study, the function of approximation is to provide alternate lexical items which have similar semantic features with the target word or structure (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). Poulisse (1993) calls this as a 'substitution strategy' because speakers use an alternative vocabulary item that could serve the purpose of sending the intended message:

> I: "What is his job"?
> S: "**Wall drier"** (Student 10).

> "And err the man err was trying to **make a tent**". (Student 8)

> "He **kicks** the ball wrongly and cannot **kick** the ball". (Student 17).

The exchange between Student 10 and her interlocutor illustrates the function of approximation, in that Student 10 reported that she could not recall "wall painter" and instead she uttered "wall drier" as an alternative vocabulary item that may send the intended message to the interlocutor. Similarly, Student 8 and 17 used alternative vocabulary items instead of 'put up' and 'hit'.

4.2. The effects of proficiency level on the use of communication strategies

As displayed in Table 5, no statistically significant differences were found between HP and LP participants in the use of communication strategies ($p > .05$). HP learners used more CSs ($f = 895$) than LP learners ($f = 623$). This contradicts the assertion that less proficient learners face more communication problems, and therefore, they use more CSs (Kaivanpanah et al., 2012; Paribakth, 1986) and parallel studies in which no significant different was found in the frequency of CS use between LP and HP learners (e.g. Bialystok, 1983; Dörnyei, 1995; Kaivanpanah &Yamouty, 2009; Ting & Phan, 2008).

Although this study revealed no differences in overall strategy use, statistically significant differences were found in the use of three strategies. The results are displayed in Table 5.

Table 5. Strategies with significant differences

Strategy	Group	N	Mean rank	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Mime	Low.	8	6.39	5.349	1	.021
	High	9	11.94			
Message reduction	Low.	8	11.44	5.418	1	.020
	High	9	6.25			
Topic avoidance	Low.	8	12.00	9.304	1	.002
	High	9	5.63			
Total	Low.	8	10.13	.750	1	.386
	High	9	8			

As displayed in Table 5, while HP participants employed 'mime' significantly greater than LP participants, 'message reduction' and 'topic avoidance' were used more frequently by LP students.

Identifying the natures of these three strategies indicates the communication needs of learners at different proficiency levels. Previous studies revealed conflicting findings concerning the connection between proficiency and using 'mime'. Some studies concluded that LP learners resort to 'mime' more than HP learners (Nakatani, 2006; Paribakht, 1986). Conversely, Chen (1990) found that proficient learners were better at using visual aids in communication. According to Chen, this is related to learners' confidence: as learners develop their proficiencies, they build confidence and this leads to feeling comfortable enough to use their body language in conversations. This was observed in the present study as well, in that LP participants rarely used their body language.

The fact that LP learners employed both 'message reduction' and 'topic avoidance' significantly greater than HP learners was probably the reason why HP learners employed more CSs in this study. This was because, HP learners endeavoured to describe the movies in detail, and hence, they dealt with more communication problems. Conversely, LP learners tended to avoid engaging in dialogues and summarised the main events. As a result, while the completion time of story-telling process of LP learners was 9 minutes on average, this was 13 minutes for HP learners.

The following extracts are samples of topic avoidance:

"And a man which is customer didn't like his job. **Then** err couple decided to go somewhere to err stay and…" (Student 10)

"The painter man try to do err learn golf the small area and he is able to play. **That's all**." (Student 17)

Although both Student 10 and 17 knew that there were other events that they could talk about, they skipped these to avoid any possible communication problems. Their retrospective comments confirmed that they wanted to complete the conversation as soon as possible:

"I was feeling anxious and trying to keep the communication short. I was looking forward to completing the story-telling."

LP learners' reliance more on avoidance strategies was supported by the previous studies (e.g. Khanji, 1996; Mei & Nathalang, 2010; Nakatani, 2006). In Nakatani's study, carried out in Japan, LP learners reported to use message abandonment strategies more than HP learners. A study carried out by Mei and Nathalang (2010) in a Chinese university revealed that LP learners rely on avoidance strategies significantly more than HP learners. This finding is also in line with Chuanchaisit and Prapphal's study (2013), conducted in Thailand, in which HP learners were found to implement more risk-taking strategies compared to LP learners. As asserted by Nakatani, LP learners' dependence on

avoidance strategies is related to their lack of sense of self-efficacy: "when realizing that they cannot achieve their communicative goal, the learner may choose to avoid the problem which leads to the use of reduction strategies" (Metcalfe & Noom-Ura, 2013, p. 69). This was possibly the main reason why LP learners preferred not to going into detail in describing the movies in the present study.

5. Implications

This study revealed that Turkish EFL learners have limited repertoire of CSs and rely on particular strategies to overcome communication problems. This may be related to learners' educational background, in that they may not find opportunity to practise using different CSs. To overcome this, appropriate classroom teaching procedures should be provided in which learners can build an awareness of the functions of different CSs and practise how to use CSs to overcome different communication problems. In doing so, as suggested by Chen (1990), teachers should avoid presenting highly structured activities but endeavour to provide authentic communicative environments so that students can experience communication problems. This will probably result in improving students' ability to use CSs, which makes it possible to develop their strategic competence (Bialystok, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980).

Popular strategies indicate learners' communicative needs. The majority of strategies employed in the study concerned compensating speakers' lack of competence in English and participants resorted to CSs especially when they needed to gain time in conversations. Additionally, participants frequently repaired their utterances and felt that further explanation was required to clarify their explanations. Addressing these issues should be one of the main concerns of curriculum designers and teachers and classes should be designed to improve learners' accuracy and fluency in speaking.

This study showed that proficiency is not a factor influencing the choice of CSs. This supports Dörnyei's suggestion (1995) that CSs can be taught not only to LP learners but also HP learners. This disconnection conflicts the assumption that less proficient learners experience more communication problems, and hence, they use more CSs. Conversely, LP learners avoid engaging in communication by using avoidance strategies, and hence, they resort to less CSs (Chen, 1990). On the other hand, HP learners take risk and this requires coping with more communication problems. Avoidance strategies are considered as negative speaker behaviour (Nakatani, 2010; Ya-ni, 2007) and resorting on this type of strategies hinder practising English. However, to improve their ability to use CSs, learners need to use strategies which enable them to remain in conversation (Nakatani, 2010). Therefore, instead of avoiding or reducing the intended message, learners should be encouraged to take risks to use English communicatively and exploit the opportunities to practise speaking English.

6. Conclusions

The objectives of the present study were twofold: (a) profiling CSs used by Turkish EFL learners, (b) revealing the role of proficiency level on the use of CSs. The overreliance on six individual strategies confirms that Turkish EFL learners have limited CS repertoires: they frequently use CSs to gain time during conversation, repair structural mistakes in their utterances, rephrase ambiguous points, exploit visual aids, and use alternative lexical item when they cannot recall the target vocabulary item. This study also revealed that proficiency does not affect the choice of CSs. However, significant differences were found in the use of three CSs: while LP learners rely more on avoidance strategies, HP learners use their body language more effectively.

Although it is not possible for a research study to provide authentic communicative environment, this study attempted to approximate it as closely to it as possible through designing communicative research environment. Nevertheless, the research design has some limitations that should be

addressed. The data collection process may have hindered the use of some CSs (e.g. code-switching, feigning understanding, mumbling). The less dependence on the interactional strategies may be because of participants' personal relationship with their interlocutors. This study was carried out at a particular university and included only female students. The participants were upper-intermediate and advanced learners of English. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalised to other contexts and to participants at different proficiency levels. The study has not dealt with the effectiveness of CS use. To better understand the concept, further research should be carried out in different contexts by focusing on different aspects of CSs such as strategy training and the effectiveness of CSs.

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İngilizce yeterliliğin iletişim stratejilerinin kullanımına etkisi: Türkiye'de yabancı dil olarak İngilizce bağlamında etkileşim odaklı bir çalışma

Öz

Bu çalışma, Türkiye'de İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin kullandığı iletişim stratejilerini araştırmayı ve dil yeterliliği ile iletişim stratejilerinin kullanımı arasındaki ilişkiyi ortaya koymayı amaçlamaktadır. Farklı yeterlilik seviyelerindeki 17 çiftin iki kısa film üzerine müzakere etmeleri istenmiş ve anımsamayı sağlayan görüşmeler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Kruskal-Wallis test sonuçları katılımcıların 'söze dolgu yapmak', 'öz tamir' ve 'öz tekrar' gibi belirli stratejileri kullandıklarını göstermiştir. Yeterlilik seviyesi öğrencilerin strateji seçimlerini etkileyen bir faktör olarak bulunmamıştır ancak 'ileti azaltma', 'konudan kaçınma' ve 'vücut dili' stratejilerinin kullanımında anlamlı farklar bulunmuştur. Bu bulgular öğretim planlama konusunda göze alınacak hususlarla ilgili çıkarımlar yapmayı mümkün kılmıştır.

Anahtar sözcükler: İletişim stratejileri, dil yeterliliği, etkileşim-odaklı yöntem, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce

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Impact of explicit instruction on EFL learners' implicit and explicit knowledge: A case of English relative clauses

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Abstract

The present study sought to investigate the effect of explicit instruction (direct proactive explicit instruction) on the acquisition of English passive objective relative clauses. Two groups of participants were involved in the study; a group of advanced EFL learners (n = 16) and a group of intermediate EFL learners (n = 37) who were randomly divided to two groups of experimental (n = 22) and control (n = 15). The experimental group received 4 sessions of explicit instruction on the target structure. The control group, however, did their routine activities in a writing class. There were three test times, namely a pre-, post-, and delayed post-tests. Two separate measures of explicit and implicit knowledge were applied; an offline test of metalinguistic knowledge (an error correction task) and two online speeded tests of implicit knowledge (a self-paced-reading task and a stop-making sense task). The findings revealed a positive effect of explicit instruction for both implicit and explicit knowledge for the treatment group. Durable effects of explicit instruction were found based on the results obtained from the delayed post-test. The advanced group performed very closely to the treatment group, indicating the effect of explicit instruction in accelerating language learning, as well as the necessity of explicit instruction for some language forms to be acquired in EFL contexts.

1. Introduction

The effectiveness of explicit instruction in developing explicit and implicit knowledge of a second language has been intensively studied during the past decades. However, the extent to which explicit instruction can lead to implicit knowledge is still a matter of debate. Ellis (2005, 2009) argues that this debate is partly due to the difficulty of operationalizing implicit knowledge on the one hand, and as its direct consequence, not having appropriate tests to measure it on the other. As illustrated in the meta-analysis by Norris and Ortega (2000), most of the studies on the efficacy of explicit instruction in enhancing implicit knowledge have used measurements assessing explicit knowledge rather than implicit knowledge. By the work of Ellis (2005, 2009) and based on the criteria suggested, appropriate operationalization of implicit knowledge makes it possible to have separate measures for explicit and implicit knowledge, as it is also shown in some recent studies (Akakura, 2012; Ellis et al., 2009).

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Free production tasks, such as writing tasks or oral production tasks, have been introduced and used as a way to measure implicit knowledge (From among: Akakura, 2012; Ellis, 2005, 2009, Ellis et al., 2009); however, because there is no control over the data on fluency, it is difficult to say that the learners do not monitor their output using their explicit knowledge (R. Ellis, 2002). To compensate for this uncertainty, measures which tap the learners' unconscious knowledge of language with the least amount of control over the output seem to be a better solution.

Speeded tests, through which participants are under time pressure to perform, have been used intensively during the last two decades in psycholinguistic studies. These tests are mostly intended to gain an insight into the way different language structures are processed unconsciously, that is, without being able to think metalinguistically in a conscious manner. The preference of online tests to offline tests (e.g. grammaticality judgment tests) in understanding and measuring the implicit knowledge of L2 learners has been rigorously emphasized in the literature (e.g. Felser, 2005; Juffs, 2001; Marinis, 2003, 2010; Roberts, 2012). If well-designed, these performance tests can provide an opportunity to understand what linguistic knowledge individuals have and how they put their linguistic knowledge into use (Jiang, 2012).

Regarding the existing debate in the current literature on the effect of explicit versus implicit instruction on both implicit and explicit knowledge as well as the measures of these two types of knowledge, the present study intended to investigate the effect of proactive form-focused instruction on the acquisition of a complex structure, i.e. English passive reduced relative clauses (PRRCs), among intermediate L2 learners of English.

2. Background

2.1. Explicit versus implicit instruction

As stated above, one controversial question involved in explicit or implicit grammar instruction is the extent each can help develop explicit knowledge, and even more importantly, implicit knowledge which is the ideal outcome of any language teaching setting (R. Ellis, 1993, 1994, 2002, 2005, 2008, 2009; Hulstijn, 2002; Krashen, 1981, 1982, 1985, 2008; Schmidt and Frota, 1986; Sharwood Smith, 1981; DeKeyser, 1998, 2007). Implicit instruction is referred to a learning environment in which learners' attention is drawn to target forms without awareness and the focus of instruction is on meaning (Ellis, 2005, 2009). Explicit instruction, on the other hand, involves learners in developing metalinguistic awareness of the target structure (DeKeyser, 1995).

Both implicit and explicit instruction can be reactive or proactive in nature. Reactive implicit instruction refers to a learning condition in which the target forms happen as an outcome of the task being performed in class. Proactive implicit instruction happens when tasks are deliberately designed to contain target forms, and performing the task provides the opportunity to use those structures. Reactive explicit instruction, on the other hand, refers to a learning condition in which the instructor provides metalinguistic or explicit corrective feedback while learners produce the target structure. Proactive explicit instruction means a structure is dealt with and reacted upon even before it is proven to be problematic and it can be direct or indirect. In direct proactive explicit instruction and feedback the structure is explained metalinguistically prior to any activity, and in the indirect form, the teacher allows learners to discover the rules on their own based on the data provided (Ellis, 2005, 2009).

Different studies have investigated the effect of implicit versus explicit instruction on implicit and explicit knowledge. Hulstijn (1989) investigated the effect of explicit versus implicit instruction on learning an artificial and a natural language. There were three treatment conditions; a form-focused group, the meaning focused group, and the form- and meaning-focused group. The form-focused group outperformed the other two in learning the artificial language regarding scores obtained from a sentence-

copying task containing target sentences and a cued recall task requiring the learners to recall all target structures presented to them during the learning phase. This led to the conclusion that for incidental learning to happen, attention to form when encoding input is a sufficient condition.

In another attempt, Doughty (1991) compared meaning-oriented instruction with rule-oriented instruction in the acquisition of relative clauses among intermediate ESL learners. The meaning-oriented group received sentence clarification strategies and lexical rephrasing through input enhancement (reactive implicit instruction). The rule oriented group, however, received explicit explanation of the target structure (direct proactive instruction). The results, though not exactly determine whether the learners were engaged in implicit learning or not, indicated that attention to form, be it through implicit or explicit learning, can help promote the acquisition of target structures. In other words, no difference between the two types of learning was found.

Robinson (1996) conducted a study on a group of Japanese ESL learners and investigated the effect of implicit versus explicit instruction on the acquisition of pseudo-clefts (a hard rule, considered so by the writer) and subject-verb inversion following an adverbial fronting (an easy rule, again by the writer). There were four conditions involved in the study: implicit condition, incidental condition, rule-search condition, and instructed condition. Implicit knowledge was measured through timed GJ tasks and a questionnaire to measure the participants' awareness. Explicit knowledge was measured through a GJ task on correctness. Conditions 1 and 2 performed the same in terms of the metalinguistic and speeded tests. The instructed group performed better in the GJ task of correctness than group 1 on easy rules, however, groups 1 and 2 gained better scores on the awareness test on the hard structure.

Norris and Ortega (2000), in their meta-analysis of the studies conducted on this issue, maintained that explicit instruction was more effective than implicit instruction in improving both implicit and explicit instruction. However, there was found large variances from study to study. One explanation for this difference was attributed to different operationalization of implicit and explicit knowledge among different studies (e.g. Doughty, 1991; Robinson, 1996). Another problem came from the different measures, and somehow inaccurate measures, of implicit and explicit knowledge used in these studies (Ellis, 2005).

In a more recent study, Tode (2007) investigated the durability of learning through explicit versus implicit instruction on three groups of Japanese learners' learning of "be" verbs. The three groups were assigned to explicit instruction group, implicit instruction group, and a third group with neither of the mentioned types of instruction. The results of the study showed greater short-term retention of the target structure in favor of the explicit instruction group and not the other two. However, it was revealed that despite the short-term retention, there was not long-term retention for the same group (explicit instruction group). This finding was attributed to the lack of follow-up practice, and the necessity of follow-up exercises together with corrective feedback was emphasized by the author.

With regard to the importance of having separate measures of implicit and explicit knowledge, Loewen, Erlam, and Ellis (2009) tried to examine the effect of implicit knowledge on the acquisition of third person (s) which is considered a late-acquired feature of English by the authors. The treatment group received extensive incidental exposure to the target structure, while their attention was drawn to a completely different structure: the indefinite article 'a'. The explicit knowledge of the learners was measured using an untimed GJ task, and their implicit knowledge was tested through an Oral Elicitation Imitation test. No gains in either of the explicit or implicit knowledge of the target structure was found. This was partly attributed to the difficulty of the target structure.

In a recent attempt, Akakura (2012) studied the effect of explicit instruction on the learning of English articles among second language learners. A grammaticality judgment task plus a metalinguistic one was used to measure the explicit knowledge and an elicited imitation task in addition to an oral

production one was conducted for the implicit knowledge. There were CALL activities to practice the target forms which were presented through proactive form-focused instruction. The results of the study showed significant improvement in both production and recognition of articles by the learners with durable gains of the target structure.

What can be observed from the above literature on the effectiveness of explicit instruction in promoting both implicit and explicit knowledge can be explained by Corder's (1967) assertion about language learning. He states that there are aspects in a given second language that cannot be picked spontaneously from the input, that is, the possibility of 'input' becoming 'intake' knowledge. Therefore, some amount of explicit instruction, or what Schmidt (2001) calls 'noticing', might be necessary to help explicit knowledge facilitate learning, or in another word, the implicit knowledge.

On the subject of implicit knowledge, R. Ellis (2002) suggests that the effectiveness of explicit instruction in facilitating implicit knowledge may depend on a number of factors such as the complexity of the target structure, the extent of the instruction, and the availability of the target structure in noninstructional input. In the same way, Hulstijn and Graaff (1994) introduce a number of dimensions to be considered when taking explicit instruction into account as a facilitative tool in second language learning. Complexity (in a cognitive sense) as one dimension refers to the difficulty of a given structure; that is, in the authors' own terms, "[…] the number (and/or the type) of criteria to be applied in order to arrive at the correct form" (p. 103). Accordingly, stated as H3, they proposed that explicit instruction is more advantageous in the case of complex rules than simple rules.

As regards, English reduced relative clauses, and especially passive objective reduced relative clauses (PRRCs) (e.g. the birds noticed in the yard flew away), are among complex and at the same time ambiguous structures shown to be difficult to be processed by second language learners (Adone and Rah, 2010; Franck-Mestre, 2004; Juffs, 1998, 2006). Ambiguous and at the same time complex structures such as English RRCs have been mostly studied with regard to the way they are processed by native speakers (MacDonald, 1994), and in L2 contexts, the way they are processed by advanced or near native L2 learners (Frank-Mestre, 2004; Juffs, 1998) and in a more recent study by intermediate L2 learners (Adone & Rah, 2010). Considering the possible effectiveness of explicit instruction in helping learners attend to ambiguous structures (R. Ellis, 2002), and thereby learn these structures, gives way to the necessity of some form of instruction involved in dealing with such structures.

Therefore, the present study intended to investigate the effect of proactive form-focused instruction on the implicit and explicit knowledge of English passive reduced relative clauses (PRRCs), among intermediate L2 learners of English and have a comparison between the instructed group and a group of advanced L2 learners. As stated in the previous section, most studies investigating the effect of explicit instruction on L2 learners' implicit and explicit knowledge failed to measure the impact of instruction on implicit knowledge due to the limitations of the instruments used (R. Ellis, 2002, 2005, 2009). The present study, however, tried to use instruments measuring real time performance of L2 learners which due to their online nature are better indicators of the L2 learners' implicit knowledge.

The following research questions were investigated in this study:

1. Does explicit instruction affect the explicit knowledge of PRRCs among intermediate EFL learners?
2. Does explicit instruction affect the implicit knowledge of PRRCs among intermediate EFL learners?
3. How are the explicit and implicit knowledge of the target structure different between the instructed intermediate L2 learners and advanced L2 learners?

3. Method

3.1. Participants

Two groups of EFL learners participated in this study. The first group were a number of 35 intermediate EFL learners ranged in age from 18 to 35, who were of both genders. They were randomly divided into experimental (n = 22) and control (n = 15) groups. The participants were all taking a writing course at the time and were not exposed to any other courses relevant to the structures under study. As English is not used in daily discourse in Iran, the participants were not exposed to any language out of class either.

The second group of participants were a group of PhD students of TEFL with an average of 10 consecutive years of studying English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), and had not lived or spent more than a week in an English speaking country. They had all learned English in language institutes, and afterwards at the university during their studies, so they were exposed to language in an explicit manner as it is common practice in Iran.

3.2. Design

This study employed a quasi-experimental design with a pre-test, post-test design involving two groups of intermediate and advanced L2 learners of English. The first group was randomly divided into experimental and control groups. The experimental group received 400 minutes of instruction on target structures during a week. The control group, however, received their routine lessons in their writing course. There were three testing times for this group: a pre-test, a post-test, and a delayed post-test. The second group did not receive any instruction and participated in only one set of the three test series conducted for the intermediate group.

3.3. Instructional materials

As stated in the introduction section, Passive Reduced Relative Clauses (PRRCs) are among complex structures which are difficult for second language learners to learn and process (Juffs, 1998, 2006; Franck-Mestre, 2004; and Adone and Rah, 2010). As a result, this structure was the focus of the present study. The target structure was taught together with other structures, such as adverbial clauses, and noun clauses, in order not to draw attention to the purpose of the study.

3.4. Procedure

In order to select the intermediate learners participated in the study, an ad was put in a language institute in Isfahan, Iran, asking for volunteers to take part in a one-week free course on grammar. The volunteers were first checked based on their scores in previous terms and the ones with an average of 85 out of 100 were selected. The grammar part of Oxford Placement Test (OPT) (Allen, 2004) containing 100 questions was used to evaluate the grammatical knowledge of the volunteers. As the OPT test manual states, the two parts of the test, namely the listening and grammar parts, can be used separately if desired, and the scoring procedure can be done through calculating percentages. Accordingly, a proportion of the score range 135-149 out of 200, which is defined as intermediate level, was calculated to come up with the score range of 71±8 out of 100 based on the grammar section only. The second groups of participants, i.e. the advanced group, took the grammar part of the OPT as well, and the ones (n = 16) scored within 85.5±10, defined as advanced learners by the OPT manual, were selected.

The treatment started a week after conducting the pre-tests. Each lesson started by explaining the structures mentioned in the previous section. The main medium of class was English; the participants' native tongue – Persian – was used when it seemed necessary to clarify the points the participants

showed difficulty understanding. The structures were taught in a deductive manner and direct proactive in nature, as defined by Ellis (2009). The target structures were then taught through form/function mappings of different types of clauses and phrases (Batstone and Ellis, 2009) which were followed by a number of exercises in hand-outs distributed among the participants. An attempt was made to have follow-up form-focused exercises to provide opportunity for the participants to use the target structure, based on what DeKeyser (1998) has proposed as output-based instruction. A post-test was conducted two days after the treatment and a delayed post-test was administered three weeks after the first post-test.

3.5. Instruments

3.5.1. Error correction tasks

This task was conducted to tap on the participants' explicit knowledge of the target structures. The test contained 48 items from among 24 were experimental items and 24 fillers. The fillers contained other grammatical points and were irrelevant to the target structures; half the items in each set were ungrammatical. The tests were checked by a native speaker for their accuracy. To reduce content familiarity, the test items were randomly scrambled to create three versions of the test for the pre-test, first post-test, and the delayed post-test.

The participants were to identify the ungrammatical items. They were asked to correct the wrong items and provide the correct version; furthermore, they were instructed to only underline the ungrammatical segment in an item if they found the item wrong but were not able to provide the correct form. There was no time pressure for completing the task. Responses were scored as (1) for the correct version provided, (0) for not identifying the ungrammatical items, and (0.5) for just underlying the incorrect segments. Reliability for the scores (Cronbach's alpha) was $\alpha = .751$ for the pre-test. Examples 3 (a) and 4 (b) illustrate sample grammatical and ungrammatical experimental items:

(3)
(a) *The patient who advised by his doctor to stop smoking tried to do so.
(b) The birds noticed on the tree pecked at an insect.

3.5.2. Self-paced reading task (moving window technique)

This test was primarily used to see whether the participants possessed the implicit knowledge required in real-time comprehension. A non-cumulative version of self-paced reading task as defined by Just, Carpenter, and Woolley (1982) was used. A non-cumulative presentation provides a more accurate picture of participants' reading in comparison with the cumulative presentation in that the former does not allow the participants to go back and read parts of the sentences again (McDonough & Trofimovich, 2012). The only disadvantage is that the latter is closer to the way we read in real life, and therefore, more naturalistic (Marinis, 2010).

In a non-cumulative presentation, the participants are to read a number of items in a segment by segment (or phrase by phrase) fashion at their own pace. They are instructed to press a pacing button to proceed to the subsequent segments or phrases. The rationale behind this technique is that increasing reaction times to a particular segment indicates difficulty processing during reading (Felser, Roberts, Marinis, & Gross, 2003). The test contained 40 items including 16 items on the target structure and 24 fillers. The experimental items contained both grammatical and ungrammatical sentences.

(4)
The angry nurse$_1$/ criticized at the hospital$_2$/ got fired$_3$.

The slashes represent the way the items were presented to the participants; the participants could not see the slashes. Regions (2) and (3), which were the main target for analyses, were matched for length for all items. The presentation of items and recording the reaction times (RTs) were done by DMDX software package (version 4.2.2.0) designed by Kenneth I. Forster and Jonathan C. Forster at the University of Arizona. The participants were seated in front of a 14-inch monitor and were instructed to press the Right Shift key to move through the items as quickly as possible but not too quickly to miss a segment. There were a number of 6 practice items at the beginning to familiarize the participants with the test procedure. The items were pseudo-randomized by the software; as a result, no two trials (pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test) were the same for each and every participant. The task was about 5 to 7 minutes long.

Since self-paced reading tasks are basically designed to examine participants' level of comprehension on specific target structures, it is of outmost importance to make sure that the participants do not press the pacing buttons in a mindless manner. A number of different techniques have been used to provide mindful reading of items, from among presenting a comprehension question after the presentation of each item (Rah & Adone, 2010; Hopp, 2010), grammaticality judgment tasks (Juffs, 1998), and making a plausibility judgments (Williams, Mobius & Kim, 2001) can be mentioned. Following the previous studies, a grammaticality judgment task was followed after participants pressed the pacing button for the last segment of each item. Accordingly, two options of 'grammatical' and 'ungrammatical' were presented at the right and left corner of the screen, respectively. Participants were trained to press the Right Shift key for 'Grammatical' and the Left shift key for 'Ungrammatical'. Feedback on the accuracy of answers was provided randomly and for only half the experimental and filler items.

3.5.3. Stop making sense task

As with the self-paced reading task, this test was primarily used to see whether the participants had acquired the implicit knowledge of the target structure. In a stop-making-sense task, subjects have to identify at which point the sentence becomes implausible; hence, it forces subjects to use plausibility information. The rationale behind conducting this online test was to have a closer look at the participants' level of comprehension; in other words, it was intended to have a double check on the results obtained in self-paced reading task. The participants had to react on the grammaticality of each segment when they read the items and not at the end of each item. As a result, an opportunity was provided to check whether the segments being recognized as ungrammatical in the stop-making-sense task had longer reaction times in self-paced reading task as well.

As with the self-paced reading task, there were a number of 40 items including 16 items on the target structure and 24 fillers. The design of the test was exactly the same with the self-paced reading task. The items provided for this test were the exact replica of the moving window task, and changes were only made to the words in regions (1) and (3) with non-critical words. The presentation and recording of RTs were carried out via the same software and the same monitor. They were instructed to move through the items by pressing the Right Shift key and react on the grammaticality of segment by pressing the Left Shift key when the sentence stopped making sense to them.

4. Results

As stated in the procedures, the participants went through two sets of tests, namely online and offline. The results of the two sets of tests are presented below based on the accuracy and reaction times obtained from the tests. By accuracy, we mean the accuracy of the judgments on the grammaticality of the test

items in both offline and online tasks. And by reaction time, we mean the reading times of the participants for test items in the online tasks. Accuracy and RTs were analyzed for the three test times of the intermediate group and the one-time testing of the advanced group. Alpha was set at .05 for all statistical analyses.

4.1. Error correction task

A mixed between-within subjects ANOVA was run to investigate the experimental and control groups' performance through the three test times. An independent samples t-test was run to compare the final results of the experimental group (delayed post-test) with the advanced group. The descriptive statistics are presented in Table 1 below. The results of the mixed between-within subjects ANOVA and independent samples t-test are illustrated in Tables 2 and 3, respectively.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for the error correction test for the experimental, control, and advanced groups

		pretest		posttest		Delayed posttest	
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D
Experimental	22	6.63	2.23	11.34	5.71	19	2.72
Control	15	7.43	2.78	7.36	2.60	7.25	2.53
Advanced	16					19	2.48

Table 2. Results of the mixed between-within subjects ANOVA for the error correction test for the experimental and control groups

	SS	df	MS	F	p	ηp2
Within-group						
Time	622.577	1.726	360.634	35.874	.000	.506
Group×Time	771.037	1.726	446.630	44.429	.000	.559
Error	607.405	60.422	10.053			
Between-group						
Group	702.991	1	702.991	39.817	.000	.532
Error	617.946	35	17.656			

The results of the mixed between-within group ANOVA revealed a significant interaction for *Time*Group*, the main effect for *Time,* and the main effect for *Group*. As there was a significant interaction effect, a post hoc test was run to look into the simple effects of *Time* for each group. For the experimental group, there was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test ($p < .001$) and a significant difference between the pre-test and delayed post-test ($p < .001$) and a significant difference between the post-test and delayed post-test ($p < .001$) in favor of the post-test and delayed post-test, respectively. For the control group, there was found no significant difference among the pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test ($p > 0.05$).

Table 3. Independent samples t-test for the error correction test for the advanced and experimental groups

		N	t	Sig.
Error correction	**Exp. Post2**	22	.07	.941
	Advanced	16		

The results of the independent samples t-test indicated that the experimental group were able to gain similar results with the advanced group in their second post-test.

4.2. Self-paced reading tasks

The first part of the analysis was conducting a mixed between-within group ANOVA to examine the overall improvement of the intermediate group in the accuracy part of each item and an independent samples t-test to compare the experimental and advanced groups. The descriptive statistics are presented in Table 4, and the results of the ANOVA and t-test are presented in Tables 5 and 6.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics for accuracy in the SPRT for the experimental, control, and advanced groups

		pretest		posttest		Delayed posttest	
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D
Experimental	22	15.42	3.07	21.33	5.15	19.81	5.95
Control	15	16.60	3.43	14.60	3.22	15.56	3.43
Advanced	16					21.62	5.38

Table 5. Results of the mixed between-within subjects ANOVA for accuracy in the SPRT for the experimental and control groups

	SS	df	MS	F	p	ηp^2
Accuracy						
Within-group						
Time	46.700	2	23.350	4.536	.014	.115
Group×Time	50.700	2	25.350	4.925	.010	.123
Error	360.309	70	5.147			
Between-group						
Group	55.904	1	55.904	8.645	.006	.198
Error	226.330	35	6.467			

The results of the mixed between-within group ANOVA revealed a significant interaction for *Time*Group*, the main effect for *Time,* and the main effect for *Group*. As there was found a significant interaction effect, a post hoc test was implemented to find the simple effects of *Time* for each group. For the experimental group, there was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test ($p = .002$) and a significant difference between the pre-test and delayed post-test ($p = .001$), with the delayed post-test scores greater than both the pre-test and post-test. No significant difference, however, was found between the post-test and delayed post-test ($p = 1.00$). For the control group, on the other hand, there was no significant difference among the pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test ($p > 0.05$).

Table 6. Independent samples t-test for accuracy in the SPRT for the advanced and experimental groups

		N	Statistic (t)	Sig.
Accuracy in the SPRT	**Exp. Post2**	22	1.05	.304
	Advanced	16		

The results of the independent samples t-test indicated that the experimental group performed the same with the advanced group after the instructional sessions. The second part of analysis for the self-paced reading task was to investigate the reaction times on the third region of test items. As with the analyses for accuracy, a mixed between-within group ANOVA together with an independent samples t-tests were conducted.

Table 7. Descriptive statistics for RTs in the SPRT for the experimental, control, and advanced groups

		pretest		posttest		Delayed posttest	
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D
Experimental	22	3104.17	515.37	2486.19	847.25	1846.94	429.10
Control	15	3080.36	480.74	2876.38	636.82	2935.36	576.35
Advanced	16					2651.61	884.25

Table 8. Results of the mixed between-within subjects ANOVA for RTs in the SPRT for the experimental and control groups

	SS	df	MS	F	p	ηp^2
RT23Passive						
Within-group						
Time	1.693E9	1.535	1.103E9	7.776	.003	.182
Group×Time	1.485E9	1.535	9.674E8	6.819	.005	.163
Error	7.622E9	53.725	1.419E8			
Between-group						
Group	986471.095	1	986471.095	.007	.004	.189
Error	4.982E9	35	1.423E8			

The results of the mixed between-within group ANOVA revealed a significant interaction for *Time*Group*, the main effect for *Time,* and the main effect for *Group*. The results from the post hoc test on *Group* showed a significant difference between the two groups ($p = 0.41$) in favor of the experimental group. Moreover, the post hoc test on *Time* revealed no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test ($p = .315$), but the delayed post-test was significantly better than the pre-test ($p = .033$) and post-test ($p = .040$). No significant difference was found for the control group throughout the three test time ($p > .05$).

Table 9. Independent samples t-test for RTs in the SPRT for the advanced and experimental groups

		N	Statistic (t)	Sig.
Region three RTs in the SPRT	**Exp. Post2**	22	3.65	.001
	Advanced	16		

As the findings show, the experimental group outperformed the advanced group. The overall speed (RTs) of the participants in two groups of control and experimental before and after instruction and the advanced group could give us a deeper understanding of the effect of instruction. Therefore, a sum of RTs on both regions 2 and 3 was calculated for each test time.

Table 10. Descriptive statistics for sum RTs in the SPRT for the experimental, control, and advanced groups

		pretest		posttest		Delayed posttest	
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D
Experimental	22	5439.01	971.17	4788.79	933.93	4035.20	704.60
Control	15	5382.85	1140.24	5456.32	1143.71	5489.32	1210.32
Advanced	16					4523.34	1310.71

Table 11. Results of the mixed between-within subjects ANOVA for sum RTs in the SPRT for the experimental and control groups

	SS	df	MS	F	p	ηp^2
Within-group						
Time	1.693E9	1.535	1.103E9	7.776	.003	.182
Group×Time	1.485E9	1.535	9.674E8	6.819	.005	.163
Error	7.622E9	53.725	1.419E8			
Between-group						
Group	986471.095	1	986471.095	.007	.009	.152
Error	4.982E9	35	1.423E8			

The results of the mixed between-within group ANOVA revealed a significant interaction for *Time*Group,* the main effect for *Time,* and the main effect for *Group*. The results of the post hoc test

for *Time* revealed a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test (p = .001) and a significant difference between the pre-test and delayed post-test (p < .001) in favor of the delayed post-test for the experimental group. But there was no significant difference between the post-test and delayed post-test (p = .144). For the control group, there was no significant difference among the pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test (p > .05). Table 12 shows that, although no significant difference was found between the two groups, the experimental group gained smaller overall RT scores on time 3 compared with the advanced group.

Table 12. Independent samples t-test for sum RTs for the advanced and experimental groups

		N	Statistic (t)	Sig.
Sum RTs on regions 2 and 3 in the SPRT	**Exp. Post2**	22	1.45	.151
	Advanced	16		

4.3. Stop-making-sense task

This online test was conducted to gain a more detailed picture of the way participants processed test items. A mixed between-within group ANOVA together with an independent samples t-test were run to investigate the performance of the three groups.

Table 13. Descriptive statistics for third regions in the SMST for the experimental, control, and advanced groups

		pretest		posttest		Delayed posttest	
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D
Experimental	22	5.09	1.26	6.42	1.69	7.09	1.37
Control	15	4.73	1.22	4.80	1.01	4.79	1.12
Advanced	16					6.75	1.29

Table 14. Results of the mixed between-within subjects ANOVA for third regions in the SMST for the experimental and control groups

	SS	df	MS	F	p	ηp^2
Accuracy Active						
Within-group						
Time	45.720	2	24.250	4.436	.024	.125
Group×Time	51.701	2	25.360	4.825	.020	.133
Error	341.308	70	6.137			
Between-group						
Group	56.914	1	54.804	7.645	.004	.188
Error	236.334	35	6.477			

The results of the mixed between-within group ANOVA revealed a significant interaction for *Time*Group*, the main effect for *Time*, and the main effect for *Group*. The results of the post hoc test for *Time* revealed a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test (p = .002) and a significant difference between the pre-test and delayed post-test (p < .001) in favor of the delayed post-test for the experimental group. But there was no significant difference between the post-test and delayed post-test (p = .151). For the control group, there was no significant difference among the pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test (p > .05). As can be observed in Table 15, the experimental group could obtain the same accuracy scores with the advanced group.

Table 15. Independent samples t-test for the advanced and experimental groups

		N	Statistic (t)	Sig.
Sum RTs on regions 2 and 3 in the SPRT	**Exp. Post2**	22	.77	.44
	Advanced	16		

5. Discussion

The present study sought to investigate the effect of explicit instruction on the learning of ambiguous structures, here passive objective relative clauses. Both explicit and implicit knowledge were analyzed before and after instruction for the experimental group and were compared with the control and advanced learners. The first research question concerned the effect of explicit knowledge on the metalinguistic (explicit) knowledge of the target structure for the experimental group. Significant effects for instruction were found in the immediate offline post-test for the experimental group which sustained with an increase to the delayed post-test. Despite similar performances by the experimental and control groups in the pre-test, the experimental group outperformed the control group in the immediate post-test. This revealed an improvement in metalinguistically producing the right form of the target structures after instruction. The main effect of explicit instruction on explicit knowledge was revealed when scores obtained from the delayed offline post-test of the experimental group were compared with that of the advanced group. As illustrated in the error correction test's results, no significant difference was found between the two groups' performances. This suggested a significant effect for instruction to the extent that it enabled the intermediate group to perform almost similarly with the advanced group.

The second research question concerned the effect of explicit instruction on the implicit knowledge of the target structure. The SPRT results for the accuracy revealed significant gains throughout the three test times for the experimental group. The speed of processing, indicating how automatized the target structure had become through the course of treatment, was evaluated by comparing RTs for judging test items. Although no significant difference was found among the three test times for the experimental group, mean RTs generally decreased from the pre-test to post-test and finally the delayed post-test. This fall in RTs can imply faster judgments on the grammaticality of test items, and when paired with the results obtained from the accuracy of judgments, it can be claimed that the experimental group had reached some level of automatization after instruction. This constant decrease in RTs from the pre- to delayed post-test, i.e. faster decisions on grammaticality, together with a slight fall in accuracy gains from the post- to delayed post-test can be explained by what has been overly recognized as the trade-off hypothesis. This trade-off which is an increase in one cognitive aspect at the expense of another has been contributed to learners' limited cognitive capacity while doing online tasks (Skehan and Foster, 1997; Yuan and Ellis, 2003, Tavakoli and Foster, 2008).

The results obtained from the analyses of the SMST's third regions added to the evidence to the effectiveness of explicit instruction in improving implicit knowledge. First, the experimental group gained shorter RTs from time 1 to time 3 of testing on this region. Second, similar performances by the experimental and the advanced groups were found indicating that explicit instruction had helped intermediate learners read faster. Moreover, although no statistically significant difference was found between the two groups, the experimental group performed faster in their delayed post-test than the advanced learners.

As mentioned earlier, the SMST was administered to provide support for the findings obtained from the SPRT. The plausibility judgments on the third regions were analyzed to see whether there was a shared pattern between the length of RTs on the third region obtained from the SPRT and the judgments on the same region for the SMST. The overall pattern of plausibility judgments on the third region

improved through the course of study for the experimental group. This was in accord with the longer RTs obtained from the SPRT. As with the SPRT results, the SMST results of the experimental group were compared with that of the advanced group. Similarly, the groups performed in the same way with even better accuracy gains in favor of the experimental group. A rather revealing comparison between the RTs on the third region in the SPRT and the accuracy gains from the SMET between the two groups gave rise to the effectiveness of explicit instruction on the implicit knowledge of the experimental group. That the experimental group gained the same results with the advanced group on both tests brought strong evidence to the effectiveness of explicit instruction in improving implicit knowledge for this group.

The findings of this study regarding the experimental group's improved performance after instruction in both offline and online tests is supported by Norris and Ortega (2000) who maintained that explicit instruction makes a considerable difference in learners' state of knowledge with durable effects. The findings are further supported by what Ellis (1990) puts forward as to the delayed effect of instruction when the grammatical features help learners attend to the input and help them acquire the structure procedurally. Accordingly, the improved performance in the delayed post-tests compared with the first post-tests can be due to the fact that more time was needed to internalize the structure (see, Gass, 1997; Nassaji and Fotos, 2004; VanPatten, 1996, Mackey, 1999; Ellis, 2009). This is in line with Akakura (2012) in which explicit instruction showed durable effects concerning the acquisition of articles, and opposed to Tode (2007) in which no durable results were obtained for explicit instruction.

Regarding the fact that the participants in this study benefited from explicit instruction to improve both their explicit and implicit knowledge, it can be claimed that the findings of this study may serve as an attempt to refute opposing ideas towards the effectiveness of explicit instruction. For instance, Krashen (1981, 1982, 1993) views explicit instruction to be effective in only simple structures and only in form of explicit knowledge. The results obtained here provide evidence that complex structures can be acquired through explicit instruction. Furthermore, as Loewen et al., (2009) stated, implicit learning did not result in either explicit or implicit knowledge, which can suggest the necessity of some form of explicit learning. Moreover, Krashen argues that the effects of explicit instruction are evident only if there are measures by which implicit knowledge is tested in free production tests and not in situations under monitoring and control. This is what Ellis (2005, 2009) is concerned with, i.e. lack of appropriate measures of implicit knowledge. Hence, using appropriate measures of both explicit, and more importantly, implicit knowledge in this study led to more reliable evidence to the effectiveness of explicit instruction in improving implicit knowledge.

6. Conclusion

Overall, the present study came at three major findings. First, there was found a positive effect of explicit instruction on both explicit and implicit knowledge of a complex structure. This finding is supported by a large body of research showing that explicit learning is effective. Second, similar online and offline performances by the intermediate and advanced groups were in accord with N. Ellis's (2002) assertion that language acquisition can be speeded by explicit instruction, and without some form of consciousness raising or noticing, formal accuracy cannot be attained or may be picked up very slowly (Sharwood Smith, 1981; Schmidt, 1990; Terrell, 1991). Third, the durable results of the explicit instruction for both implicit and explicit instruction brought about evidence to the long-term effect of explicit instruction.

There are pedagogical implications regarding the results obtained in this report. Previous studies (e.g., Adone & Rah, 2010) found that intermediate level learners participated were not able to process complex structures such as RRCs as well as advanced learners did. Regarding the results obtained in the

present study, it can be argued that, by the help of instruction, and specifically explicit instruction, learners can speed their progress in acquiring more complex structures which might occur, if at all, in a much slower pace.

The study was not without its limitations. Number one limitation concerns using speeded online tests as they require the participants to work with computers in addition to learn how the tests work. Therefore, there might be an instrument effect regarding getting used to the keys defined for 'yes' and 'no' answers, and the RTs obtained might be affected by this matter. Another limitation was the number of instructional sessions. In this study, there were four sessions of instruction each 100 minutes. More reliable results may be obtained with a longer period of instruction.

To provide more in-depth findings regarding the effectiveness of explicit instruction on explicit and implicit knowledge, future studies can provide other measures of implicit knowledge such as free production tasks and pair the results with speeded online tasks to mitigate the possible instrument effect mentioned here. Other complex structures can be put to scrutiny to see whether explicit instruction can be effective for all kinds of structures. And finally, lower level participants can be a subject of inquiry to examine under what conditions and for which proficiency levels explicit instruction can work best.

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Açık öğretmenin yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenenlerin örtülü ve açık bilgileri üzerindeki etkisi: İngilizce ilgi cümlecikleri vakası

Öz

Bu çalışma doğrudan öğretmenin(direkt proaktif doğrudan öğretme), İngilizce edilgen nesne konumundaki ilgi cümleciklerinin edinimi üzerindeki etkisini incelemektedir. Bu çalışmada iki grup katılımcı yer almıştır; deney (s = 22) ve kontrol (s = 15) grubu olmak üzere gelişigüzel bir şekilde ikiye ayrılmış ileri seviyede İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenenler grubu (s = 16) ve orta seviyede İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenenler grubu (s = 37). Deney grubu hedef yapıya yönelik 4 ders doğrudan öğretme almıştır. Fakat kontrol grubu yazma derslerindeki rutin aktivitelerini yapmıştır. Dersten önce, dersten sonra ve gecikmeli olmak üzere 3 test zamanı vardır. İki ayrı doğrudan ve dolaylı bilgi ölçeği uygulanmıştır; bir tane çevrimdışı üst dil bilgisi testi (hata düzeltme aktivitesi) ve iki tane çevrimiçi hızlandırılmış dolaylı bilgi testi. (bir adet kendi hızına göre yapılan okuma aktivitesi ve bir adet stop-making sense aktivitesi). Bulgular, deney grubu için doğrudan öğretmenin hem dolaylı hem de doğrudan bilgi üzerinde olumlu etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Doğrudan öğretmenin kalıcı etkileri gecikmeli uygulanan testten alınan sonuçlara bağlı olarak çıkarılmıştır. İleri seviyedeki grup, deney grubuna çok yakın bir performans göstermiştir. Bu da İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenme bağlamında edinilmesi gereken bazı dil yapıları için doğrudan öğretmenin gerekliliğinin yanı sıra doğrudan öğretmenin dil öğrenimini hızlandırmadaki etkisini göstermektedir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Doğrudan/Doğrudan öğretme; dolaylı/dolaylı bilgi; çevrimdışı/çevrimiçi testler; indirgenmiş İngilizce ilgi cümlecikleri

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