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Dr. Paul Robertson

Rouhollah Askari Bigdeli

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June 2017 Foreword

By Paul Robertson and Rouhollah Askari Bigdeli

The current issue is composed of six studies with focus on such issues as group-dynamic assessment, teacher professionalism and resilience, discourse markers in published articles, ESP, and task-based language teaching. In the first study, Kioumars Razavipur and Afshin Rezaee investigated the effect of group-dynamic assessment (G-DA) on EFL learner's grammar. They involved twenty female high school students in the study. The participants received instruction related to the grammatical constructions, embedded in their course book, based on G-DA principles. To collect the data, the researchers audio-recorded the interactions occurred among the instructor and the learners. The results of the study revealed that G-DA had a positive and remarkable effect on the participants' learning of the target structures. Furthermore, the G-DA diagnostic advantages were underlined in the study. In the second study, Forough Behnamifar and Pantea Pahlavani were motivated to find out difference of professionalism and resilience among male and female Iranian EFL teachers in English language institutes. 100 teachers (50 male & 50 female) participated in the study and the data were gathered through two questionnaires. The study found that there was a statistically significant difference between male and female teachers' professionalism, with the results being in favor of females. On the other hand, there was no statistically significant difference between male and female teachers' resilience. The third study carried out by Maedeh Tadayyon and Mehrdad Vasheghani Farahani analyzed the type and the frequency of discourse markers (DMs) used in articles published by Iranian and English native scholars. The researchers focused on articles published in English. The findings indicated that elaborative discourse markers had the highest frequency in Iranian researchers' articles, followed by temporal, contrastive and implicative discourse markers. The study also showed a significant difference between Iranian and English researchers in terms of the distribution of DMs. Additionally, the results showed that discourse markers used in Iranian

articles were higher than that of native English articles. In the fourth study, Samad Mirza Suzani and Farzaneh Bahadori investigated the acceptability of Persian Academy approved dentistry terms in view of dentistry students. 69 male and female students were involved in the study and the data were collected through a questionnaire. The results revealed that the selected equivalents were more widely accepted than the other three term-making procedures, while coined equivalents came next and borrowing and expression took place at the lowest level of applicability, respectively. The fifth study, by Hamid Marashi and Mehdi Zargari, was concerned with the comparative impact of explicit and implicit grammar instruction in a TBLT Setting on EFL learners' autonomy and writing. The researchers included 60 Iranian male intermediate EFL learners in the study. The results showed that the participants who received explicit instruction of grammar outperformed the participants who received instruction on grammar implicitly in terms of both their autonomy and writing. The last study carried out by Seyedjamal Abdorahimzadeh focused on implementing task-based teaching procedure (TBTP) in English literature courses. The researcher involved 72 juniors majoring in English Teaching and English Literature in the study in which the experimental group was exposed to TBTP pivoted on a presentation/discussion task. The findings showed that the procedure was significantly more functional than non-communicative lecturing regarding learners' progress over the instruction period. The same was also the case for learners with more literary knowledge when it was compared with communicative lecturing. In light of such merits, implications for integrating L2 literature as a part of foreign language teaching into task-based instruction framework are discussed.

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Group-Dynamic Assessment of EFL Learners' Grammar: A Microgenetic Development Approach

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Biodata

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Abstract

The current study aimed at exploring the impact of Group-Dynamic Assessment (G-DA), as a recent offshoot of Dynamic Assessment (DA), on EFL learners' grammar learning from a microgentice perspective. To attain this prime objective, after being homogenized through a PET test, out of 90 students, 20 third-grade female students, aged 15-17 at 'Fatemata Zahra' public

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high school in Khoram Abad, Iran were selected. They received instruction related to the grammatical constructions embedded in their course book, namely, *Right Path to English3* in a course lasting 12 one-hour sessions. The classes were run based on G-DA principles and procedures and the interactions taking place among the teacher and learners were audio-recorded, transcribed, and analyzed microgenetically. Results revealed that G-DA had a positive and remarkable effect on the participant' learning of the target structures. In addition, this study highlights the G-DA diagnostic advantages. Finally, the implications of the findings for both assessment and pedagogy were discussed further.

Keywords: Sociocultural theory, Group-Dynamic Assessment, Mediation, Grammar Learning

1. Introduction

The dominant view concerning the relationship between teaching and testing continues to be the traditional static view, according to which teaching is the object of measurement for testing. Working within this dualistic position where sharp borderlines are drawn between teaching and testing, tests have been found to exert adverse influences on teaching and learning (Cheng, Watanabe, & Curtis, 2004). As far back as 1990, Davies lamented that the tail is wagging the dog in an analogy which likens teaching to a dog and testing to the dog's tail. Furthering the analogy, Davies argued that logically the tail should be an instrument under the dog's control, not the other way around. Regrettably, the tail continues to wag the dog in most educational systems where the dichotomy of teaching and testing still holds sway. Aiming to overcome the limitations that inhere in the dualistic view of teaching and testing, Dynamic Assessment (DA), principally rooted in Vygotsky's (1978) conceptualization of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), has been proposed. In static or non-DA assessment, when students' abilities are measured, efforts are expended to create homogenous assessment procedures as a mechanism of ensuring test fairness. In actuality, any interaction or assistance from others during the testing session is forbidden and considered cheating. Put it in other words, from this perspective, teaching and testing are considered as two separate activities which rarely feed into each other (Birjandi & Mosalanejad, 2012). In this view, if any interaction or intervention takes place during assessment, both the test ritual and its reliability would be placed in jeopardy (McNamara, 2001).

By contrast, DA stipulates that giving mediation, when learners are struggling with a question, not only is helpful for learners to perform better on individual tests, but it also helps them go beyond their current level of abilities (Poehner, 2008). In actual fact, assessment sessions may provide opportunities to raise those abilities that could not have fully developed. As Lantolf and Poehner (2004) highlights, DA has the potential to capture a more comprehensive and detailed picture of L2 learners' abilities. Further, DA contributes to cultivating the developing abilities by offering systematic and finely-tuned mediation. In Poehner's exact words, "the more familiar assessment model in which teachers observe student performance is replaced by one in which teachers and students jointly carry out activities, with teachers intervening as necessary to help learners stretch beyond their current capabilities" (2009, p. 471). Taken together, DA can be defined as "a subset of interactive assessment that includes deliberate and planned meditational teaching and assessment of the effects of that teaching on subsequent performance" (Haywood & Tzuriel, 2002, p. 40).

Despite the bulk of studies supporting evidence for efficiency of DA, more precisely one-on-one DA, doubts have been raised concerning the applicability of DA beyond individual cases, say, in large classes (Birjandi & Mosalanejad, 2012). More specifically, it is commonly said that one-on-one DA can be only fruitful in tutorial sessions or what is dubbed 'rickshaw model' (Poehner, 2009) wherein the mediator scaffolds only one learner at a time. In response, G-DA was advanced by Poehner (2009) to highlight the opinion that DA need not necessarily be confined to tutoring sessions. Whereas G-DA shares the same core principles with DA, it takes account of the group's ZPD not that of the individual. As Poehner (2009) puts it:

> "G-DA entails understating the group to be not merely as a context for individual performance but a social system in its own right that might be supported to function in ways that are beyond the present capabilities of any individual member" (p. 472).

As such, the class is taken as a social unit which is not equal to the sum of its individual students. In G-DA, the collective ZPD of this social unit becomes the target of assessment and learning. Although several studies have explored the applicability of one-on-one DA (Birjandi, Estaji, & Deyhim, 2013; Hidri, 2014; Ashraf, Motallebzadeh, & Ghazizadeh, 2016), further research is needed to substantiate the claims of G-DA. In this light, the present study was undertaken to explore the effectiveness of G-DA in the context of an Iranian high school class.

2. Literature Review

In the following, we first elaborate upon the core theoretical notions that are crucial to understand G-DA. Afterwards, a number of empirical DA studies carried out across different contexts and skills are reviewed. The theoretical thinking that underpins DA is Sociocultural theory (SCT). One of the fundamental premises of SCT is that human mind is mediated, not an autonomous data processing system working independently of its environment (Lantolf, 2000). Proponents of SCT believe that learning is basically socially situated; it is accomplished first in a social context and it is then internalized to be transferred to other independent situations (Ohta, 2000). In actuality, Vygotsky's SCT of mind stipulates that cognitive development takes place at both inter-psychological and intra-psychological levels:

> "Every function in child's cultural development appears twice. First, on the social and later, on the individual level, first between people (inter-psychological) and then inside the child (intra-psychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All of the higher functions originate as actual relationship between individuals" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 57).

The central point is that the movement from the former level to the latter one takes place through a dynamic process of providing systematic prompts or mediations among individuals (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994).

Mediation cab be defined, according to Lantolf and Thorne (2006), as "the process through which humans employ culturally constructed artifacts, concepts, and activities to regulate (i.e., gain voluntary control over and transform) the material world or their own and each other's social and mental activity" (p. 79). Linking this concept to second language education, mediation can be provided by other partners through social interaction or by the learner through private speech. That is, mediation can be provided externally, as when a learner is provided with assistance by a more able learner to perform a given task, or internally, as when the learner draws on his/her own resources to carry out a language function (Lantolf, 2000). From the SCT perspective, both of the noted instances can be viewed as socially mediated activities in that both involve social interactions with others or with oneself. It is worthy to highlight that the heart of the SCT of mind is that external mediation is prerequisite for internal mediation to be achieved. Accordingly, inner speech originates from social speech so that it can be utilized by learner so as

to regulate his/her own behavior. Nonetheless, mere provision of mediation would not result in learning. For mediation to be optimally effective, it should be fine-tuned to the learner's ZPD.

ZPD is one of the best-selling points of SCL, which has attracted considerable attention in the literature (Lantolf, 2000; Poehner, 2008; Gass & Selinker, 2008; Ellis, 2008). The most frequently referenced definition of ZPD is "the distance between the actual developmental levels as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). Regarding assessment, from the SCT perspective, lack of attention to ZPD is the main pitfall of traditional tests. These tests, according to critics (Luria, 1961), can measure only what learners have already learned, namely their actual level of development. They are not able to gauge the potential for further development, nor the distance between current ability and proximal ability.

As outlined above, both one-on-one DA and G-DA are premised on the idea of ZPD. One-one-one DA is an interactional activity that not only can allow to diagnose L2 learner's matured abilities but it can also promote the developing abilities (Poehner & van Compernolle, 2011). In this way, as Haywood and Lidz, (2007) state, one-on-one DA can assist testers to collect useful information about both present and potential L2 learners' capabilities. Regarding G-DA, Poehner (2009) is of the opinion that the same underlying principles are at work for both approaches. Poehner adds more, however, that G-DA has the distinction of addressing a group's ZPD in contrast to one-to-one DA dealing with an individual's ZPD. It should be remembered that "engaging the entire group does not mean that the teacher should not offer mediation to individuals but that every mediating move should also be directed to the group" (Poehner, 2009, p. 477).

G-DA includes two main approaches, namely concurrent and cumulative (Poehner, 2009). In concurrent G-DA, when an L2 learner fails to respond to teacher's feedback, the teacher changes the next prompt of leading question to another student. That is, "the interaction shifts rapidly between primary and secondary interactants as one learner's question, struggle, or comment sets the stage for another's contribution" (Poehner, 2009, p. 478). Conversely, in cumulative G-DA, when a learner encounters a problem, the teacher runs through the full range of pre-determined mediating prompts with him/her before addressing another individual (Poehner, 2009). In other words, the teacher affords the first addressed student with the most implicit to most explicit

prompt in order to diagnose the problematic area as well as to allow the learner to approach his/her level of maximal possible development. Overall, in contrast to the commonly held psychological view, learning takes place at the intersection of the social, cultural, and the individual. As such, any measurement of such learning should take account of these triple dimensions of learning. We now turn to empirical studies that have put to the test the promises of DA.

Thus far, a few studies have empirically studied DA across a few language skills and knowledge areas. In an early attempt, the effectiveness of an interventionist approach to DA with adult immigrant EFL learners was investigated by Kozulin and Grab (2002). Results pointed to both the feasibility and effectiveness of DA in obtaining information about students' learning potential. It was also found that students with a similar performance level demonstrated different abilities to learn and use new comprehension strategies. Davin (2013) conducted a study in which a teacher mediated grammatical problems through cumulative interventionist DA approach. The students asked to learn how the wh-questions are formed in Spanish. The teacher employed DA procedures to mediate three most common lexical and grammatical errors of students, and at the same time, he tried to assess and improve the participants' ability to form wh-question structures. In general, results revealed that the students had different problems and each of them needed special treatment and mediation to remove their problems and master the target structures. The number of given prompts was different for the learners showing that their ZPD was not at the same level.

Furthermore, Poehner (2009) in a seminal study demonstrated that G-DA and its different approaches (concurrent and cumulative) can be effectively implemented in large L2 classes. After transcribing and analyzing the collected data in a qualitative approach, he showed that G-DA can make classroom interactions more systematic and attuned to learner's emergent abilities. The teacher could proceed from the developmental perspective informing her moment-to-moment interpretations of the learners' needs and helping her know how to best respond. The findings indicated that G-DA can be employed as a framework that affords teacher to view groups not only as assemblages of individuals but as cohesive units the development of which hinges and is interrelated with the development of other individuals.

In the Iranian setting, studies have addressed the application of DA in listening (Ashraf, Motallebzadeh, & Ghazizadeh, 2016; Alavi, Kaivanpanah, & Shabani, 2012) and reading skills

(Birjandi, Estajiand & Deyhim, 2013). Alavi, et al. (2012) investigated the effects of G-DA-based instruction on the co-construction of knowledge among Iranian L2 listeners. Employing a microgenetic, longitudinal, and interactionist approach to the study, they found that collective scaffoldings can pave the way for establishing distributed help among learners. The impact of one-on-one DA on reading comprehension and metacognitive awareness of reading strategy use was the focus of the study done by Birjandi, Estajiand, and Deyhim (2013). Adopting an interventionist approach to DA, they found improvements in reading comprehension as a result of using DA. However, similar improvements in metacognitive awareness strategy use did not emerge, perhaps because metacognitive strategy use is not amenable to short term changes.

As this brief review demonstrates, not many empirical studies have been carried out on G-DA. In addition, we are aware of no study dealing with G-DA and EFL learners' grammar learning in public secondary schools. Therefore, this study was designed to pose and find an answer to the following question.

RQ: How can G-DA contribute to the learning of grammatical structures by high school female EFL learners?

3. Method

3.1. Participants and Research Setting

Twenty female high school students within the age range of 15 to 17 participated in this study. They were selected from among a population of 90 third-grade high school students. The logic of their selection was their similar scores on the Preliminary English Test (PET). It is of note that participants took part in the study on a voluntary, extracurricular basis not as part of their regular class hours.

3.2. Instrumentation

PET's reading and writing parts were used as a basis of choosing participants of similar English proficiency. The reading comprehension component consisted of five parts with 35 multiple-choice items providing simple written material such as signs, brochures, newspapers, and magazines. The writing section, on the other hand, comprised of three parts: sentence completion, specific information, and writing a letter of 100 words. The rationale behind the use of PET was its popular use as a standard measure of lower proficiency levels. The internal consistency of the reading part was .78. In order to collect the required data, the class

interactions were audio-recorded via a number of microphones installed in different parts of the classroom. That is, the conversations occurred among the instructor and the learners were meticulously recorded, transcribed, and analyzed by the researchers.

3.3. Data Collection Procedure and Data Analysis

After choosing the participants, they participated in a grammar learning course based on G-DA principles and procedures. The course was run twice a week, 60 minutes each session, for a duration of six weeks. When working on the grammatical points, the teacher/mediator tried to direct the students' attention to different aspects of the structures, including form, meaning, and use. More specifically, for each target structure the learners' sentences containing errors were written on the board and the teacher attempted to scaffold the learner whose sentence was being revised to co-build grammar knowledge. Indeed, the teacher drew on Davin and Donato's (2013) framework in graduating mediation (Table 3.1); that is, "by providing contingent and graduated support, in the form of questions, hints, or prompts" (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994 as cited in Davin & Donato, 2013, p. 6) to assist the students. As the table shows, the teachers went through a continuum from the most implicit to the most explicit feedback. The teacher tried to "explore and promote the group's ZPD while also supporting the development of individual learners" (Poehner, 2009, p. 471). In practice, whenever a given learner (primary interactant) failed to respond to the feedback, the teacher following a concurrent model of G-DA directed the prompt to another learner (secondary interactant). If the feedback failed to elicit a pertinent response, his mediation was attuned to the groups' ZPD and the teacher provided the other learners with more explicit feedback. In this approach, "the teacher's interaction shifts rapidly between primary and secondary interactants as one learner's question, struggle, or comment sets the ground for another's contribution" (Poehner, 2009, p. 478). The process of graduated feedback continued until problems with different aspects of grammar knowledge (e.g. form, meaning, and use) were rectified.

Additionally, the mediations provided by the teacher were audio-recorded, transcribed, and analyzed microgenetically. According to Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005), microgenesis refers to how development takes places over the course of a particular interaction in a specific sociocultural setting. Put it other words, the microgenetic analysis can go beyond the actual developments in learners through providing detailed evidence to indicate how emerging capacities of learners' grammar as triggered and developed by graduated assistance (van

Compernolle & Zhang, 2014). Therefore, after collecting and transcribing the selected episodes taken from the interactions taking place between the mediator and students from the treatment sessions, they were analyzed microgenetically. This analysis was of great importance because without it, any documentation of developments in the students' grammar knowledge was impossible. The process of analysis focused on revealing how G-DA can provide a situation where all of the students can benefit from the provided mediation to get full control over a grammatical structure. Thus, by drawing on the transcriptions of the selected episodes, the microgenetic analysis focused on finding how mediation moves between the mediator and the participants as a group helped to discover the level of group' s ZPD in which the whole class were acting upon. For instance, if the group was capable of self-correction with minimum scaffolding from the teacher, it would be taken as evidence that the group had control over the structure and it was well-established within the group's ZPD. Otherwise, if the students were doubtful of the teacher's modifications, it could indicate that the intended structure was not yet within the group's ZPD. Another possibility was when a structure was totally absent in the group's ZPD and this became clear through the complete failure of the group members to cooperate in the process of mastering the target grammatical point. So, this was when the class was in need of instruction and aided performance most. The importance of this identification phase was related to the concept of group's ZPD, i.e. if a group failed to make any modification in the errors they committed, it was interpreted in the sense that the grammatical point was lacking or was not well-established in its ZPD. Then, this lack of competence of a grammatical structure was the starting point for treatment.

Table 1

Mediation Prompts Provided by Teacher (Adopted from Davin & Donato, 2013)

Level of Explicitness	Mediation/Prompt
Prompt 1	Pause with skeptical look
Prompt 2	Repetition of entire phrase by teacher
Prompt 3	Repetition of specific site of error
Prompt 4	Forced choice option (i.e., when or where?)
Prompt 5	Correct response and explanation provided

4. Results

As noted earlier, this study sought to track changes in grammar learning in lieu of collaborative dialogues between the teacher and learners. In what follows, some episodes from the teacher and learners' moment-to-moment dialogues are microgenetically analyzed so as to provide concrete evidence how G-DA contributes to grammar learning in EFL learners. To attain this objective, a number of transcribed episodes of the interactions between the teacher (T) and the students (S1, S2, S3) serve as the data for analysis. Episode 1 shows an example of an interaction in which a student used an incorrect question word. An asterisk is used to identify the place of the error that the teacher is mediating.

Episode 1

1. S1: Which is your interested field?
2. T: (Pause with questioning look). .....(Prompt 1)
3. S1: (Silence and thinking about the question).
4. T: *Which is your interested field?.....(Prompt 2)
5. S1: Oh! I got it. What is your interested field?
6. T: That's it. Well done.
7. S1: So, instead of 'which' I should use 'what' for constructing this question.
8. T: Sure.

As shown, in the exchange, the student tries to construct a question in order to convey her intended meaning. Since the constructed question is incorrect, the teacher offers the first prompt by pausing to indicate that an error was committed by the student, to which the student remains silent, looks, and thinks about the question. Then, the teacher moves on to the second prompt, and repeats the learners' entire question with emphasis on the question word 'which'. As soon as this prompt is offered, the student is able to locate and correct the error by changing 'which' into 'what'. Next, the teacher confirms her question and appraises her attempt to solve the problem. Finally, the student can provide a much more explicit explanation about the grammatical point to show that she digest the structure. In this series of interaction, the offered prompts allowed the mediator to provide proper and contingent mediation for the student while he simultaneously assesses the quality of the required mediation.

The next episode, illustrates how participants struggled with the order of adjective and noun in English, which is the reverse of Persian order. At the begging of L2 development, Iranian EFL

learners usually put the adjective after noun, leading to ungrammatical structures. Episode 2 presents an example to show how the offered prompts scaffold the learners to remove the problem. In this interaction, two learners attempt to understand the correct word order.

Episode 2

1. S1: I ate the *apple red. It was very tasty.
2. T: (Pause with questioning look). ..... (Prompt1)
3. S1: (Silence). Is it incorrect?
4. T: Look another student. I ate the *apple red. It was very tasty. ..... (Prompt2)
5. S2: The *apple red. ..... (Prompt 3)
6. T: Look at S1 and says *apple red?
7. S1: Yes, *apple red.
8. T: I ate the *apple red or red apple? ..... (Prompt 4)
9. S2: Red apple.
11. T: Yea, right. But why?
13. S1 and S2: Umm, well….
14. T: I ate the red apple. Why is it ‘red apple’ instead of ‘*apple red’?
15. S1 and S2: (Silence and thinking about the response).
16. T. As I said, in English in contrast to Farsi, the adjective is put before noun.

In the episode, the interaction occurs between the teacher and two students. As shown, four prompts are required in order for correctly putting the adjective before the noun in the construction of S1. In Turn 1, the teacher asks the class to write a sentence about the food they have just eaten. After reading their sentences, the teacher writes the S1’s sentence on the whiteboard. As she puts the adjective ‘red’ after the word ‘apple’ incorrectly, the teacher provides the first prompt with a short pause with questioning look to indicate an error was committed. S1 remains silent, signaling to the teacher that she is unaware of the error and requires more explicit mediations by asking whether her statement is not correct. The teacher, then, turns to another student, and provides the second prompt by iterating the entire sentence of S1, with stress on the phrase ‘the apple red’. The repetition of the phrase ‘apple red’ by S2 in turn 5 shows that she is unaware of the error location and a more explicit mediation is required. The teacher, therefore, provides prompt 3, repeating only ‘apple red’, revealing the error location for the students. Again, S1 confirms her utterance by saying ‘yes, apple red’, indicating that they

are in need of receiving the next prompt. After providing the fourth mediation, that is; an either or option, S2 can correct the error, finding out that the word order must be 'red apple', thanks to the teacher's assistance in narrowing down the scope of the problem and hence explicitly highlighting the specific locus of the error. As DA aims, according to Poehner and Lantolf (2008), simply not to assist learners master a particular task and to help them develop a principled understanding of the content, the teacher asks the students to explain why 'red' should be put before 'apple'. Since, the students remained silent and could not provide a clear explanation, accordingly, the teacher explicitly explains that adjective should be put before noun in English in contrast to the students' native language.

The next episode depicts how the graduated prompt walked the learner through graduated steps toward the correct use of '*be going to*' pattern. In order to make sure whether the class mastered the grammar point, the teacher asked the students to write a sentence based on the structure. After constructing their sentence, the teacher called one of the students to read her statement and he wrote it on the whiteboard. In the following interaction, the teacher interacts with the students in front of the board.

Episode 3

1. S1. I usually study at home, but I am going to *studying in the library.
2. T. (Pause with questioning look). ..... (Prompt 1)
3. S1. (Silence and thinking about the problem).
4. T. I usually study at home, but I *am going to studying in the library. (Prompt 2)
5. S2. Uhm. Well, it is correct.
6. T. I am going to *studying in the library. ..... (Prompt 3)
7. S1 and S2. (Silence and looking each other).
8. T. I am going to *studying or I am going to study?..... (Prompt 4)
9. S1. Oh! I am going to study.
10. T. Very well done. But why should we say 'to study instead of *studying'?
11. S1 and S2. (Silence).
12. T. As we said after the structure '*be going to*', we ..... (Prompt 5)
13. S2. We understood. For example, we are going to have a party in our house next week.
14. T. That's it. Perfect.

In the third episode, in order to assist the students to learn future '*be going to'*, the teacher provides four prompts from the most implicit to the most explicit. The interaction occurs between the teacher and two students as the primary interactants. The other students observing the interactions are called as secondary interactants. As the S1 uses the target structures incorrectly, the teacher offers the first implicit prompt through looking at her questionably so that she recognizes that there exists a problem with her sentence. After receiving the prompt, the students remain silent and think about the problem, signaling to the teacher that he should offer the second prompt by reading the constructed statement and emphasizing 'I am going to studying' to attract the students' attention to the error location. Next, since the S2 continues that there is no problem with the sentence, it pushes the teacher to provide the third prompt and put emphasis on the 'studying' in order to narrow down the structure. However, the students cannot locate the incorrect grammar point yet and they just look at each other confusedly. Then, the teacher says 'I am going to studying or I am going to study?' In fact, he gives a choice and offers a much more explicit mediation. By getting the offered mediation, the S1 can choose the correct choice, but they cannot answer the teacher's question regarding the reason to choose 'to study instead of studying'. Since they were unable to answer the teacher's question, he provides an explicit explanation about the intended structure, helping the students to master the grammatical point. Through constructing a new sentence, S2 demonstrates that she can transfer her learning to talk about new meanings.

Episode 4 entails the interaction and mediation centered on the use of gerund as sentential subject. To assist the students to learn the target structure, the teacher asks the students to compose a brief paragraph about their daily life activities. The writing prompt was adjusted so that they would need to use gerund in their sentences. Afterwards, the teacher randomly called one participant to read out her composition. The teacher, then, chose one of the sentences in which 'gerund' structure had been incorrectly used. He wrote the ungrammatical sentence on the whiteboard to be visible for all students.

Episode 4

1. S1:*Eat breakfast is important for me. I eat cheese and bread every morning.
2. T: (pause with questioning look). (Prompt 1)
3. S1, S2, and S3: (silence and looking at the statement).
4. T: *Eat breakfast is important for me. I eat cheese and bread every morning. (Prompt 2).

5. S2: *Eat breakfast is important for me.

6. T: *Eat breakfast

7. S1, S2, and S3: (silence and looking at each other).

8. T: *Eat or eating?

9. S3: Uhh, eating, I got it. ..... (Prompt 3)

10. T: (Smile) well done.

11. S1: Eating is correct instead of eat.

12. T: Why? ..... (Prompt 3)

13. S2. Because we should use ‘gerund’ here.

14. T: Great.

15. S4: For example, learning Arabic is not easy for me.

15. T. That’s it. Bravo.

As shown, in the exchange occurred among the teacher and students, an attempt was made by the group members to overcome the problem. In order to construct collective ZPD, the teacher offers graduated and contingent mediation and changes it appropriately among three students. Since the constructed sentence by S1 is not correct, the teacher looks at the students questionably so as to provide the first implicit prompt to indicate that the sentence should be corrected and reformed. Being silent and looking at the whiteboard, the students demonstrate that they require more prompts and the problem is not within their ZPD yet. Consequently, the mediator reads the sentence aloud and puts emphasis on the erroneous part. The S2 can locate the sentence wherein the error has been committed but she is not able to determine it clearly. This makes the teacher limit the scope and say ‘eat breakfast’. The students cannot locate the error yet and this urges the mediator to provide a more explicit mediation ‘eat or eating’. The S3 immediately chooses the correct structure and S1 confirms his answer. The S2 can explain why ‘eating’ should be used instead of ‘eat’. Finally, one of the students sitting at the back of the class as a secondary interactant gives an example. This can reveal that within an interaction not only can primary interactants benefit from receiving mediation but it also can be beneficial for secondary interactants (Davin, 2013; Poehner, 2009).

Overall, the results revealed that the G-DA approach could enhance and cultivate the students’ grammar acquisition in the Iranian EFL context. The given episodes shed light on the

fact that if prompts and mediations are offered appropriately, not only are the learners able to locate the errors but they are also able to correct them in their constructions.

5. Discussion

The current study set out to explore how applying G-DA approach can affect grammar learning in a class of Iranian EFL learners. To achieve this goal, the class was oudio-recorded and the interactions among the teacher and students were transcribed and microgenetically analyzed. Due to space constraints, a few episodes were presented and discussed in the result section. The findings provided evidence suggesting that G-DA can positively affect participants' grammar learning. More specifically, results indicated that when mediation was offered appropriately, the learners were able to locate and correct the errors in their utterances. As was revealed in the given episodes, as the mediator provided graduated and contingent prompts based on an implicit-explicit scale, the students could benefit from them to develop their developing grammar knowledge in an efficient way. It is worthy to highlight that both primary and secondary interactants took advantage of the mediations provided by the mediator.

In the literature, one of the often-cited advantages of DA has been its capability to simultaneously diagnose and enhance the students' developing abilities. In keeping with this view, results approved that when a problem raised, the mediations provided not only could guide the students to diagnose the problematic area but they could also serve as a platform for furthering their mastery of the structure. This finding is in line with van Compernolle and Zhang (2014) demonstrating that active reception and participation in interactive settings have the potential to help learners know how to improve and repair their performance.

Some scholars while acknowledging the potential benefits of DA have expressed concerns regarding its applicability (Poehner, 2005; Albeeva, 2007). This study provides partial defense against the common criticism that is leveled at dynamic assessment. As displayed, EFL learners can take advantage of receiving mediation though they may be different levels of ZPDs. Therefore, the findings of this study are in support of Haywood and Lidz (2007) who explained that DA is an interactive procedure that systematically and objectively measures the degree of change that occurs in response to cues, strategy, feedback, task conditions that are introduced during testing. In contrast to static assessment, G-DA focuses on individual and group variations and changes rather than compare the learners' abilities to normative or typical performance. In

actuality, in DA and G-DA, the prime goal is to measure how and what extent performance can be improved with receiving intervention from others (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014) which the current findings could lend support to it.

Finally, the results are in accordance with some other studies carried out in the Iranian EFL context (Alavi, Kaivanpanah, & Shabani, 2012; Khoshsima & Rezaee, 2016). In particular, the parallels between our findings and those of Alavi and colleagues further validate the potential of G-DA to be fruitfully utilized at classroom level. The fact that the above mentioned two studies addressed two different language areas, theirs being on listening ours being on grammar, furnishes some type of mono-method-hetero-trait (Campbell & Fiske, 1959) evidence demonstrating the applicability of G-DA in diverse language skills and knowledge areas.

6. Conclusion

To sum up, this study examined the effectiveness of G-DA in the context of an EFL grammar course. Microgenetic analysis of a sample of interactions generated through graduated mediations confirmed that G-DA, if properly utilized, can be a useful option for classroom teachers for both diagnosis and assessment purposes. As to the latter, assessment, the idea is that the more explicit mediation the learners need to arrive at the answer, the more limited their ZPD and the lower their scores on the construct of interest. Conversely, learners who would arrive at the answer with the provision of more implicit mediation should be graded higher on the ability area of interest. As for diagnosis, G-DA is even more promising in that in the course of mediation the teacher can gain a detailed understanding of not only the problematic areas but also the reasons behind the problems. This is true of grammar courses, where learners may have problems with a given structure for different reasons. By identifying learners' ZPD, G-DA enables teachers to more efficiently tailor their instruction to individual student needs. It would no exaggeration to state that for classroom practice G-DA has the combined advantages of two of the biggest innovations in language testing and assessment; those of item response theory and of cognitive diagnostic assessment. Through identifying their ZPD, it locates learners on the ability scale and at the same time it diagnoses the cognitive attribute that causes the student to struggle with a given structure.

A number of limitations in the present study restrict what can be read into its findings. First, like all experiments odds are other factors crept in the study which might threaten the link one

wishes to establish between the provided treatment and the outcome. In other words, one has to be extremely cautious in deriving a causal path between G-DA and the resultant incidents in the grammar course we studied. A control group would have increased the credibility of the findings; something we could not secure in this study. Thus, future studies with control groups would further our understanding of the limits of the applicability and usefulness of G-DA. Furthermore, our study was conducted in the context of a group of volunteer girls with similar language proficiency levels. Further research with mixed ability levels with random samples of participants is needed to validate the findings from the present study as well as those reviewed in the literature. Finally, other areas of communicative competence if examined would provide us with mono-method-hetero-trait or convergent validity with regard to the usefulness of G-DA.

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Iranian EFL Journal



The Difference between Male and Female Teachers' Professionalism and Resilience in English Language Institutes of Iran

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Abstract

EFL teachers play one of the most influential roles to help students engage and persist in the long process of second or foreign language acquisition. Due to the important role of teachers in language learning process, school systems and educational programs are expected to optimize the conditions for teachers' effectiveness. This study tried to explore and investigate difference of professionalism and resilience among male and female Iranian EFL teachers in English language institutes in two cities, Qazvin and Karaj. A total of 100 teachers (50 male & 50 female) with more than five years teaching experience were selected for the study. The required

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data was collected through two professionalism and resilience questionnaires. Independent-Samples T-Test and Mann-Whitney U Test (SPSS version 22) were used for analysis of obtained quantitative data of the study. The results of the study indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between male and female teachers' professionalism, the results were in favor of females. On the other hand, there was no statistically difference between male and female teachers' resilience. The findings of the study will help the teacher mentors, administers, language institutes, and policy makers in the field of teacher education to plan training programs that will cover the skills for relevant components of professionalism and resilience among EFL teachers.

Keywords: EFL teachers, Professionalism, Resilience

1. Introduction

Many people all over the world need to obtain a greater degree of ability in the learning English as a second or foreign language and it makes the English language teaching one of the important professions (Salehi, Taghavi, & Yunus, 2015). In today's world the concept of professionalism plays an important role. If any organization either commercial or educational is to survive in this competitive market, it needs to recruit professional employees. In recent years, teaching has not been viewed as a profession. It was thought that any person with even limited knowledge is capable of teaching. However, this view has been changed to a substantial degree. Nowadays, few would question the notion that teaching is and should be regarded as a profession. Teacher professionalism has been a long-standing topic in the area of education (Wang & Lin, 2013).

But what is professionalism and what are its ingredients? As Sato (2013) states, there is no straightforward definition of professionalism, rather professionalism should be defined in a way that takes into account the conditions of local socio-cultural circumstances. Therefore, different countries may define professionalism in different ways with some common trends such as the possession of professional knowledge, a professional attitude, and autonomy (Yeom & Ginsburg, 2007). Professionalism is defined as executing a profession in the most exacting and cautious manner, with the least amount of faults. Simultaneously, attempting to achieve improvement, demonstrating originality by way of successive enhancement, understanding even the insignificant points of the job, and working further than anticipations by identifying the

significant components has been declared as indicators of professionalism (Adiguzel, Tanriverdi, & Sonmez-Ozkan, 2011, cited in Yorulmaz, Altinkurt, & Yilmaz, 2015).

Teacher resilience is a relatively recent area of investigation which provides a way of understanding what enables teachers to persist in the face of challenges and offers a complementary perspective to studies of stress, burnout and, attrition (Masten, Best, & Garmezy, 1990). Taylor (2013) believes that the key issue for teachers to be able to stay in their jobs is resiliency: "Resiliency is a critical element that teachers need to meet these challenges and remain in the education profession" (p.1). Today, teachers' task is debatably more complex, stimulating, and difficult than at any other time (Johnson et al., 2012). Resilient teachers have an optimistic viewpoint for education generally and teaching particularly. Resilient teachers solve problems and change agents (Patterson, Collins, & Abbott, 2004; Bernshausen & Cunningham, 2001, cited in Benders & Jackson, 2012). According to Gibbs (2002) "Teachers need to be able to survive the demands, threats and challenges within the diverse circumstances of teaching" (Rubio, 2009, p.36); he believes that an effective teacher requires the capacity to be tenacious, flexible, and innovative on modern teaching strategies and be ready in the case of failure. However, it has been shown that resilience is not only a personal characteristic, but is a complicated concept resulting from a dynamic relationship between risk and protective factors (Benard, 2005).

Consider the fact that the current research wishes to investigate these two variables simultaneously between both male and female in an EFL context (Iran), the study is significant; and hopefully will present a proper guideline and implication in the field of teacher education. The results of this study could also make policy makers and administrators to be more concerned with intrinsic and extrinsic factors that influence the teachers' efficiency and motivation in their professions and help them to lessen negative factors and improve positive factors.

Current study aimed to find out to what extent the Iranian EFL teachers (male and female) are qualified in terms of professionalism and resilience and compare male and female teachers regarding these two variables.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Teacher Education

Teacher education appears to be a fundamental part of every language teaching schedule. Teacher education schedules are created in reaction to absence of teachers in traditional programs or the discontent with the nature of graduates of various programs. Most teacher education is dropped within one of three divisions: (1) pre-service education and training (2) in-service qualification upgrading, and (3) continuing professional development (CPD) (Chegeni & Chegeni, 2013). New researches show that the quality and characteristics of teachers and their teaching are the most significant factors for student results and outcomes. The variety and complexity of the post-modern era puts modern and significant challenges on teacher education. The important role that personal placements have for professional education needs to be better comprehended and acknowledged.

Teacher training programs require to focus more on goals like advancement conflict literacy, self-consciousness, empathy, leadership and cooperative skills, i.e. taking into consideration not only the perceptive but also the social and emotional facets of human development (Malm, 2009). Generally, it is reasonable to express that teacher education has been prophesied on the concept that knowledge in the area of teaching and learning can be transferred through the procedures of systematized professional education to make individuals as teachers. This knowledge has been extensively defined as comprising of subject matter and pedagogy (Freeman, 2001).

2.2. Concept of Professionalism

Evans (2008) defined professionalism as professionally-influenced customary action that is coherent with prevalently-held consensual descriptions of a particular job and that both contributes to and expresses comprehensions of the job's purpose and position and the special nature, extent, and levels of function supplied by expertise predominant within, the job, as well as the inclusive moral guideline underpinning this practice. However, throughout the world anticipations regarding teachers and teachers' professionalism are high. Therefore it is significant to express on the essentials components that establish teachers' professionalism and the method in which teacher education can contribute to the improvement of their professionalism (Snoek, 2009). Sockett (1993) stated five categories for professionalism: 1) character, 2) commitment to change and continuous improvement, 3) subject knowledge, 4) pedagogical knowledge, and 5)

obligations and working relationships beyond the classroom (Tichenor & Tichenor, 2005). By analysis of literature several characteristics of teacher professionalism can be derived that include: 1. Professional independence, by way of professional monopoly and control over their own profession; 2. Participation in the entrance to the occupation; 3. Control over the main values and good management within the occupation through the use of moral guidelines, linked to permission for cancelling the code; 4. Fellowship of professional associations that can take the obligation for these elements; 5. A focus on honesty and devotion of the professional; 6. Public responsibility for results of professional performance; 7. A powerful academic and practice-based knowledge source that underlies professional activities; 8. Participation in the improvement of that knowledge source through participation in academic research, action research and self-study; 9. Lifelong professional improvement of the members of the occupation; 10.Cooperation with colleagues and stakeholders; 11.Participation in the innovation of the occupation; 12.Obligation of the teacher to corroborate both the public and the state in their comprehending of educational matters (Snoek, 2009).

2.2.1. The Effect of Gender on Professionalism

Nagler et al. (2014) examined the entering first year resident physicians' perspectives on professionalism subjects and their own manners that may deny these perceptions. The number of participants was 375 residents. Residents were inquired on two subjects: their perception of the professionalism of 46 specific manners connected to training and patient care; and their own involvement in those specified manners. A majority of residents classified all 46 specified manners as unprofessional, and a majority had either monitored or involved in each manner. For all 46 behaviors, a greater percentage of women classified the manners as unprofessional. Men were more likely than women to have participated in manners. There were some significant differences in both the perceptions of specified manners and in self-reported observation and participation in those manners between institutions. It was reported that men were more likely professional than women.

Varia (2014) focused on the professionalism of male teachers compared to female teachers. The study was directed on 1044 teachers of secondary schools in Saurashtra of Gujarat. The study was directed using a professionalism scale. The variable under research was gender. The method of study was descriptive survey research. The findings of study pointed out that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of male and female for time keeping,

content mastery, contemporary knowledge, physical appearance, communication with students, communication with colleagues, delivery mechanism, pro activeness and follow up, parents counselling and students counselling. It was concluded that gender did not have any effect on the professionalism of secondary school teachers.

2.3. Resilience and Resiliency Theory

Most of us consider resilience as the capability to bend but not crack, skip back, and perhaps even cultivate in front of opposed life experiences. The compensatory model views resilience as a factor that counteracts disclosures to risk. Risk factors and compensatory factors freely contribute to the prediction result. The challenge model proposes that a risk factor, on the condition that it is not too excessive, can actually improve a person's adaptation (Ledesma, 2014). Resiliency theory supplies a conceptual framework for taking into account a strengths-based access to comprehending child and adolescent progression and informing interference design (Fergus & Zimmerman, 2005). Resiliency theory provides the conceptual scaffolding for learning and comprehending why some person grow up to become healthy matures despite risks disclosure (Garmezy, 1991; Masten, Cutuli, Herbers, Reed, 2007; Rutter, 1987; Werner & Smith, 1982, cited in Zimmerman, 2013).

2.3.1. The Effect of Gender on Resilience of Teachers

Estaji and Rahimi (2014) examined if gender and years of teaching experience have a significant effect on teachers' ability to be resilient. The results indicated significant differences in teachers' resilience, gender, and their level of teaching experience. A significant difference was seen between resilience of teachers with different levels of teaching experience. High-experienced teachers were more resilient. Sarwar, Inamullah, Khan, and Anwar (2010) investigated the relationship between resilience and academic achievement of secondary level students of Pakistan. The obtained data showed that there was no statistically significant relationship between academic resilience and academic achievement of secondary school students. Female students were more resilient than male students. There was no difference in the resilience of rural and urban students.

According to the scope and aim of the present study, the following research questions were proposed:

1. Is there any statistically significant difference between male and female EFL teachers of language institutes of Iran in terms of their professionalism?

2. Is there any statistically significant difference between male and female EFL teachers of language institutes of Iran in terms of their resilience?

3. Method

3.1. Design

As the nature of the current study was to investigate the difference of professionalism and resilience between male and female teachers in English language institutions of Iran, The researcher did not interfere in the process of the research (i.e. there was no treatment in the study and hence there were no experimental and control groups). Due to the nature of the study and considering the research questions the study used a cross-sectional survey design that yielded quantitative data.

3.2. Participants

The participants of this study were chosen among teachers of English language institutes in two cities, Qazvin and Karaj. The number of the participants of the study was 100 teachers (50 male & 50 female). There was limitation regarding the levels in which the teachers taught. They had classes in three levels of language proficiency as intermediate, upper intermediate, and advanced. The participants had more than 5 years of experience in teaching. The mean academic qualification for the respondents was bachelor's degree, 75 teachers; master's degree, 24 teachers; and only one teacher held PhD. The ages of participants included: 38 participants age 24-30, 32 participants age 30-36, 12 participants age 36-42, 11 participants age 42+, and 7 participants who did not give their age. The mean qualification for the respondents was bachelor's degree, 69 teachers; master's degree, 24 teachers; and only one teacher holds PhD. 6 respondents had not mentioned to their academic qualification. The teachers' academic degrees and ages were not considered as determining factors in this research.

3.3. Instrument

The Mc Mahon and Hoy's (2009) professionalism index is an 8-item Likert-type scale that measures the degree of professionalism of teachers. Teachers were asked to describe their beliefs and behaviors along a six point Likert scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Scores can extend from 8 to 48 with higher scores implying greater professional orientation and behavior of the teacher. This professionalism index measures four key elements of teacher professionalism: academic engagement, self-regulation of professional standards, effectiveness, and contribution

to a professional community. This index is a criterion for measuring the extent of individual teacher professionalism (Wayne K. Hoy, 2015). The reliability of the scale is good, with an Omega coefficient of reliability of .81(Mc Mahon & Hoy, 2009, cited in Wayne K. Hoy, 2015). The approximate time for completing of this questionnaire was about 10 minutes.

Resilience was measured using Wagnild and Young's (1993) Resilience Scale (RS). The scale is a self-report questionnaire comprised of 26 items that are positively worded. Responses are recorded on a seven point Likert scale ranging from "1" (Strongly Disagree) to "7" (Strongly Agree). Scores can extend from 26 to 182, with higher scores implying greater resilience (cited in Vickery & Gray, 2014). Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from .72 to .94 confirming the internal consistency reliability of this Resilience Scale (Wagnild, 2009). The teachers were asked to complete the questionnaire in 20 minutes.

3.4. Procedure

The current research aimed to investigate whether male and female EFL teachers in language institutes of two cities differ in their professionalism and resilience. The participants were 100 EFL teachers (50 male & 50 female) at English language institutes in two cities; Qazvin and Karaj. Both questionnaires were administered to participants in person and at the same time. They were told that participation in the study would be absolutely voluntary and they were free to stop answering the questions if they did not like to continue. Their contribution in the research was appreciated and before giving the questionnaires to the respondents, the researcher requested them to answer the questions honestly. Mc Mahon & Hoy (2009) professionalism index and Wagnild and Young (1993) Resilience Scale (RS) were used for gathering the needed quantitative data of the research.

4. Data analysis and Results

After the gathering of the data, normality test was used to determine if a data set is well-modeled by a normal distribution and to compute how likely it is for a random variable underlying the data set to be normally distributed. The explore command in SPSS Statistics was performed to determine the normality of the gathered data. Based on the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality in Table 1, it was proven that the distribution of obtained data of professionalism index was normal, the p-value is more than 0.05 (Sig = .106 > .05). On the other

hand, the distribution of obtained data of resilience scale was not normal, the p-value is less than 0.05 (Sig = .005 < .05) (Table 1).

Table 1

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Professionalism	.081	100	.106
Resilience	.109	100	.005

Since the gathered data of professionalism index was normally distributed, the parametric test was performed. An independent samples t-test was conducted to examine whether there is a statistically significant difference between male and female teachers' professionalism. The test revealed statistically significant difference between males and females (t = 3.827, df = 98, p=0.00 < 0.05) (Table 3). Female teachers (M = 31.12, SD = 5.005) reported significantly higher levels of professionalism than male teachers (M = 27.76, SD= 3.673). The mean difference between two genders was statistically significant (3.36) (Table 2). With due attention to the obtained results, the first null hypothesis of the study was rejected. The effect size was calculated by Cohen's d formula. The obtained result, d = 0.765408, showed moderately high effect size.

Table 2

Group Statistics

	participants	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Professionalism	Female	50	31.12	5.005	.708
	Male	50	27.76	3.673	.519

Table 3

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
professionalism	5.309	0.23	3.827	98	.000	3.360	.878	1.618	5.102
			3.827	89.918	.000	3.360	.878	1.616	5.104

Since the obtained data of resilience scale was not normally distributed, the nonparametric test was performed. A Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to examine whether there is a statistically significant difference between male and female teachers' resilience. The Mann-Whitney test indicated no statistically significant difference between males and females, p value is more than 0.05 (U = 1003, p = .089>0.05). Considering the acquired results, the second null hypothesis of the study was approved (Table 4).

Table 4

Test Statistics of Resilience Scale Results

	Resilience
Man-Whitney U	1003.500
Wilcoxon W	2278.500
Z	-1.701
Azymp. Sig(2-tailed)	.089

5. Discussion

Teachers are one of the most significant factors for the prosperity of any educational system. Teachers are among the most influential elements contributive to English language learning in many countries like Iran where English is mostly taught in English institutes (Mousapour Negari & Heydari, 2014).

The analysis of professionalism index revealed that there was statistically significant difference in the scores for female (M = 31.12, SD = 5.005) and male (M = 27.76, SD= 3.673) teachers; t = 3.827, p = 0.000. These results suggested that gender did have an effect on level of professionalism of teachers; the results were in favor of females. Teachers' personal believes or opinions, institutions' policies and regulations, age, educational qualification, years of teaching experience, social issues and teachers' perception of professionalism could justify this difference between two genders. The results of study in professionalism are in contrary with findings of Nagler et al. (2014).The aim of their study was to explore entering first year resident physicians' perspectives on professionalism and their behaviors that may deny these perceptions. In addition, they identified how the professionalism items varied by gender and by institution. It was reported that men were more likely professional than women. Varia (2014) compared the professionalism

of male and female secondary school teachers in different elements in Saurashtra region of Gujarat; his study revealed that gender does not affect the professionalism of secondary school teachers that was contrary to result of current study. Differences in population, individual characteristics, social issues, and perception of professionalism in countries and cultures should be considered in contrary results.

The analysis of resilience questionnaire revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in the scores for female and male teachers; $U = 1003$, $p = .089 > 0.05$. These results suggested that gender really did not have an effect on level of resilience factor. Teachers' individual characteristics and interests; dynamic interaction with colleagues, principals, and students; financial and organizational support; and same work conditions for two gender in institutes could affect the results of this study. The obtained results in the current study are contrary to Estaji and Rahimi (2014) examined if gender and years of teaching experience have a significant impact on teachers' ability to be resilient. Results of the questionnaire analysis revealed a statistically significant difference between resilient teachers and their gender. The female instructors recorded a higher resilience than the male instructors. Both studies have conducted in same country with English teachers; but Staji and Rahimi investigated resilience only within 40 teachers (16 females & 24 males) in State and Azad universities. Differences in number of participants, cultural background, and education system of two contexts of the studies should be effective in their distinct results.

Sarwar, Inamullah, Khan, and Anwar (2010) findings are not similar to the current study in factor of resilience difference between genders. The purpose of their study was to investigate the relationship between resilience and academic achievement of secondary level students of Gujranwala, Pakistan. The obtained data revealed that there was no relationship between resilience and achievement; and boys were more resilient than girls at the secondary level in Pakistan. Gunnestad (2006, p.10) states "Culture over a period of time has developed ways of behavior generate resilience within that setting. Culture can be said to be a way of living facing with challenges in a certain environment with both extrinsic and intrinsic factors." This view of culture and different populations can justify the distinct findings of two above researches with this study.

The findings of this study showed that female teachers (moderate high) are more satisfied and professional than males; women's idiosyncrasies and their less financial needs due to cultural

and social background of Iran may be effective in this significant difference. Both women and men had equals in resilience. This study had not considered some factors; such as age, educational qualification, and marital status that might affect the obtained results. The researchers' goal of this study was to notify the difference of resilience and professionalism of male and female EFL teachers and prepare a guideline for educational policy makers and headmasters to recognize the strengths and weaknesses of teachers and promote their job conditions.

6. Conclusion and Implications

The results of the study indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between male and female teachers' professionalism, the results were in favor of females. No statistically significant difference was seen between male and female teachers' resilience. Teachers who feel stress are probably to an increasing degree less effective in domains such as lesson arrangement, student behavior management, reactiveness to students, and self-confidence (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2000; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008). English has been considered to be the first global Lingua Franca in the world. In today's modern world the English language has been an international language of communication, science, business, information technology, entertainment and so on. Since a teacher is a sample for imitation for the students, job satisfaction and his/her performance are very crucial in the field of education (Chamundeswari, 2013).

Today, teachers' task is debatably more complex, stimulating, and difficult than at any other time (Johnson et al., 2012). Resilient teachers have an optimistic viewpoint for education generally and teaching particularly. Resilient teachers solve problems and change agents (Patterson, Collins, & Abbott, 2004; Bernshausen & Cunningham, 2001, cited in Benders & Jackson, 2012). This study thus attempted to render solutions to the problems faced by the EFL teachers of language institutes with special reference to their job satisfaction. Though this study will not address all the hurdles faced by EFL teachers in language institutes, it will improve their regulations and policies in favor of their teachers and improve working conditions of EFL teachers in Iran.

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Iranian EFL Journal



Exploring Discourse Markers Used in Academic Papers: A Comparative Corpus-based Inquiry of Iranian and English Native Writers

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Abstract

The objective of the current study was to analyse the type and the frequency of discourse markers (DMs) used in Iranian scholars' written articles published in English and to compare them with the published articles written by English native scholars. To this end, the DMs of 30 articles published by Iranian scholars were randomly selected and Fraser's (2006) taxonomy was used to categorize and analyse the DMs used in them. Similarly, 30 articles written by native English scholars were selected from English journals and analysed in terms of their use of DMs.

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The data from both types of articles were compared to investigate the differences between Iranian scholars' use of DMs compared to the native English scholars' use of DMs in academic papers. The results indicated that from among the DMs, elaborative discourse markers were the type with the highest frequency used in Iranian scholars' articles, followed by temporal, contrastive and implicative discourse markers used in Iranian scholars' academic articles. This pattern of DMs usage differed significantly from the distribution of DMs by native English scholars in their published papers. The results further claimed that, on the whole, the mean of discourse markers used in Iranian articles was higher than that of native English articles.
Keywords: Discourse markers, published articles, Iranian scholars, English native scholars, Corpora, writing

1. Introduction

1.1. What is writing?

In academic context, not only is writing considered as the act of writing words and sentences into paper, but also the end product of that process (Nunan, 1991). Indeed, the purpose and the audience for which a writing is composed for are the factors that influence the product of writing. As the writer engages in the production of writing, he draws upon different grammatical, cognitive, and communicative knowledge (Sanders & Noordman, 2000). Writing as the most difficult of all four skills in a second/foreign language can be further complicated as it highly challenges the writer in his level of language proficiency and in dealing with differences in culture of his L1 and L2 (Akef, 2007).

From one hand, communicative knowledge is the ability to use the language to represent personal identities, performances and to create a relationship with other people, and in the case of writing, with the readers. Cognitive knowledge, on the other hand, is the ability to transfer ideas through language by organizing forms and conveying meaning in the discourse (Schiffrin, 2001).

There are a number of features and elements which can make a piece of writing acceptable. According to Halliday (2000), what defines a good writing is cohesion and coherence. Cohesion refers to the " relations of meaning that exist within a text " (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p.4). Discourse markers (hereafter DMs) are a subcategory of grammatical cohesion which join clauses and sentences together to form longer discourse. DMs are, according to Richards and

Schmidt (2002), “expressions that typically connect two segments of discourse but do not contribute to the meaning of either. Examples are adverbials (e.g. *however, still)*, conjunctions (e.g. *and, but*), and prepositional phrases (e.g. *in fact*).” (p.162). Put simply, DMs are linguistic devices that hang the pieces of language or expression together. Indeed, they are functional words which can signal the continuity in text and also the relationship between existing and new discourse (Biber & Barbieri, 2007).

Since DMs can help the writer to produce affective and well-established writing and also assist him in communicating their ideas effectively, any shortcoming or inappropriate usage of DMs in writing (specifically with second language learners) can result in breakage of communication (Zhang, 2016). In other words, without sufficient and appropriate use of DMs in a writing, the text will fail to be understood by its readers; thus, L2 writers should acquire the necessary knowledge of the correct usage of MDs.

What differentiates academic writing from other forms of writing is that it is a research-based writing by scholars addressing other scholars. In fact, it aims to clearly inform facts and should be easy to read, therefore; it follows a particular tone and is generated through specific rules of grammar, punctuation and organization. The effective use of DMs is considered central in academic writing, and lack of it suggests that the L2 writer is novice (Hyland, 2008; Li & Schmitt, 2009).

Research has shown that non-native speakers of English struggle with using DMs appropriately at times. As stated by Li & Schmitt (2009), the problem with DMs for L2 writers results in either: (a) the overuse of a limited number of well-known phrases, b) not possessing the existing wide repertoire to use DMs in a native-like manner. This will result in causing their writing to seem non-native. Moreover, research has emphasized the central role of DMs in building discourse coherence (e.g. Dulger, 2007; Hernandez, 2008, Schiffrin, 2001), which is even more essential with academic writing.

One unaddressed and ignored area of inquiry within DMs is the corpus-based comparison of DMs in texts written by Non-native Speakers (NNS) and Native Speakers (NS) of English. The available literature reveals contradictory results with some studies claiming that NNS and NS are similar in their use of DMs (Dalili & Dastjerdi, 2013), while others assert that NNS and NS differ in their use of DMs (Bolton et al., 2002; Hinkel, 2002).

While the particular aim of each of the above studies and the type of texts compared in the studies varied, the contradictory results push for the question to still remain that: How similar or different are NS and NNS in their use of DMs in the task of writing? Actually, the aim of the study in hand is to take on the mission of challenging or confirming the available literature, while adding a new perspective to it. In other words, this study adopts a NS-NNS comparative model to compare and contrast the frequency of DMs used in academic articles by Iranian scholars and NS scholars. More specifically, the study compares the frequency of DMs in a small corpus of published papers related to issues of second language acquisition (SLA) by Iranian and NNS scholars.

In an attempt to address this need for research, the present study aims at comparing NS and Iranian NNS scholars in their use of DMs in their published academic articles. In doing so, the current study explores and compares the frequency and type of DMs used in NS and Iranian NNS published papers. This investigation can help identify the similarities/differences between how frequent NS and Iranian scholars use DMs in their papers.

More specifically, the study investigates the nature of DMs employed by both Iranian scholars and native English speaker scholars in a corpus of their journal published papers. Similar to Dalili and Dastjerdi's study (2013), the present investigation is comparing NS and NNS in corpora which can be described as a form of Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis (Granger, 1993). Thus, by being corpus-based and employing the Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis method, the present study is a Corpus-based Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis (CCIA) which compares NS and NNS (Iranian) scholars' in terms of frequency and the nature of DMs in their published papers.

2. Literature Review

In order to gain a view over the theoretical and applied aspects of DMs, it seems quite necessary to have a review of the studies done so far in this field of inquiry. While the literature on DMs includes studies such comparative NS-NNS studies, there is still a need to broaden the scope of this type of investigation and add to its dimensions.

2.1. Discourse Markers

Discourse markers (also known as metadiscourse features) have been under investigation by various researchers, and while there are disagreements on what to call these items, all agree on

the concept which underlies them. Some of the various names used are discourse operators (Redeker, 1991), *discourse markers* (Schiffrin, 1987 & Fraser, 1990; 1996; 1999), discourse *connectives* (Blakemore, 2002), and cue phrases (Sanders & Noordman, 2000).

DMs have been investigated in various contexts and filed of studies such as informal settings (Muller, 2004; Trillo, 2002), classroom oral discourse (Nejadansari & Mohammai, 2014), reading (Abdullah Zadeh, 2006), lectures (Rahimi &Dastjerdi, 2012; Perez & Macia, 2002), academic genres (Abdi, 2002; Blagojevic, 2003), and student writings (Johnson, 1992; Steffensen & Cheng, 1996; Jalilifar, 2008; Mirshamsi & Allami, 2013).

A scan on the previous studies on DMs, it can be argued that they approached DMs with three different intentions. The first approach to studying DMs has been to examine the frequency of their occurrence across writings. In some of these studies, the focus has been on the investigation of the usage of DMs in one particular language (either L1 or L2), while in others, the focus has been on the comparative study on the frequency of the usage of DMs between two languages (between L1 and L2).

A number of studies have compared NS and NNS in terms of their use of DMs in their writings and suggested that NNS have a much more limited repertoire of lexical phrases and DMs, which leads them to overuse the DMs that they already know (Narita et.al, 2004; Tapper, 2005). With regard to the frequency of DMs in one single language, Liu and Briane (2005), in their frequency-count study on undergraduate Chinese learners, claimed that Chinese undergraduate students, in their writings, tend to use more additive expressions including ‘and’, ‘also’ and ‘or’ DMs than other types.

Comparative studies on the use of DMs between two languages include an early study in 1992 by Field and Yip who compared and contrast argumentative writings of Hong Kong students with that of Australian students. They could find out that NNS used more conjunctions that NS did, and placed them in different parts of the sentence compared to the Australian students. Similarly, Karasi (1994) compared Singaporean students' expository essays with NS essays with regard to their frequency of use of DMs and claimed that there was no difference in NS and NNS' use of DMs.

Using Fraser’s (1999) taxonomy of DMs, Jalalifar and Alipour (2007) embarked on an investigation on the frequency of DMs in writings of junior and senior EFL learners in Iran and asserted that from among all the DMs, the elaborative markers were the most frequent ones

which followed by inferential, contrastive, causative, and topic relating markers; respectively. He also found a direct relationship between writings quality and the number of used DMs by the students.

The second approach to studying DMs has been to analyze the nature of DMs used in different writings. In an investigation on Japanese EFL learners' use of different types of DMs in three consecutive years of their study. Hays (1992) found that some DMs were used more frequently (but, and, so) than others (well, you know). This lead Hays to suggest that DMs are acquired in a developmental order. Similarly, Trillo (2002) also claimed that NS and NNS in his corpus-based study differed in their use of types of DMs, that is, NNS used ‘well’ and ‘you know’more than NS did.

Muller (2004) carried out an investigation based on retellings and discussions told about a short film by American native speakers and Deutsch learners of English. The results suggested that German learners used patterns of DMs differently. According to her findings, some of the markers (e.g. well) was overused by German learners, which could be the results of overuse of ‘well’ in the German’s English textbooks.

Following Haliday and Hassan’s classification of cohesive devices (1976), Liu and Braine (2005) examined the application of cohesive tools in argumentative writings of Chinese undergraduate students and claimed that additive devices were the most used type of all the cohesive devices, followed by causal, temporal, and adversative devices. In addition, they found that the number of cohesive tools used in writings could represent the quality of the writings.

In a comparative corpus-based study on the use of three types of connectives (adverbial conjuncts, content disjunctives and lexical discourse markers) in argumentative writings of advanced Swedish learners of English and American NS, Tapper (2005) showed that Swedish learners tend to use connectives more than other ones; while both Swedish and American learners used rather identical semantics categories. He also found that learners of two languages use different connectives to express the same concept.

Also, Bell (2010) made a corpus of news, fiction, and academic spoken and written English consisted of 8 million words and expressions. He contrasted DMs of ‘nevertheless’, ‘still’ and ‘yet’. The findings suggested that while ‘nevertheless’ was the most limited used DM, dah ’tey‘ ..been used the most

Recently, Shareef (2015) investigated the use of various kinds of discourse markers in Kurdish EFL undergraduate (first and third year) student's essays. He found that first years are unable to use all the types of discourse markers; whereas third year students misuse and overuse most types of DMs.

The third group of studies on DMs has focused on investigating the relationship between DMs and writing quality. Zhang (2000) examined Chinese undergraduates' use of cohesive ties in their expository writings. In this study, he exploited Halliday and Hasan's (1976) classification of cohesive devices and found out that while a variety of cohesive ties were used across the compositions, lexical devices, conjunctions, and reference devices were the dominant cohesive markers; respectively. However, Zhang did not find any significant correlation between the number of cohesive ties used by the subjects and their quality of writing. Also, the detected instances of overuse and misuse of conjunctions and a limited number of lexical cohesion in students' writings.

Also, Liu and Braine (2005), in their study, investigated the relationship between the number of DMs and writing quality in Chinese undergraduate EFL learners' argumentative compositions. What they could find was that there was a significant relationship between the two variables; meaning that the more DMs used, the better and more qualified writings were produced by the subjects.

Martinez's (2004) study on the expository composition of Spanish undergraduates is unique as it investigated all the three common mentioned aims of DMs studies. Martinez found that, in terms of frequency, a variety of discourse markers were used by the students, with some types used more frequently than others. Also, with regard to the nature of DMs, elaborative markers and contrastive markers were the main cohesive tools; respectively. Finally, in terms of the relationship between use of DMs and writing quality, he claimed that there was a significant relationship between the scores of the written compositions and the number of DMs used in the compositions. Thus, the larger the number of DMs used, the higher the score of the composition. Also, elaborative markers were the most closely related to the compositions' quality.

This study is an attempt to address the following question:

What is the difference between how Iranians scholars and native speakers of English use discourse markers in their journal publications in terms of frequency and types?

3. Method

3.1. Material

The material used for this study consisted of two comparable corpora of English written papers published in second language acquisition journals. It is worth mentioning that the papers were selected randomly and both American and British modes of writing were included in sampling procedure for avoiding the idiosyncrasies of the writers. The data representing Iranian scholars' (NNS) English written papers were chosen from the two journals of Iranian Journal of Applied Linguistics and Iranian EFL Journal. Likewise, the representative data for the native English speaker scholars was selected from the two journals of Teaching Language Skills and Language Testing, Language Teaching, for English.

As the articles were available to the researcher in soft copies, the collected corpora had to follow, as Sinclair (1991) puts it, a clean-text policy. This means that any additional text or mark (i.e. photos, tables, footnotes, etc.) were eliminated from the corpora since they were not part of the main data of the articles. In doing so, the two corpora were collected and saved in separate files of .txt format which enabled the data to be saved only as plain text with no marks from the papers.

In gathering the data representing both corpora, attention was made to select them not only quantitatively, but also qualitatively. To satisfy the qualitative consideration, only papers addressing issues related to second language acquisition were chosen to allow for more homogenized corpora. Moreover, in dealing with the quantitative aspect of the data, those papers that included sufficient amounts of all the four categories of DMs were chosen to ensure the representativeness and reliability of the corpora.

The resulting two corpora were homogenous in terms of subject matter and the total number of words, and the articles in both corpora were published between 2012 and 2013. Each of the two corpora consisted of around 154,600 words and comprised of 30 English language articles. Table 1 summarizes the general properties of the two corpora used in the study.

Table 1

Description of Corpora Used in the Study

Corpus	Journal	Number of Articles	Number of Words
Native Speakers	Journal of Teaching	30	

	Language Skills/ Language Testing, Language Teaching, for English		154,674
Non- native Speakers	IJAL/Iranian EFL Journal	30	154,651

3.2. Fraser's Taxonomy of DMs

Fraser's (1999) classification of DMs is one the many comprehensive lists of DMs for the classification of written discourse. However, Fraser (2006) suggests a taxonomy of DMs which is an elaboration of his 1999 classification.

In terms of theoretical approach, the present study employed Fraser's grammatical-pragmatic perspective and his taxonomy of DMs was chosen as this study's framework as it suited the aims of the study better. While Fraser (2006) provides a syntactic, semantic and pragmatic framework for the properties of DMs, the present study only adopted the semantic classification of Fraser's classification as it was more relevant to the aim of this study. According to Fraser's (2006), the semantic taxonomy of DMs is as follow in Table 2.

Table 2. Fraser's (2006) Semantic Classification of Discourse Markers

Discourse Markers	Definition	Examples
Contrastive Discourse Markers (CDMs)	CDMs signal that the explicit interpretation of S2 contrasts with an interpretation of S1.	alternatively, although, but, contrariwise, contrary to this/that, conversely, despite (doing) this/that, even so, except, however, in comparison (with/to this/that), in contrast (with/to this/that), in spite of (this/that), instead of (this/that), nevertheless, nonetheless, notwithstanding, on the contrary, on the other hand, rather (than (do) this/that), regardless (of this/that), still, though, whereas, yet . . .

Elaborative Discourse Markers (EDMs)	EDMs signal a quasi-parallel relationship between S2 and S1 so that S2 constitutes an elaboration of S1.	above all, also, alternatively, analogously, and, as well as, besides, better yet, by the same token, correspondingly, equally, for another thing, for example, for instance, further(more), in addition, in any event, indeed, in fact, in other words, in particular, likewise, more accurately, more importantly, more precisely, more to the point, moreover, namely, on that basis, on top of it all, or, otherwise, similarly, that is (to say), to cap it all off, what is more ...
Implicative Discourse Markers (IDMs)	IDMs signal that S2 conveys a message which is, in some sense, consequential to some aspect of S1.	accordingly, after all, all things considered, as a (logical)consequence/conclusion (of this/that), as a result (of this/that), because (of this/that), consequently, due to, for this/that reason, hence, in this/that/any case, in view of, it can be concluded that it follows that, of course, on this/that condition, on these/those grounds, overall, since, so, then, therefore, thus …
Temporal Discourse Markers (TDMs)	TDMs signal that the event in S2 is temporally related to some occurrence in S1.	after, already, as long as, as soon as, before, earlier, eventually, finally, first, following, immediately afterward, meantime, meanwhile, originally, previously, recently, second, since, still, subsequently, then, when, while, until . . .

3.3. Procedure

Similar to Alili and Dastjerdi's (2013) study, the present study employed a Corpus-based Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis (CCIA) approach, which is both contrastive and corpus-based. As is the case with corpus-based studies, the DMs in the corpora were analyzed using automated analysis. The concordance outputs were then manually analyzed to enhance the reliability of the analysis. Also, to compare the use of DMs in NS and NNS scholars' articles, the Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis (CIA) method was adopted.

To carry out the corpus-based analysis of the frequency of DMs, the program Text STAT was employed to concord the DMs in both corpora. Also, by searching key words in context, DMs were quantitatively and qualitatively analyzed to ensure the extent to which they belong to one of the four categories of DMs. One advantage of using corpora-based research is that it allows for a contrastive interlanguage analysis to take place. Thus, a detailed comparison between NS and NNS in their use of DMs will be possible.

4. Results

4.1. Overall use of DMs in NS and NNS scholars' articles

The overall results from the corpus-based analysis of DMs in NS and NNS scholars' published articles showed that DMs were used more by NNS than by NS (see Figure 1). The results obtained from NS corpora suggested that "and" had the highest rate of usage, followed by "or" and "but". While Iranian scholars also used "and" and "or" as their first and second DM most, they differed from the NS scholars in their third most used DM which was "also".

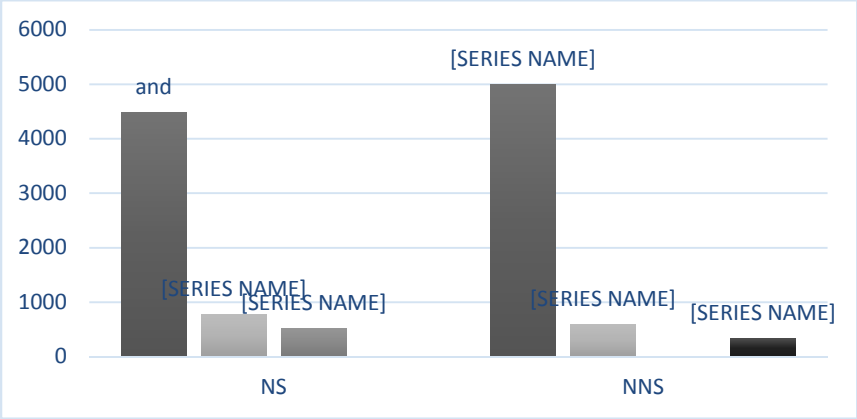

Figure 1. Frequency Counts of the Top Three Most Used DMs in Both Corpora

As for the frequency of EDMs, as Table 3 presents, both corpora had high usages of over 6,000 counts, however, EDMs are used more by NNS (Iranians) than by NS. Also, as Figure 2 clearly shows, IDMs had the least frequency counts in both corpora, and while NNS corpora revealed 814 counts of IDMs, NS had even fewer counts of IDMs with only 637 frequency counts.

Table 3

Frequency Counts of the Four Categories of DMs in NS and NNS Corpora

	CDM	EMD	IDM	TDM	Total
NS	1330	6149	637	847	8963
NNS	864	6530	814	1171	9379
Total	2194	1267	1451	2018	18342

4.2. Use of different categories of DMs in NS and NNS scholars' articles

Considering the frequency rate of the four categories of DMs, the two corpora differed. The results of the corpus-based analysis with regard to different categories of DMs revealed that for both NS scholars and Iranian scholars, EDM was the number one highest used category of DMs. Also, for both NS and Iranian scholars, IDM was the least used type of DMs. However, both corpora differed in the order in which they contained the other two categories of DMs, and while NS used CDM and TDM as their second and third highest used type of DMs respectively, Iranians used TDM as their second highest category of DMs, followed by CDM.

Figure 2 indicates the most/least frequent DM categories in NS and NNS scholars' published articles, revealing EDMs and IDMs to had the highest and lowest frequency counts respectively for both corpora.

Four Categories of DMs in NE and NNE Corpora

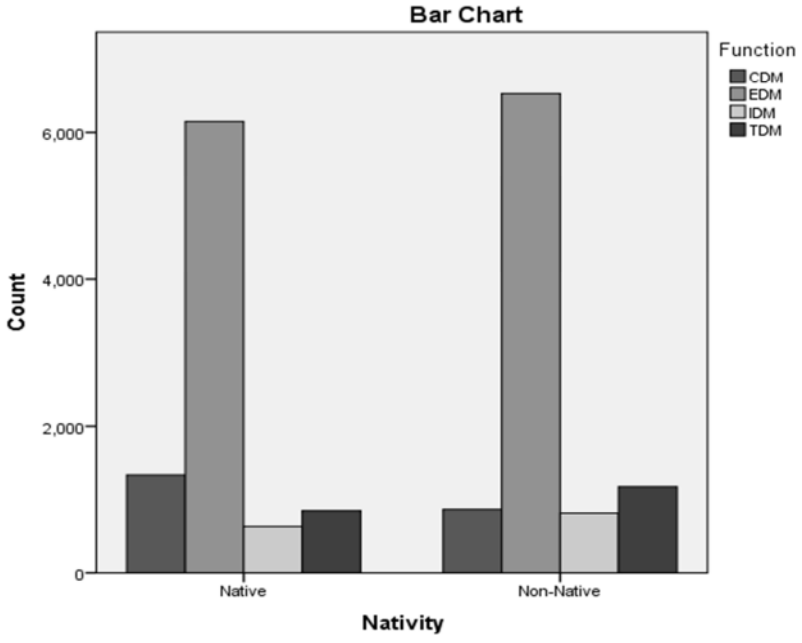

Fig. 2. Frequency Counts of the Four Categories of DMs in NE and NNE Corpora

To see if the overall frequencies of the categories of DMs across NS and NNS scholars' articles were statically significant or not, Chi-square test was conducted. The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	174.692a	3	-000
Likelihood Ratio	175.641	3	-000
Linear-by-Linear Association	133.033	1	.000
No. of Valid Case	18342		

As Table 4 illustrates, there was a significance difference between NS and Iranian NNS scholars' use of the four categories of DMs ($p<0.05$). As it is evident in the table, DMs are used significantly different by NS and Iranian scholars in their papers.

5. Discussion

This study attempted to compare the use of DMs in native speakers of English scholars' and Iranian scholars' published articles. To this end, 60 English published articles (NNS: 30 and NS: 30) were examined. Then, by using corpora software, the raw data were extracted. The results showed that Iranian NNS scholars overally used DMs more frequent that NS scholars. This might imply that as Iranian are non-native speakers of English, they lack the native-like competency of DMs, which might have resulted in their overuse of DMs in general and misuse of various types of the DMs in writing academic papers. This is in line with studies that found NNS' extensive use of DMs in their writings (e.g. Zhang, 2000; Martinez, 2004).

Moreover, the study revealed that "and" and "or" were the top highest DMs used respectively by both NS scholars and Iranian scholars. While NS and NNS were similar in their top two used DMs, they differed in the order of frequency of the other DMs. According to the findings, the most commonly used category of DMs among both NS and Iranian scholars was EDMs. Also, the least frequent category of DMs used by both NS and NNS was IDMs. These findings are

similar to those of Dalili and Dastjerdi' (2013) study. The extensive use of EDMs in both types of articles may be due to the fact that academic writing requires an explanation of ideas and clarity of reasoning, which largely depends on the use of such type of DMs to establish a sense of organization and coherence between different parts of the written discourse. These results confirm previous research on the use of DMs by NS and NNS (Zhang, 2000; Martinez, 2004, Dalili &Dastjerdi, 2012). However, NS and NNS scholars differed in the hierarchy of use of the other two types of DMs categories (i.e. CDMs and TDMs) across their papers. NS scholars used CDMs followed by TDMs as the top second and third types of DMs respectively, whereas; Iranian scholars' use of the two categories was the other way around (i.e. TDMs, followed by CDMs).

A throughout analysis of the number of cohesive markers among all four categories of DMs showed that Iranian scholars and NS scholars differed significantly in their use of DMs in writing academic articles. In other words, the differences amongst almost all the categories of DMs within their published papers were found significant. This finding goes against studies which report Iranians and NS are somehow similar in how they use DMs in their writings. As a case in point, (Dalili & Dastjerdi 2013) concluded, based on a corpus –based research, that the number and type of DMs. differ in texts written by native and non-native authors. This conclusion was drawn the lack of discourse markers and patterns transfer from advanced native speakers to non-native speakers can be a result of this difference.

By comparing the results of the present study with the findings of the previous researches, it can be concluded that Iranian scholars, like the NS scholars, use a range of DMs in compositing their academic papers and conveying ideas to the readers. However, similar to previous findings (Liao, 2008) it can be argued that non-native speaker of English, regardless of how high their English proficiency may be, still differ significantly from English native speakers who possess full competency of use of DMs.

A discussion that can be made based on the findings of the present study is that according to Grabe and Kaplan (1996), there are sets of organizational patterns to written languages, nonetheless, NS and NNS differ in their level of such written organization competence. They suggest that NS possess this type of competence and therefore, recognize which patterns to use in writing. On the other hand, NNS lack a complete inventory of possible alternatives and are thus

constraint in the choices they have to build an as organized composition as NS, which can lead to NNS' misuse of overuse of DMs.

The finding of the present study is, however, contrary to the similar corpus-based interlanguage analysis research of Dalili and Dastjerdi on Iranian and NS use of DMs in media discourse. They claimed that there was no significant difference in how advanced Iranians and NS used DMs in writing news report.

One reason for the contrary results of their research and the present study is that Dalili and Dastjerdi compared Iranians' and NS' use of DMs in news reports, whereas; the present study aimed at a very different content of the writing, i.e. academic published articles. In other words, the nature of news reports and academic articles vary significantly, and while in writing the former one is obliged to follow pre-set rules and a certain tone and language, the latter requires less of such strict and fixed language use. Although it can't be denied that in writing academic articles certain rules of discourse organization are to be followed, there is a more personalized expression of language and ideas involved in article writing, as one is putting down the results of one's conducted research.

While the present study adds to the small literature available, more research and study is required to investigate how and to what extent NS and NNS compare in their use of DMs across a wide range of contexts, and in particular in academic writing. Also, this study used a small corpus; more studies could be done by using bigger corpora in order to generalize the findings. Moreover, while**.** Fraser's classification is one the best taxonomies of DMs, further studies can be done by using other classifications of DMs. Also, other studies can be done in relation to MDs and second language writing to investigate the relationship between MDs and second language writing.

6. Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

The results of the present study seem to be beneficial and important for both Iranian EFL learners and Iranian scholars who are interested or bound to compose academic writing. Iranian EFL learners and scholar can both improve the quality of their academic writing by developing conscious knowledge of the use and functions of DMs. The findings, in particular, address scholars who want to improve their academic papers by making them more native-like coherent by using DMs in the correct way. Advanced language learners can also benefit from this corpus-

based contrastive analysis. The findings indicate how extensive writing practice is required to obtain a native-like competence of using DMs in producing academic papers. In addition, the findings of the current study will show how the same concepts can be expressed by using different MDs. This is beneficial for advanced learners of English in their writing courses. Also, the findings would be beneficial for those scholars who would like to compare and contrast language pairs. They would find this study useful as this study is a comparative-based research in nature.

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Iranian EFL Journal



An Assessment of Acceptability of Persian Academy Approved Dentistry Terms in View of Dentistry Students

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Abstract

The use of applied terminology is believed to build up some of the vocabulary the students need in their particular area of study and later in their careers. In this vein, considering subscription of Persian equivalents for scientific terms as one of the major tasks of Academy of Persian Language and Literature (APLL), the current study intended to probe the acceptability of Persian Academy approved dentistry terms in view of dentistry students. To this end, data were

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gathered via distributing a questionnaire comprising 60 randomly selected equivalents among 35 male and 32 female participants of the fourth and eighth semesters who were selected through convenience sampling from school of dentistry at Shiraz University of Medical Sciences (SUMS). All 60 items were randomly selected from among 360 approved equivalents of dentistry terms registered in the APLL and divided into four modes of word-selection, namely: selected, coined, expression and borrowing. Then the acceptance level of the equivalents was evaluated by a revised model of Hesami Tackallou and Ghanbari's (2012) four-odd taxonomies based on Cooper's (1989) model for the study of language spread. The results indicated that selected equivalents were more widely accepted than the other three term-making procedures, while coined equivalents came next and borrowing and expression took place at the lowest level of applicability, respectively.

Keywords: terminology, dentistry, word-selection, term-making procedures, selected equivalents, coined equivalents, borrowing, expression

1. Introduction

In the present post-positivist world, English language, besides all the political and social issues, has attempted to place an overruling role in scientific contributions across the sphere. Particularly, considering English as "the language of modern science", it would not seem to be that much of an exaggeration. Lots of developing countries have led to choose English as their scientific language and use it widely in their upper-graduate levels of academicians studying as a result of this overriding role. In the same vein, in consideration of modern science as having foreign roots, scholars and students should either use these foreign terms in their oral and written conversations, or develop new terminology.

As a rule of thumb, borrowing may occur due to many factors including need and necessity as well as dominance and hegemony (Mirza Suzani, 2010). Besides, linguistic borrowing can arises due to the extensive oral and written communication in the globalized sphere. Once a foreign word is borrowed, there is a requirement to find an equivalent for it. More often than not, words and phrases are made or selected and thereafter presented into a speech community by individuals in society or authorized specialists in a Language Academy. In any respect, these items may be either accepted and used widely or rejected and overlooked by a speech community.

In the present academic circumstances, under an equal condition, Persian language is recognized as the secondary language in the arena of scientific language. In other word, a good number of scientific contributions as well as terminology are widely imported from western countries and their languages (e.g. English) into Persian. Likewise, although it seems to be more simple and straightforward to use the foreign (English) words as the equivalent for itself, in the course of time, it will have unfavorable impacts on the whole construction of the target language (Persian). Considering the alien basis of novel terminology, Academy of Persian Language and Literature (henceforth, APLL) in the recent decades has attempted to present some equivalences for foreign scientific words by creating new terms in TL. In this vein, in order to preserve TL values and norms on the one hand, and stay up-to-date by progression of everyday knowledge of the world, on the other hand, APLL has undertaken the responsibility of standardization of scientific language. In addition, it is axiomatic that each language is subject to borrowing and lending terms from and to other languages; and Persian and English are no exceptions either. Particularly, in the area of scientific and technical terms there is widespread exchange of terminology between two languages. Thus, it is of great significance and value to pay attention to the investigation of technical terminology (here, equivalents used for dentistry terminology) and probe the current state and use of terminology as a novel progressing field of interdisciplinary research. Accordingly, in the present research study, it is attempted to investigate the most frequently used term-making procedures of registered Persian equivalents of dentistry terms at APLL.

Considering the above-mentioned points, the objectives of the current research study are multifaceted: First, by having a thorough relative knowledge of similarities and differences of the two languages experts in different fields may attain a better understanding of the distinct language used by other practitioners in the same field in two different languages. Thus, in this study, it is aimed to boost the level of understanding of dentistry terminology in both English and Persian. Also, it is aimed that by using methods and procedures via employing Hesami Tackallou and Ghanbari's (2012) revision of Cooper's model (1989) in comparing and contrasting the Persian equivalents of dentistry terms, having been registered in APLL, we will investigate the usage of terminology by examining the word-selection methods used in their translation from four concepts, namely: (a) Selected, (b) Coined (c) Expression, and (d) Borrowing.

Subsequently, it is pursued to figure out and recommend the most frequent method which can be more applicable and acceptable by the practitioners in the relevant field of study.

2. Review of Literature

Nowadays, not only most of the persuasive medical journals are written in English, so that it is the chosen language at international seminars, but also as Wulff (2004) believes we have crossed the threshold to the era of medical English, which bears a resemblance to the era of medical Latin in that, once more, medical doctors have selected a particular language for international communication. In this vein, modern medical terminology comprises words of great antiquity and others of very recent coinage, and as Pepper (1949) asserts there is and can be no termination of the coining of new terms, so that sometimes the inventor of the term goes for his origins to Homer or Virgil rather than to Hippocrates or Galen.

Mirza Suzani and Parvaresh (2011) draw attention to the substantial role of terminology and translation in the improvement of specific language skills. Based on Mirza Suzani and Parvaresh (2011), the use of applied terminology is believed to build up some of the vocabulary the students need in their particular area of study and later in their careers. On the other hand, the insertion of provocative texts under the rubric of translation can help learners transcend the framework of classrooms and feel the joy of translating texts and terminology from SL to TL.

According to Montalt and Davies (2007), one of the most remote references to written translations has been found in the cities of Ancient Mesopotamia, where medical, chemical, mathematical, and astrological knowledge was assembled, structured and stored in cuneiform symbols written on clay tablets, some of which included information in different languages such as Ugaritic, Akkadian, Sumerian, Hittite, and Hurrian. Moreover, “in consideration of these archaeological findings, it is evident that an intense translation activity existed long before paper and the alphabet were invented” (p. 15). Also, Based on Fischbach (1998), “whilst medical dictionaries have to select what to remove from previous editions as no longer beneficial and what to add from the whirlpool of current research language, the translator has to choose what is worth understanding and memorizing out of the large mass of materials” (p. 14).

There is a mutual discussion between translators regarding the person(s) who should translate medical texts. According to Hauswald & Marquez (2000), it is professional translators who specialize in medical texts whom would be considered as medical translators. Alternatively,

O'Neill (1998) proceeds "Good medical translation can be done by both medical professionals and medically knowledgeable linguists" (p. 80). Then again, Dofka (2013) in his recent observation and study of dental terminology expressed his attitude about it in that dental terminology includes the study of words and terms connected explicitly to the dental sciences.

Hill (1984) asserts that "the spread of the languages of the European colonial powers into all the continents and the spread of nationwide languages at the cost of minority languages are perhaps principal among the linguistic progressions of our age" (p. 81). Language spread, as Alatis and Tucker (1979) define, has been described as "an escalation, beyond time, in the ratio of a communication system that accepts a specified language diversity for a specified communicative purpose" (p. 24). There are many such models, the most well-known, perhaps being the spread of Greek, Latin, and Arabic in the territories connected with those languages (Brosnahan, Spencer, 1963). However, there are many examples taking place later, as, for instance, Russian in the Soviet Union (Lewis, 1972), Swahili in eastern Africa (Whiteley, 1969; Mazrui, Zirimu, Spolsky, Cooper 1978), Amharic in Ethiopia (Cooper, 1978), Neomelanesian in Papua New Guinea (Wurm, 1971), Malay in Southeast Asia (Alisjahbana, 1971), and English globally (Fishman, Cooper, Conrad, 1977).

Fishman (1972) has explained language shift as an alteration in the language usage patterns of the people that use above one language diversity. Once one language develops at the cost of another, researches of language spread concentrate on the polishing language (Cooper & Fishman, 1977). Swahili's spread as a *lingua franca* for trade all over the eastern Africa seems not to have substituted existing *lingua franca*. Definitely, nothing serves to stop the spread of a *lingua franca* more certainly than the presence of a competing *lingua franca* (Greenberg, 1965). In the same vein, Hymes (1961) proposed that general development theory might be applied to the study of language spread.

Considering the major task of Academy of Persian Language and Literature in finding appropriate equivalents in TL, Shari'at (1993) emphasizes the importance of euphony, which is a pleasing or harmonious sequence of sounds in equivalency. Correspondingly, Shokouhi and Hossein-Nia (1993) indicate that for words to be selected, they should be euphonious and compatible with grammar. Likewise, Mirza Suzani (2010) maintains that in proposing the appropriate equivalents in TL, both *phonaesthetic* and *synaesthetic* aspects ought to be considered as important. Also, Sadeghi (2001), elucidates that the main task of the department of

word-selection in APLL is to find Persian equivalents for foreign words used both in common language and scientific writings. On the other hand, Zomorrodian (2003) asserts that if people have a conceptual image of an assumed word, the word would be simpler to accept, e.g., the Persian words *xodnevis* 'fountain pen', and *xodkar* 'biro'.

Based on the objectives, this study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a significant difference between the mean of acceptance scores in the translation type of words?

2. What are the most frequently used term-making procedures of registered Persian equivalents of dentistry terms at APLL?

3. Method

3.1. Participants

The participants of this study were 69 male and female students of dentistry studying in School of Dentistry at Shiraz University of Medical Sciences (SUMS). For selection of the participants, we used convenience sampling. Thirty five of the participants were male and thirty two were female. The participants aged from 19 to 34. 33 students were studying in the fourth semester of dentistry and 36 students were studying in the eighth semester of dentistry.

3.2. Instruments

In order to carry out the research, a questionnaire was adopted and administered which had already been developed to examine the terminology of genetics and biotechnology in 2012. The questionnaire had been developed based on Hesami Tackallou and Ghanbari's (2012) revision of four-odd taxonomies of Cooper's model (1989) for the study of language spread. In fact, it consisted of 60 randomly selected items from among 360 approved equivalents of dentistry terms in the APLL. The questionnaire consisted of two tables: the first table required the needful information about gender, age and the degree of participants; the second table included the questions and each question had 3 subcategories: (a) foreign term, (b) Persian equivalent and (c) definition. The format of the test was multiple-choice. In order to ensure the validity of the questionnaire items, the confirmation of two experts was sought: one in the field of dentistry and another in the field of language terminology and linguistic equivalence. Based on the feedbacks received, certain items were revised and others deleted, to enhance the content validity of the questionnaire. The reliability of this questionnaire was calculated through Cronbach's alpha. The

index calculated for all of the items was above 0.7 which indicated that the reliability of questionnaire items was acceptable.

3.3. Procedures

In this study, Hesami Tackallou and Ghanbari's (2012) revision of a model by Cooper (1989) on the study of new terms was applied to investigate the usage of some dentistry approved terms of APLL based on a random sample of the School of Dentistry, Shiraz University of Medical Sciences. The design of this study was mixed research. Cooper's model (1989) was designed for appraising and study of new terms in the second language. He proposed four types of adoption with respect to communicative innovations: awareness, evaluation, knowledge, and usage. (Cooper, 1989). The mentioned four taxonomies' model of Cooper (1989); was revised by Hesami Tackallou and Ghanbari (2012); in which the choices were constructed as: 1. *Doesn't know*: When the asked person doesn't know the selected equivalent and even doesn't heard of that; this is the lowermost rank of acceptance. 2. *Knows but doesn't agree*: Though the asked person knows the selected equivalent and is aware of its selecting, he does not agree with it. 3. *Agrees, but doesn't use*: Whereas the asked person knows the selected equivalent and is aware of its selecting and agrees with it, due to some reasons he is not practicing it in his works. 4. *Uses but doesn't recommend*: The asked person does not recommend the selected equivalent to his apprentices, though he knows it, agrees with it and even use it in scientific applications. 5. *Recommends*: When the asked person knows the selected equivalent, agrees with it, uses it in scientific applications and also recommends it to his colleagues; this is the uppermost rank of acceptance (Hesami Tackallou, Ghanbari 2012, p. 39). APLL (2009) has defined four methods of word selection for a specified concept: 1. Selected, 2. Coined, 3. Expression, and 4. Borrowing.

In order to control the performance of the participants, we considered the standard time for the questionnaire around 25 minutes. About 80 questionnaires were given to students of fourth and eighth semester of dentistry (based on the accessibility) on the spring semester of 1395 (June, 2016) and they were collected during 2 weeks. Some of the questionnaires were discarded for different reasons such as too many similar answers or unanswered items. In order to analyze the data, the 24th version of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used.

4. Results

4.1. Descriptive Statistics Used to Answer R.Q.1

The first research question was intended to find a significant difference between the mean of acceptance scores in the translation type of words. In order to reach the answer, data were presented as percent of each category. A scoring formula was performed by the researcher, following Hesami Tackallou and Ghanbari's (2012) method of analyzing the data, for facilitating comparison between terms acceptability. In this formula the number of participants in each of five grades was multiplied by a constant number. The multiplying constant number is zero for number of participants who don't know, one for number of participants who know but don't agree, two for number of participants who agree but don't use the equivalent, three for number of participants who use but don't recommend, and finally is four for number of participants who recommend the equivalent and are at the highest rank of acceptance. The final score of each equivalent's acceptance is calculated via this formula; and called acceptance score.

Table 1

Acceptance Score and Percent of Each Five Grade of Acceptability Ranking for 60 Questioned Terms (selected, coined, expression and borrowing)

Row	Term	Type	Don't know	Know but don't agree	Agree but don't use	Use but don't recommend	Recommend	Acceptance Score
1	cellular cementum	expression	92.8	3.312	1.44	1.008	1.44	14.976
2	bacterial plaque	expression	89.9	4.646	2.02	1.414	2.02	21.008
3	alveolar crest	borrowing	82.6	8.004	3.48	2.436	3.48	36.192
4	canine fossa	coined	79.7	9.338	4.06	2.842	4.06	42.224
5	apical foramen, root foramen, pulpal foramen	selected	75.4	11.316	4.92	3.444	4.92	51.168

6	cement 2, cementum 1	coined	78.3	9.982	4.34	3.038	4.34	45.136
7	deep overbit	coined	89.9	4.646	2.02	1.414	2.02	21.008
8	centric occlusion, central occlusion	coined	85.5	6.67	2.9	2.03	2.9	30.16
9	Crest	coined	29	32.66	14.2	9.94	14.2	147.68
10	Cariostatic	expression	63.8	16.652	7.24	5.068	7.24	75.296
11	cement base, cavity preparation base	coined	37.7	28.658	12.46	8.722	12.46	129.584
12	bridge 1	coined	49.3	23.322	10.14	7.098	10.14	105.456
13	Cementoid	selected	88.4	5.336	2.32	1.624	2.32	24.128
14	Buccal	coined	36.2	29.348	12.76	8.932	12.76	132.704
15	Dentinoid	selected	76.8	10.672	4.64	3.248	4.64	48.256
16	Physiological	coined	79.7	9.338	4.06	2.842	4.06	42.224
17	canine tooth, canine, cuspid tooth, cuspid, cynodont, dens caninus	coined	11.6	40.664	17.68	12.376	17.68	183.872
18	dental technician, dental laboratory technician, dental technologist	selected	76.8	10.672	4.64	3.248	4.64	48.256
19	Frenotomy	coined	91.3	4.002	1.74	1.218	1.74	18.096
20	edge-to-edge occlusion	borrowing	85.5	6.67	2.9	2.03	2.9	30.16

21	forensic dentistry, legal dentistry, forensic odontology	selected	23.2	35.328	15.36	10.752	15.36	159.744
22	full crown, full veneer crown, complete veneer crown	expression	76.8	10.672	4.64	3.248	4.64	48.256
23	maxillary sinus	coined	89.9	4.646	2.02	1.414	2.02	21.008
24	paramolar, accessory buccal cusp, paramolar tubercle, supernumerary molar	expression	87	5.98	2.6	1.82	2.6	27.04
25	restorative dentistry, restoration dentistry	selected	27.5	33.35	14.5	10.15	14.5	150.8
26	zygomatic bone	expression	20.3	36.662	15.94	11.158	15.94	165.776
27	acellular cementum	borrowing	79.7	9.338	4.06	2.842	4.06	42.224
28	Predentin	selected	49.3	23.322	10.14	7.098	10.14	105.456
29	Proximolabial	borrowing	69.6	13.984	6.08	4.256	6.08	63.232
30	Sextant	coined	29	32.66	14.2	9.94	14.2	147.68
31	secondary caries	borrowing	87	5.98	2.6	1.82	2.6	27.04
32	overjet,	coined	8.7	41.998	18.26	12.782	18.26	189.904

	overjut, horizontal overbite							
33	ruga palatinae, palatine rugae	borrowing	79.7	9.338	4.06	2.842	4.06	42.224
34	pulp stone, denticle	coined	88.4	5.336	2.32	1.624	2.32	24.128
35	deep bite, closed-bite malocclusion, closed bite	coined	87	5.98	2.6	1.82	2.6	27.04
36	Cementoma	expression	89.9	4.646	2.02	1.414	2.02	21.008
37	deciduous dentition	borrowing	91.3	4.002	1.74	1.218	1.74	18.096
38	incipient caries	borrowing	21.7	36.018	15.66	10.962	15.66	162.864
39	Cariogenicity	coined	20.3	36.662	15.94	11.158	15.94	165.776
40	permanent teeth, dentes permanentes, secondary dentition, dens succedaneus, succedaneous dentition	borrowing	15.9	38.686	16.82	11.774	16.82	174.928
41	zygomatic process of maxilla, malar process	coined	10.1	41.354	17.98	12.586	17.98	186.992
42	labial surface	borrowing	79.7	9.338	4.06	2.842	4.06	42.224
43	Occlude	coined	43.5	25.99	11.3	7.91	11.3	117.52
44	dental caries, tooth decay	borrowing	37.7	28.658	12.46	8.722	12.46	129.584

45	Trifurcation	coined	21.7	36.018	15.66	10.962	15.66	162.864
46	Prosthodontist	coined	46.4	24.656	10.72	7.504	10.72	111.488
47	apicoectomy/ apicectomy, apiectomy, root resection	coined	78.3	9.982	4.34	3.038	4.34	45.136
48	enamel pearl	borrowing	33.3	30.682	13.34	9.338	13.34	138.736
49	interdental septum	selected	39.1	28.014	12.18	8.526	12.18	126.672
50	second premolar	coined	15.9	38.686	16.82	11.774	16.82	174.928
51	alveolar process of maxilla	coined	81.2	8.648	3.76	2.632	3.76	39.104
52	anterior cross-bite	coined	89.9	4.646	2.02	1.414	2.02	21.008
53	cementum hyperplasia, cementosis	expression	88.4	5.336	2.32	1.624	2.32	24.128
54	apex locator	coined	66.7	15.318	6.66	4.662	6.66	69.264
55	linguocervical ridge 1, linguogingival ridge 1	expression	81.2	8.648	3.76	2.632	3.76	39.104
56	tooth-borne tissue-borne partial denture	expression	84.1	7.314	3.18	2.226	3.18	33.072
57	dentine/ dentin, substantia eburnea, ebur dentis, dentinum	selected	23.2	35.328	15.36	10.752	15.36	159.744

58	precocious dentition	borrowing	50.7	22.678	9.86	6.902	9.86	102.544
59	vestibule of mouth	borrowing	37.7	28.658	12.46	8.722	12.46	129.584
60	third molar, dens sapiens, third molar tooth	borrowing	42.2	26.588	11.56	8.092	11.56	120.224

Table 2

M+SD of Terms' Acceptance Score

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Expression	10	46.9664	45.29476	14.32346	14.5645	79.3683	14.98	165.78
Borrowing	15	81.5215	55.73584	14.94312	49.3142	113.7812	18.10	174.93
Coined	26	92.3840	63.48658	12.45074	66.7412	118.0268	18.10	189.90
Selected	9	97.1360	54.63822	18.21274	55.1373	139.1347	24.13	159.74
Total	60	82.8132	58.823134	7.654345	67.54555	98.135456	14.98	189.90

According to the above tables, there is a significant difference between the mean of acceptance scores in the translation type of words (p-value=.026, F=3.710).

4.2. Inferential Statistics Used to Answer R.Q.2

The second research question was tried to find the most frequently used term-making procedures of registered Persian equivalents of dentistry terms at APLL. In order to reach the answer, the comparisons of the variables were performed with ANOVA test.

Table 3

ANOVA Test Results

	Sum of	df	Mean	F	Sig.

	Squares		Square		
Between Groups	17105.685	3	5701.895	3.710	.026
Within Groups	183438.676	56	3335.249		
Total	200544.362	59			

Based on the frequency of the acceptance scores in the above table, the highest acceptance score was from among selected equivalents; which means that the most frequently used term-making procedure of registered Persian equivalents of dentistry terms at APLL is from selected equivalents.

5. Discussion

Based on the reciprocal deliberations among translators, it seems so far safe to reach the ideology that both “medical professionals” and “medically knowledgeable linguists” are considered as proper translators of medical texts. Once Dofka (2013) observed, dental terminology includes the study of words and terms clearly linked to the dental sciences. On the other hand, in Iran, many scholars have approached coining words and word-selection in Persian language. Nevertheless, to the best of researchers' knowledge, few studies appear to have analytically argued the standards deliberated by the Iranian Persian speech community for accepting or rejecting the lexical items presented by the Academy of Persian Language and Literature. Once this is specified, it should expedite the work of academicians and officials involved in coining new words and this, in line, tends to contribute to the fortification of the Persian language.

For the time being, though different researches seem to have been accomplished in translation and finding accurate equivalents by different scholars, hitherto fewer studies have been done in finding Persian equivalents designed to investigate the usage of terminology by examining the word-selection methods used in their translation. As a Progressing Field of Interdisciplinary Research, Bahadori and Mirza Suzani, (2017) conducted a study on the students’ practical application of the equivalents of dentistry terms proposed by the Academy of Persian Language and Literature and offered some recommendations for betterment of the equivalents used. Moreover, based on the earlier studies in English into Persian language translation applied to the similar corpus of medical texts in the same context of APLL, the findings of two studies by

Hazrati Golkhandan (2012) and Hesami Tackallou and Ghanbari (2012) can be considered to be compared with the results of the current research.

Hazrati Golkhandan (2012) in his thesis tried to extract the main processes of term formation in Persian and English through a comparative study of medical and computer terms originally coined in English and their equivalents formed by scientific methods of The Academy of Persian Language and Literature in Persian. The results of his research revealed that in Persian, both computer and medical terminology tend to be formed by creating phrasal terms and using derivation, yet in English, medical terminology uses mainly derivation, while computer terminology generally coins compound terms. On the other hand, Hesami Tackallou and Ghanbari (2012) in their article tried to evaluate Persian Academy approved genetics terms acceptance in upper graduate user population, and their results showed that most of the accepted terms were among the selected equivalents.

To compare the present study with the former research, there is not much resemblance found in the results since the applied method of analyzing differed; we can just find the similarity in the areas that the research has been applied. Conversely, in accordance with the latter study, the present corpus has so far reached the same results in that most of the accepted terms were among the selected equivalents.

In Hesami Tackallou and Ghanbari's work (2012) data were just analyzed qualitatively, yet the design of the current study was mixed method by application of both descriptive and inferential statistics. This triangulation could enhance the results with more reliable and accurate data, so that the researchers would be more able to refer to offer feasible recommendations to medical translators' community. Moreover, in Hesami Tackallou and Ghanbari's (2012) study, the equivalents have been investigated from two perspectives while in this corpus the equivalents were studied from four different modes of word-selection. By the way, the current study reached the same results as the previous research by Hesami Tackallou and Ghanbari (2012) with respect to the method of finding equivalents. This achievement could reassure us with the frequency of the acceptability of selected equivalents.

6. Conclusion

In order to find the most frequently used term-making procedures in the registration of Persian equivalents of dentistry terms at APLL, four different methods of word-selection,

namely, selected, coined, expression and borrowing were investigated. The results revealed that selected equivalents were the most widely accepted methods than the other methods of word-selection. In the same way, coined equivalents came second; and borrowing equivalents and expression equivalents came next and respectivly took place at the lowest level of applicability.

The findings of this study can make the researchers, translators, and experts aware of the most frequently used term-making procedures of registered Persian equivalents of dentistry terms in APLL; and help them in application or selection of the best equivalent. The results of study and the suggested methods in selecting or making a Persian equivalent in the field of dentistry encourages the above mentioned community to take the necessity of using a variety of ways in translating into a more careful consideration. The translators are more likely to care about the strengths and weaknesses of different suggested equivalents in different areas when translating and experts are more cautious in considering different aspects in their operations. Being exposed to a variety of related communities, the percentage of usage or practical methods of application of the Persian equivalents will probably increase. Moreover, knowing to what extent the usage of Persian equivalents would benefit the maintenance and preservation of their native language from devastation, the practitioners themselves would also attempt to improve themselves most efficiently through using different types of Persian equivalents best.

It seems axiomatic that in future researches, a larger number of equivalents could be placed in the questionnaire out of the large corpus. Also, in order to generalize the study, a greater number of participants could be used from the same place or different schools of Dentistry in the same province as well as some other provinces at the same time. Furthermore, the effect of gender as a variable could be investigated; and, the relationship between the usage of Persian equivalents and other factors could be focused as well.

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Mixing Explicit Grammar Instruction with TBLT to Improve Autonomy and Writing

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Abstract

This study was an attempt to investigate the comparative impact of explicit and implicit grammar instruction in a TBLT Setting on EFL learners' autonomy and writing. Accordingly, 60 male EFL learners selected from a larger group of 90 learners based on their performance on a sample piloted PET in a language school in Tehran were randomly divided into two experimental groups. Both groups demonstrated homogeneity in terms of their writing and

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autonomy at the outset. The 15-session treatment which followed included explicit instruction of grammar in one experimental group while the other experimental group received instruction on grammar implicitly. At the end of the treatment, a sample PET writing section and the Zhang and Li (2004) autonomy questionnaire were administered to both groups. To test the two hypotheses, a one-way MANOVA was employed concluding that the participants who received explicit instruction of grammar outperformed the participants who received instruction on grammar implicitly in terms of both their autonomy and writing.
Keywords: explicit/implicit instruction of grammar, writing, autonomy

1. Introduction

1.1. Learner Autonomy

The concept of autonomy which is perhaps grounded in a universal human tendency to seek control over one's life has long engaged the minds of people. Albeit a common human tendency, autonomy is displayed in different ways by different people. How it is theorized and practiced varies from time to time, context to context, and culture to culture. In its most basic form, as Kumaravadivelu (2003) states, "It represents a fundamental desire for freedom of thought and freedom of action in personal, economic, social, political, and other walks of life" (p. 131).

Much of the current thinking on the development of learner autonomy, also labeled learning how-to-learn, learner independence, or self-access learning, is based on ideas originally mapped out by Holec (1981) in the context of life-long learning for adult learners. Despite differences in nomenclature across the many adaptations and refinements of Holec's ideas, most proponents of learner autonomy agree that it is neither "something teachers do to their learners nor a concept where teachers simply tell their learners to jump in the water and learn to swim" (Little, 1991, p. 3).

On the contrary, there are also opposing ideas which emphasize that the development and implementation of learner autonomy is an "experience-based learning process for teachers and learners alike" (Dam, 1995, p. 6) and that it requires fairly substantial changes to the established roles of teacher and learner where learners "can better solve learning problems and acquire and internalize the complexities of the language" (Zarei, Darakeh, & Daneshkhah, 2016).

Following the learning-to-learn approach, many studies have been conducted to enrich the general understanding of the concept of learner autonomy (Broady & Kenning, 1996; Dickinson,

1987; Ellis & Sinclair, 1989; Little, 1991; Wenden, 1991). Kumaravadivelu (2003) argues that one can learn that promoting learner autonomy is a matter of helping learners to develop a capacity for critical thinking, discover their learning potential, and take responsibility for learning.

While learner autonomy is a general pedagogical issue, it is also very much focused in a second language learning classroom as the ultimate goal of such environments is learners' being able to engage fluently and independently in all four language skills (Aoki 2001; Little 1995; McGrath 2000; Thavenius 1999; Vieira, 1999). One such skill is of course writing and in the practice of teaching and learning foreign languages, written language was for several centuries regarded as being primary; and literature was viewed as an example of linguistic excellence, which was mediated through written language (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

1.2. Writing

Writing is a process of generating a text as a communicative bridge between the reader and the writer. Learning to write is thus an indispensable part of language learning. Accordingly, becoming more and more aware of this necessity, English language teaching circles are paying further attention to writing (Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 1999). Having considered the fact that even "the majority of native (English) students in their language fail to write a coherent, organized, academic essay" (Brown, 2002, p. 218), the issue gets even more important to be tackled.

One of the major challenges in writing is producing the right syntax (word organization) which conveys the desired semantics (meaning) appropriately. In the words of Broughton, Brumfit, Flavil, Hill, and Pincas (2003, p. 45), "Language, clearly, relies as much on its structure as on its semantic properties to convey meaning. Communication can be infinitely varied and infinitely complex just because the language is a highly structured system which allows an infinite range of permutations".

Accordingly, teachers are often left with a difficult task and it should be pointed out that it is impossible to completely disentangle semantics from grammar, at least partly because many grammatical elements are themselves bearers of meaning (Cruse, 1986); accordingly, finding procedures to teach efficiently the micro factors of writing (i.e. vocabulary and syntax) and the macro factors (cohesion and coherence) is an ongoing challenge.

1.3. Implicit/Explicit Instruction

Further analysis of the above problem – i.e. endeavoring to explain anomalous sentences – illustrates an ongoing controversy in the manner of presenting grammatical rules: explicitly or implicitly. Explicit learning is a "conscious awareness and intention" (Brown, 2007, p. 291) to learn. Brown continues to state that explicit learning involves "input processing to find out whether the input information contains regularities, and if so, to work out the concepts and rules with which these regularities can be captured" (p. 291). Explicit learning is an active process where students seek out the structure of information that is presented to them.

Implicit learning, on the other hand, is "learning without conscious attention or awareness" (Brown, 2007, p. 291). In addition, Brown writes, implicit learning occurs "without intention to learn and without awareness of what has been learned" (p. 292). Implicit learning is a non-conscious process, where students are exposed to information and acquire knowledge of that information simply through that exposure.

To this end, there is a divide between different language teaching methods as to how much grammar should be emphasized and whether it should be dealt with implicitly or explicitly. According to Doughty and Williams (1998), "The implicit/explicit debate has a rich history and the responses to suggestions that second language teaching – which is primarily meaning-focused – could be improved with some degree of attention to form have been heated, especially among classroom teachers" (p. 2).

1.4. Task-Based Language Teaching

One trend of language pedagogy which accommodates both extremes of implicit/explicit instruction in its different varieties is none but Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT); TBLT initially emphasized fluency in communication at the expense of other aspects of language such as accuracy and complexity, as indeed did Krashen and Terrell's Natural Approach (1983) and Prabhu's (1987) arguments against an explicit focus on grammar. Accordingly, various definitions were provided for a classroom task. Some are very general: Nunan's (1989, p. 10) statement is one of the most commonly cited pedagogical definitions of a classroom task where he proposes that "a communication task is a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form".

Other definitions tend to be more specific. For instance, Willis (1996) defines a classroom task as "a goal-oriented activity in which learners use language to achieve a real outcome" (p. 53). Willis also suggests that language use in tasks is likely to reflect language use in the outside world.

The conception was that the ability to use the L2 (knowing how) would develop automatically; this belief led to the experiments with immersion classes in Canada where Anglophone children were educated in Francophone schools to allow them to acquire French naturally. The corollary, nevertheless, was that the learners needed to be encouraged to focus on various points of grammar to achieve the level of accuracy required (Swain, 1988).

Thenceforth, this position of an entire focus on meaning with a universal abandonment of focus on form was challenged. Nunan (1989, p. 13) states that, "There is value in language activities which require learners to focus on form and that grammar is an essential resource in using language communicatively". Some assume that focusing on both form and function would engender target language mastery and that "learners can make use of both formal and functional repertoire to fulfill their communicative needs outside the class" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 25).

Based on the above controversy of explicit and implicit teaching of grammar, this research was conducted to see whether explicit and implicit instruction of grammar in a TBLT setting would affect EFL learners' writing and autonomy differently.

Accordingly, the following questions were raised:

Q1: Is there any significant difference between the impact of teaching grammar explicitly and implicitly in a TBLT setting on EFL learners' autonomy?

Q2: Is there any significant difference between the impact of teaching grammar explicitly and implicitly in a TBLT setting on EFL learners' writing?

2. Method

2.1. Participants

The participants of this study included 60 Iranian male intermediate EFL learners selected based on their performance on a sample Preliminary English Language Test (PET) from a group of 90 such students of a language school where the researcher teaches. These 60 learners were thence randomly assigned to two experimental groups each including 30 students.

2.2. Instrumentations and Materials

2.2.1. Preliminary English Test (PET)

To begin with, the researchers utilized a sample PET piloted beforehand to choose a homogenous sample of participants based on their proficiency prior to the study. The test covers all the four language skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking. PET is part of a group of examinations developed by Cambridge ESOL called the Cambridge Main Suite. The Main Suite consists of five examinations which have similar characteristics but are designed for different levels of English language ability. Within the five levels, PET is at level B1 (Threshold) in the Council of Europe's Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, and assessment. It has also been accredited by the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority in the UK as an Entry Level 3 ESOL certificate in the National Qualifications Framework.

The reliability of the scores of the participants in this administration stood at 0.70.

2.2.2. Learner Autonomy Questionnaire

In order to measure the degree of participants' autonomy in learning both prior to the study for homogenization and after the treatment as a posttest, the Zhang and Li (2004) questionnaire including 21 questions in Likert scale was used by the researchers. This is a highly valid instrument (Dafei, 2007) tapping general autonomy.

Furthermore, the reliability of the scores of the participants in this administration was calculated to be 0.72.

2.2.3. Writing Posttest

Another sample PET writing section (appearing in the Appendix) was conducted as the posttest to measure the improvement of the participants' writing ability in the two groups after five weeks of the treatment period.

2.2.4. Course Book

The textbook from which the tasks were extracted in this study is called Solutions for Success in English (Falla & Davies, 2008). This is a five-level general English course for secondary-school. From elementary to advanced, Solutions supplies the language, teaches the skills, and provides the support to get students using English confidently. The intermediate level of this series was instructed – units 1-10 in order of occurrence. The teacher (one of the researchers)

taught the same lessons in both of the experimental groups. There are 10 units in the intermediate level and each unit contains six parts separated alphabetically from A to G.

2.3. Procedure

Following the piloting and administration of the PET and subsequently establishing the two experimental groups hereinafter referred to as Explicit Grammar Instruction (EGI) and Implicit Grammar Instruction (IGI) groups, the autonomy questionnaire was administered to make sure that the learners were homogenous in terms of their autonomy at the outset as well.

The two treatments commenced by preparing a 15-session syllabus each session lasting 105 minutes. Both groups received the same lessons; however, the difference was the explicit and implicit instruction of grammar. Thus, in the IGI group, less explanatory instruction was dedicated to teaching grammar, that is implicit instruction, and the focus was more on getting the tasks done, whereas there was an explicit approach towards tutoring grammar in the EGI group where the core of every session was a grammar lesson based on which the same related tasks were covered.

The teacher held an orientation session for both of the experimental groups before the first session of the syllabus and dedicated almost one hour to explaining the requirements of the course as well as the segments of every session and the amount of time allocated for each section so that the he could keep the rhythm of every single session like a music band jamming session together for a big performance; the teacher and the learners had to be tuned and ready for each step based on the prior explanations and agreements.

In the orientation session of the EGI group, the teacher contributed more time towards elaborations and enlightenments of the necessity of accuracy and then fluency; however, in the IGI group, this explanation was more focused on the importance of real life tasks and the necessity of getting them done within the course obviously still with the help of the implicit instruction of grammar lessons.

In addition, to increase the sense of autonomy, the learners were encouraged to manage their own learning through awareness within the pre-defined itinerary presented to them in the orientation session. As for the EGI group, every single session was linked to the next one by grammar lessons and the material was thoroughly introduced to them. While in the IGI group, the explanation was spent not on introducing the grammar lessons but on tasks and having the

students informed of the social success which they could achieve by acting out the lessons in society as fluent speakers.

Overall, the syllabus of teaching in both of the IGI and EGI groups was as follows:

- Stage 1 referred to as 'Warm-up' in both groups (5 mins).
- Stage 2 referred to as 'Reading Task' in the IGI and 'Explicit Grammar Instruction' in the EGI group (10-15 mins).
- Stage 3 referred to as 'Implicit Grammar Instruction' in the IGI and 'Reading Task' in the EGI group (10-15 mins).
- Stage 4 referred to as 'Writing Task' in both groups (45 mins).
- Stage 5 referred to as 'Discussion' in both groups (15 mins).

2.3.1. Stage 1 in Both IGI and EGI Groups

The significance of the two treatments and the differences between the two groups lay notably in the heat-up stage as the teacher had to employ two various openings for each group. In the IGI group, the warm-up technique was simply to start the student-student interaction by asking some questions related to the following task (stage 2). Here the teacher guided the students and facilitated their communication by only giving some clues and letting them discuss the topic; he also gave feedback.

On the other hand, in the EGI group, the teacher would start the class preferably with an anecdote or a personal experience (teacher-student interaction). These anecdotes or monologues as such had all been prepared beforehand and were linked not to the task but the grammar lesson (stage 2 of EGI) and the same grammatical rules were also embedded in the short reading task in stage 3.

2.3.2. Stages 2 and 3 in the IGI Group

At stage 2 in the IGI group, the teacher activated the students (lead-in) and led them to perform the gist task. The gist task on short passages took a little time in which the students were taught how to skim the text and find the answer to the follow-up question. This was followed by a peer feedback on the exercise. The detailed task was subsequently applied through which the learners became acquainted how to scan the text and answer the follow-up questions. Then the teacher asked the students to work in pairs and compare answers; later, he got the open feedback (students shared their answers with the class) and the elicitation process was done. This last step

was somewhat the production stage observed by the teacher and even in some contexts, concept checking questions could be of help for further elicitation.

The production stage above would lead to stage 3 in which the written and spoken form of the grammar rule with an example on the board would be highlighted (every session) and the students were asked to repeat the sample sentence individually prior to the choral repetition of the sentences. At this point, the teacher would give the students some restricted practice on the grammar and refer them to grammar of the short text they had in stage 2. Finally, with the explanation of the grammar rule again, the teacher had the students do the free practice on the grammar which was producing structures of their own.

2.3.3. Stages 2 and 3 in the EGI Group

On the contrary to the IGI group, what followed the warm-up in the EGI group was the grammar lesson which was both embedded in the preceding teacher's anecdote and the following task. To begin with, the teacher would use the board not only to write the sample sentence but also to teach the grammar rules explicitly. The teacher would start the sessions with grammar rules as well as a short explanation on their importance. At this stage only, he would not stop the students if they asked questions in their native language or asked for the translation of the structures into their mother tongue since all the learners were Farsi speakers.

After the careful explanation of the rules, the teacher would choose one or two of the students randomly to make similar structures, then all the students were asked to do the follow-up exercises first individually then in pairs to experience peer correction and see their peers' mistakes if there were any. After that, the teacher would again randomly ask some of the students to read out the exercises. Finally, the learners were to produce similar structures of their own and share them with their peers first and then with the class.

In the EGI group, after the teacher made sure that the students learned the grammar rule, he would continue the class with a gist task on the text which was always followed by two sets of questions (similar to IGI) in the course book; the first set of questions was always for the gist task completion while the second set of questions was for the detailed task completion or in other words, for skimming and scanning the text. At this point, the teacher asked the students to work in pairs and groups as much as possible (only in the target language) and he would give them clues both lexical and grammatical to lead the learners through the task completion.

2.3.4. Stage 4 in Both IGI and EGI Groups

In the fourth stage which was the writing task, the techniques used to enhance their writing ability in both experimental groups (IGI and EGI) followed almost similar principles in the steps below: In the IGI group, after the learners were given a topic, they were taught to do the brainstorming first and then share their results in a mini-discussion in pairs or groups. The teacher would give them a sample to read and refer to it so that it would help them to write out a draft with the help of the information gained from the brainstorming.

The students were given a list of editing points mostly on the functions of the sentences and the layout, linkers, and similar hints so that they could edit their own writings (self-edition), after that they would write their clean final piece of writing and share it with their peers first to rate and then to comment on their writings in group discussions. The teacher would collect the writings and rate them after the class. He would add notes to the writings in the margin and highlight both the weak and strong points.

In the EGI group, the steps were all the same except when the teacher gave a list of editing points to the students. Not only would he provide them with functions of the sentences, the layout of the writing, linkers, and hints, but also the teacher would ask them to focus on the grammar rules of the day. That would work only as a reminder of the grammar lesson they had just covered. In this way, the learners would subconsciously focus on the grammatical mistakes as well as other aspects of the writing such as its lexicon and layout in the peer editing stage.

2.3.5. Stage 5 in Both IGI and EGI Groups

The last stage of the class was as important as the first stage because it boiled down to the question of priorities both in the IGI and EGI groups. The teacher made sure to allocate the last 15 minutes of every session on a discussion depending on the lesson of the day and the experimental groups.

In the IGI group, the teacher would run a discussion on the topic of the day based on the finished task; the students were asked to take part and share opinions. Although the teacher would not correct the grammatical mistakes of the learners as long as they could get themselves across, he would recast the incorrect structures once during the dialogues and discussions. He would also help the learners to use the phrases and lexical chunks correctly and lead the discussions to an ending. In the EGI group, the teacher was responsible first to observe the speaking of the learners in terms of the use of lexical chunks and the phrases mentioned in the

tasks and second to see if they were able to explicitly articulate the same phrases in correct grammatical structures.

At the end of the treatment, both experimental groups sat for the autonomy questionnaire posttest as well as the writing posttest in two days.

3. Results

In order to test the two hypotheses, the researchers carried out a series of both descriptive and inferential statistical analyses and came up with certain results that are elaborated in a chronological order of participants selection, posttest administration, and testing the hypothesis.

3.1. Posttest

The researchers administered the two posttests (i.e. a sample PET writing section and the autonomy questionnaire) in the two groups once the treatment was completed.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for the Writing Posttest in Both Groups

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness Ratio
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	
Writing Posttest – EGI	30	16.0	24.0	20.033	2.2967	-0.14
Writing Posttest – IGI	30	15.0	25.0	18.600	2.2682	1.52
Autonomy – EGI	30	63.0	83.0	70.533	5.0154	1.08
Autonomy – IGI	30	44.0	77.0	61.533	9.6230	-0.48
Valid N (listwise)	30					

Table 1 above shows that the mean and standard deviation (on the writing posttest) of the EGI group were 20.03 and 2.30, respectively. In the IGI group, however, the mean was 18.60 while the standard deviation stood at 2.27. As for the autonomy posttest, the mean and standard deviation of the EGI group were 70.53 and 5.02, respectively. In the IGI group, however, the mean was 61.53 while the standard deviation stood at 9.62.

3.2. Testing the Null Hypotheses

In line with the two research questions (stated earlier), the following two null hypotheses were raised:

H_{01}: *There is no significant difference between the impact of teaching grammar explicitly and implicitly in a TBLT setting on EFL learners' autonomy.*

H_{02}: *There is no significant difference between the impact of teaching grammar explicitly and implicitly in a TBLT setting on EFL learners' writing.*

To test both null hypotheses of the study, the researchers conducted a one-way MANOVA. First, the prerequisites for this test were run. As Table 1 shows, all the four sets of scores of the two groups fell within the acceptable range (±1.96). The next assumption is checking the multivariate normality. According to Table 2, the Mahalanobis maximum distance is 6.538 which is less than the critical value of 13.82 (Pallant, 2007). This means that there are no multivariate outliers in the data and thus the assumption of multivariate normality has not been violated.

Table 2

Regression Output: Residuals Statistics

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	.95	2.15	1.50	.280	60
Std. Predicted Value	-1.952	2.308	.000	1.000	60
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.056	.152	.092	.026	60
Adjusted Predicted Value	.95	2.16	1.50	.282	60
Residual	-.635	.773	.000	.419	60
Std. Residual	-1.490	1.812	.000	.983	60
Stud. Residual	-1.515	1.844	.002	1.004	60
Deleted Residual	-.657	.800	.001	.438	60
Stud. Deleted Residual	-1.533	1.885	.004	1.012	60
Mahalanobis Distance	.018	6.538	1.967	1.677	60
Cook's Distance	.000	.132	.015	.021	60

Centered Leverage Value	.000	.111	.033	.028	60

Figure 1 also shoes no obvious evidence of non-linearity.

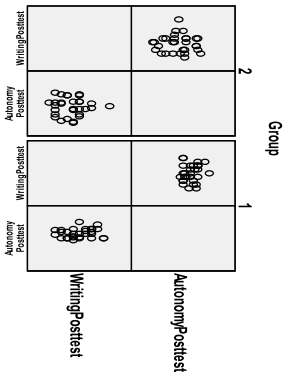

Figure 1

Scatterplot of the Autonomy and Writing Posttest Scores Obtained by Both Groups

The next assumption is equality of covariance matrices. According to Box's test, the significance value was 0.009 and larger than 0.001 and thus the assumption is not violated. As for the final assumption or the Levene's test of equality of error variances, the significance value was 0.813 which is not smaller than 0.05 and thus the assumption was met.

With the above assumptions in place, the MANOVA could be performed. Table 3 below demonstrates the Multivariate test:

Table 3

Multivariate Tests

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.993	4168.404[a]	2.000	57.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.007	4168.404[a]	2.000	57.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	146.260	4168.404[a]	2.000	57.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	146.260	4168.404[a]	2.000	57.000	.000
Group	Pillai's Trace	.309	12.728[a]	2.000	57.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.691	12.728[a]	2.000	57.000	.000

Hotelling's Trace	.447	12.728[a]	2.000	57.000	.000
Roy's Largest Root	.447	12.728[a]	2.000	57.000	.000

The result of the Pillai's Trace Test specified that F = 12.73 and p = 0.000 < 0.05. It could thus be concluded that there was a statistically significant difference between the two experimental groups with the explicit instruction group which gained a higher mean in both posttests outperforming the implicit instruction group.

Table 4 below demonstrates the test of between-subjects effects as part of the MANOVA output. As illustrated in this table, the two groups turned out to have a statistically significant difference in the writing posttest, F(1,54) = 5.91 and p = 0.018 < 0.05. In other words, the first null hypothesis was rejected meaning that explicit instruction of grammar did have a significantly better impact on EFL learners' writing compared to implicit instruction of grammar.

Table 4.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Writing Posttest	30.817a	1	30.817	5.915	.018	.093
	Autonomy Posttest	1215.000b	1	1215.000	20.636	.000	.262
Intercept	Writing Posttest	22388.017	1	22388.017	4297.314	.000	.987
	Autonomy Posttest	261624.067	1	261624.067	4443.482	.000	.987
Group	Writing Posttest	30.817	1	30.817	5.915	.018	.093
	Autonomy Posttest	1215.000	1	1215.000	20.636	.000	.262
Error	Writing Posttest	302.167	58	5.210			
	Autonomy Posttest	3414.933	58	58.878			
Total	Writing Posttest	22721.000	60				
	Autonomy Posttest	266254.000	60				
Corrected Total	Writing Posttest	332.983	59				
	Autonomy Posttest	4629.933	59				

Furthermore, Table 4 specifies that there is a statistically significant difference in both experimental groups in the autonomy posttest: $F(1,54) = 20.64$ and $p = 0.000 < 0.05$. In other words, the second null hypothesis was also rejected meaning that explicit instruction of grammar did have a significantly better impact on EFL learners' autonomy compared to implicit instruction of grammar. The effect size using Eta squared was 0.27, indicating a large effect size (Pallant, 2007), which means that the instruction accounted for 27% of the overall variance.

4. Discussion

A multitude of research conducted within the extended framework of TBLT has demonstrated the significantly advantageous impact of such instruction on writing (e.g., Bruton, 2005; Marashi & Dadari, 2012; Mirzaii, 2012; Rezaei, 2014). Meanwhile, more than a handful of studies have concluded in favor of the motion that TBLT does promote EFL learners' autonomy (e.g., Dafei, 2007; Nunan, 1997; Zhang & Li, 2004).

The researchers in this study aimed at running a comparative study on the effectiveness of explicit/implicit instruction of grammar within a TBLT setting. While the literature is overwhelmed by various examples of research studies conducted on the above two approaches with conflicting results (as discussed earlier in this study), the results here clearly indicated that the explicit instruction of grammar was more effective on learners' writing and autonomy.

Perhaps one underlying reason for the above result is the "powerful mental processes which enable learners to analyze language into the appropriate parts of complex mappings of form-function relationships and then resynthesize for communicative use" (Long & Crookes. 1992, p. 31). Whereas, in the implicit instruction approach, chances are that neither the clarification of the grammar occurred in naturally opportune moments nor was it presented in a way as to make the desired optimal impact on learners, the explicit instruction of grammar, however, created learning opportunities which were more identifiable to students.

It was clear that through meaningful involvement of the learners in generating learning opportunities in class as the joint responsibility of teachers and learners alike, both could act like co-managers of each session, and learning was more accessible because students felt actually in control of their learning. In addition, the emphasis of on the explicit instruction of grammar was not placed on isolated grammar teaching, and the students' output was not restricted; instead, the

students were helped to notice language forms that might not be in focus within a meaning-based curriculum. Accordingly, Heilenman (1995) stated that such instruction encourages students to focus on form within a communicative context.

Among the learners in both the implicit and explicit experimental groups, a great many lacked adequate skills in writing even in their own language. Yet, they were all eager to enhance the level of their writing, respectively. At the same time, their presumption and expectations of a typical English course would deter them from accepting the challenge to learn grammar rules; that is the reason why a TBLT setting was provided to primarily earn the learners' trust in grammar again and interestingly it was clear that the learners also had the desire to find explicit answers to their long awaited grammatical questions.

The necessity of explicit instruction of grammar in real life tasks was observed since the learners who received this instruction became better learners and as Benson (2001) states, "Autonomy in language learning is equivalent to better language learning" (p. 191); this improvement was because learners were encouraged to think consciously about linguistic forms and their relationship to meaning (Kumaravadivelu, 2003) when they were asked to do communicative tasks that focus on form as well as meaning. The TBLT setting was provided with a return to the centralization of grammar (Tomlinson, 2001) in the EGI group: an ideal and frequent goal in language teaching that learners would be able to manage their own learning.

Another important element in the explicit instruction group was its predictability. That is, in most other courses, one hardly knows where to expect a certain kind of exercise or instruction. Some lessons begin with a reading passage, whereas a listening exercise comes first in others. Each unit in this course was designed in exactly the same format and the order of activities was always the same so that after two or three units into the course, the learners became completely aware of what was going to happen next. This is perhaps the case as the explicit instruction of grammar in TBLT seeks to bring awareness as a chained map of instruction and help the learners go far beyond their existing knowledge without of course the predictability creating boredom.

In other words, the systematicity of the work designed and conducted in the EGI group perhaps subconsciously encouraged and promoted a sense of orderly and systematic learning among the learners. This trend per se probably facilitated the learning process in class and thereby enabled them to achieve better in writing and further consolidate their autonomy compared to the IGI group.

5. Conclusion, Implication, and Limitation

Managing the outcome and reaching the desired goal in the shortest time possible in all activities matters the most in the fast pace of today's life as it also does in teaching business and unlike many businesses that have experienced major losses in the economic turmoil and recessions of the past two decades, English teaching is among the few that have seen a somewhat steady growth. Vast amounts of money are thus being spent by learners switching from one course, school, or teacher to the next as the notion of purely communicative teaching somewhat disregards the fact that the majority of EFL learners are neither living in an English speaking country nor capable of assimilating linguistic forms and functions that are often neglected in favor of establishing a rudimentary and inadequate kind of communication.

Given the data presented in this study, the researchers suggest that if an explicit and minimal grammatical instruction precedes communicative tasks instead of being overshadowed by them, there will be a significant reduction in the amount of class time necessary to achieve greater autonomy and as such, learning English will be more affordable for individuals and create more equal opportunities for both individuals and communities.

To introduce the effectiveness of explicit instruction of grammar within TBLT (or include them in contexts where they already exist), teacher training centers and institutions obviously need to familiarize teachers with explicit techniques of teaching grammar minimally which precedes the communicative tasks. This training could both be done for teachers who are being trained or those already engaged in the practice of pedagogy in the form of in-service courses.

At present, the discourse of professional teachers and their sources of reading are heavily reliant on what is produced in major Western universities and although the methodical approaches of such authorities are quite remarkable, one wonders if the variables which they choose are always the most pertinent to the regional realities of different environments and circumstances. This is particularly true when it is an established fact that nonnative teachers outnumber native ones in ELT around the globe (Braine as cited in Tajeddin & Askari, 2016).

Adhering to some pre-fabricated learning strategies in class culminates in an absence of the 'sense of ownership' or in simple terms 'autonomy'; thus, the conscious negligence towards expecting too much from the learners who are only fed with theories when they in the first place might not have shown their willingness warns any language teacher of losing the learner. This is where the teacher should maximize the clarification of each step in his/her instruction in detail

and have the students focus on the sensitivity of each session and seek their enthusiasm in doing the tasks and grammar lessons of course by already being oriented to the steps of their learning in class.

As for material developers, biased attitudes towards teaching grammar whether implicitly or explicitly should not cause them to overlook the very primacy of grammar. At the same time, syllabus designers must take into consideration the threat of boredom during grammar instruction as well. It is thus recommended that more built-in support structures were applied in a lesson in the form of well-designed tasks thus enhancing students' learning. This will allow teachers to teach less and let students learn more through constructing their own knowledge over learning.

Syllabus designers and materials developers may wish to provide the content of teaching material with comprehensible and proper tasks and exercises to familiarize learners with real-life tasks through which the formal structure of the language is also taken into consideration by designing explicit grammar lessons followed by communicative real-life tasks.

Finally, in the process of conducting this study, certain suggestions for other studies in line with the one at stake came to the researchers' mind, which are:

1. This research was carried out among adults; the same experiment could be implemented among other age groups to see whether age is a factor in comparing the impact of implicit and explicit instructions of grammar in TBLT.
2. Only male students participated in this research; it would be interesting to see whether gender is also a factor.
3. Other studies could be carried out to explore into the interaction of – perhaps qualitatively – learner autonomy, cultural variables affecting autonomy, and teacher-learner relationship.

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Appendix: Writing Posttest

Writing
Part 1

Questions 1–5

Here are some sentences about food.
For each question, complete the second sentence so that it means the same as the first.
Use no more than three words.
Write only the missing words on your answer sheet.
You may use this page for any rough work.

Example:

0 My parents asked me if I was eating well.

My parents said to me, '_____ well?'

Answer: | 0 | *Are you eating* |

1 Fish is better for you than meat.

Meat isn't _____ for you as fish.

2 Snacks can be bought in the café.

You _____ in the café.

Tip
Look at the words before and after the gap to help with the meaning.

3 He can cook really well.

He's really _____ cooking.

4 There are only a few good restaurants in this area.

There aren't very _____ good restaurants in this area.

5 It is a good idea to eat plenty of fruit and vegetables.

Everybody _____ plenty of fruit and vegetables.

Part 2

Question 6

You forgot your friend Paul's birthday.
Write a note to Paul. In your note, you should

- apologise for forgetting his birthday
- suggest you take him out for a meal
- say when you are free.

Write **35–45 words** on your answer sheet.

Tip

Look at the verbs like thank, suggest, tell, offer, invite, etc. Don't just repeat these verbs in your answer – think about what to write that has the meaning of these verbs.

Part 3

Write an answer to **one** of the questions (**7** or **8**) in this part.
Write your answer in about **100 words** on your answer sheet.
Put the question number in the box at the top of your answer sheet.

Question 7

- Your English teacher has asked you to write a story.
- Your story must begin with this sentence:

  I was surprised when I arrived at the bus stop.

- Write your **story** on your answer sheet.

Tip

Plan your ideas before you start. Think of the best order to put them in.

Question 8

- This is part of a letter you receive from your English penfriend, Jane.

  I really like basketball. What's your favourite sport?

- Now write a letter to Jane, telling her about your favourite sport.
- Write your **letter** on your answer sheet.

Tip

Begin 'Dear ...' and write a suitable ending, e.g. 'Love from ...'.

Iranian EFL Journal



Task-based Instruction with L2 Literature at the Tertiary Level: ELT in Iranian context

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Biodata

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Abstract

This study was motivated by the concern to enhance the role of L2 literature in foreign language (FL) learning at the tertiary level by means of task-based instruction. To this end and regarding the efficacy of communicative tasks in language curricula, a task-based teaching procedure (TBTP) pivoted on a presentation/discussion task was devised and implemented during two semesters while being compared with two variants of lecturing (communicative and non-communicative) commonly practiced in academic FL literary courses in the context of the study. In the two phases of the study, 72 juniors majoring in English Teaching and English Literature at Shiraz University (Iran) with a background of two-year experience with general English study participated in the experiments. The amount of class interaction generated by the

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TBTP was found to be accompanied with levels of achievement comparable to those of the other procedures. Furthermore, the findings showed that the procedure was significantly more functional than non-communicative lecturing regarding learners' progress over the instruction period. The same was also the case for learners with more literary knowledge when it was compared with communicative lecturing. In light of such merits, implications for integrating L2 literature as a part of foreign language teaching into task-based instruction framework are discussed.
Keywords: foreign language learning, task-based instruction, L2 literature, peer interaction

1. Introduction

Tertiary level foreign language education in Iran supplements courses in language skills development with an array of themes in L2 literature. This supplementary component in language curriculum is naturally supposed to provide learners with opportunities to enjoy motivating and purposeful classroom interaction in the target language which is, in turn, supposed to pave the way for interactional authenticity (Bachman, 1990). Such authenticity is expected to be an influential factor in language learning especially in exposure-poor EFL contexts including the one where this study has been done.

However, teaching practices adopted for handling literary courses in this curriculum have practically denied learners of opportunities to enjoy such an asset. The mechanism of monologue lectures commonly employed in such courses, whether with a traditional teacher-fronted approach to teaching or updated by means of adding some communicative techniques does not seem to provide learners with sufficient opportunities to get involved in authentic class interaction. That is, by nature, these teaching strategies restrict investment in meaning negotiation, group working, and even regular class discussions that could be easily triggered by literary themes in the course of helping foreign language learners with integrative skill development.

To deal with the problem, this study embarked on monitoring the implementation of a task-based teaching procedure with its highly recognized potential for producing purposeful class interaction in handling literary courses at the tertiary level of L2 education. The major objective of the study was, accordingly, to check the possibility of managing such courses in a way that EFL learners are offered abundant opportunities for class interaction while maintaining

justifiable rates of achievement and progress with regard to the targeted subject matter. Therefore, literary achievement and progress rates comparable to those gained by traditional lecturing teaching strategy were regarded as indexes of success for integrating FL literature pedagogy and task-based instruction.

2. Literature review

2.1. L2 Literature in Language Pedagogy

The justification for employing literature in language education is patently obvious from the volume of research on and the resulting implications for the use of literature in language curricula (Hişmanoğlu, 2005; Sell, 2005; Van, 2009), how to benefit from literature (Hanauer, 2001; Kim, 2004; Premawardhena, 2009), and its appreciated status in foreign language teaching (Carter, 2007; Hall, 2005; Paran, 2008). Quoting a number of authors and researchers, Parkinson and Thomas (2000) have provided a plethora of reasons for making use of foreign language literature in language classes. In line with the arguments developed by Collie and Slater (1990) and Hişmanoğlu (2005), four major functions attributed to literature in language education include providing authentic materials, enriching language input, enhancing learners' involvement in the learning process, and enriching the cultural load of language learning which is supposed to provide for the development of cross-cultural competence supplementing communicative competence.

2.1.1. Employing Authentic Materials

Since works of literature are not primarily created for the purpose of language teaching, they can contextualize genuine samples of real-life language use greatly needed by EFL learners who might not be sufficiently exposed to the target language outside language classes. Authenticity of materials characteristic of literary works is likely to help learners practice coping with the type of language use which is expected of native speakers. In addition, learners are also helped with a wide range of linguistic forms employed in various social contexts at the service of performing functions and expressing notions recurrent in daily life language use. Highlighting the same point, Cruz (2010) holds that literature can be regarded as a rich source of authentic materials (on the part of those who have primarily addressed native speakers drawing on a mastery of the target language system) on two grounds: exposing learners to language in use with real-life

communicative purposes, and representing the spoken language in written form in accordance with the specifications of particular socio-cultural contexts.

2.1.2. Enriching Language Input

Langer (1997) believes that language learners can be provided with "horizons" of linguistic possibilities through the use of literature. That is, literature exposes learners to various expressive styles and registers while offering a wide range of lexical categories, syntactic forms, and discourse functions verbally formulated with those syntactic forms. This gives rise to the gradual internalization of a linguistic system that can be employed in the process of encoding ideas whether in written or spoken form. Similarly, Van (2009) maintains that literature offers ample opportunities to streamline learners' syntactic, discourse, and pragmatic competence since it is replete with instances of real-life language use within a variety of situations.

Arguing for the role of literature in developing language skills and the process of skills integration, McKay (2001) contends for literature as an ideal source for extensive reading since it easily attracts learners' attention and gets them sufficiently involved. According to Stern (2001), literature can yield a rich and provocative supply of materials for dealing with the challenge of writing practice in ESL/EFL contexts. In turn, learners who are exposed to and get familiarized with this diversity and richness in linguistic assets are also expected to become more risk-taking, productive, and innovative in their own practice of language use.

2.1.3. Enhancing Learners' Involvement

While language learners are busy with reading a literary piece and deeply involved in the content, they begin to feel themselves overwhelmed by the topic so much so that minute points of form count much less to them than following the course of interrelated events arranged by the author. This seems to be an ideal juncture for motivation enhancement if the selection of materials is done in line with considerations for learners' cognitive and affective status. According to some researchers (Ghosn, 2002; Shrestah, 2007; Van, 2009), the motivational impetus derived from literature can be attributed to its characteristic features including authenticity, variation in language use, and dealing with tangible real-life issues. These merits are likely to stimulate interest and enthusiasm among learners far beyond concerns with learning language forms per se.

2.1.4. Enriching Cultural Load

From among recent developments in the profession of language pedagogy, a one has been the recognition of a role for cultural competence as a building block for communicative competence. Intercultural competence that has given rise to a new orientation to developing communicative competence (Atey, Kurt, Çamlibel, Ersin, & Kaslioglu, 2009) is defined as the ability/knowledge to behave appropriately and with flexibility when one faces worldviews, attitudes, and actions representative of other cultures (Meyer, 1991). Accordingly, it is believed to underlie a behavioral alignment which is characterized by "morally right ways of thinking and acting" (Jokikokko, 2005).

On the grounds of a welter of reasons, researchers (Lazar, 2005; Parkinson & Thomas, 2000; Sell, 2005; Van, 2009) argue for literature as an ideal source of materials to foster learners' knowledge and understanding of the target language culture. Dealing with universal themes such as love, hatred, and nature, literature opens up attractive settings in which characters representing various social classes and ways of thought can be depicted. This way, learners can tangibly experience varieties of cultural and social representations in daily life language practices as they are depicted in the course of events outlined in literary works.

2.2. Approaches to Teaching L2 Literature

While the audiolingual method was in vogue, there was no place for literature in language pedagogy given the fact that its advocates believed in the supremacy of speech over written language and particularly literary texts since they thought such passages would expose learners to static and archaic language which is of little use to daily life needs. With the emergence of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), literature was recognized as a vibrant impetus for triggering class discussion and genuine communication on issues beyond mere language form learning and practice. Duff and Maley (1990) hold that since literature is open to individual interpretation, language teachers can make use of it to enhance purposeful class interaction, an essential contribution to the implementation of CLT. In spite of this theoretical emphasis, common practice in exploiting L2 literature in foreign language education has mostly concentrated on literary criticism, critical literacy, text/language elements, and stylistic issues (Amer, 2003; Carter & Long, 1991; Maley, 1989; Van, 2009), learning practices that lend themselves well to traditional and teacher-fronted methods of language teaching.

Hall (2005) classifies approaches to employing literature in L2 language education into three broad categories: traditional, sociocultural, and communicative. The traditional approach represented by Grammar Translation Method, sets literature as both the means and the end of learning the written system of a given language. The sociocultural approach makes use of literature for learners' self-actualization regarding linguistic and cognitive needs. However, with the communicative approach, L2 literature is expected to provide such a rich bulk of materials and discourse for language education that integration of literature into language teaching is welcomed in light of affective, cultural, and psycholinguistic concerns. From among the approaches suggested by Amer (2003) and Van (2009), two emphasize readers' response in literary text interpretation that is apt to pave the way for integration of literature and language education as expected by the communicative approach.

In a seminal work on approaches to teaching literature in ELT contexts, Durant (1995) has extensively addressed the need for methodological innovations. To set a background for reflecting on such innovations, he first reviews major approaches to literature teaching in L1 contexts including lectures, informal dialogs, workshops, and self-access learning. The most common method both in L1 and 2 contexts, according to Durant (1995), is monologue lecture which is believed to be an appropriate means in transferring information to a large number of learners. Information transference with this method is guaranteed if the lecturer is given the opportunity to provide an inclusive interpretation and perhaps with a critical review of the literary text in question without being interrupted. The shortcoming of such teaching strategy is that various learning styles and learner needs could not be catered for in a balanced way entailing imbalance in the amount of information that could be transmitted. The problem is also coupled with boredom among learners due to lack of class interaction through which learners can get the chance to play an active role in the course of class events.

Enriching literary courses in EFL education with class interaction by means of innovative teaching techniques has been a compensatory measure taken by lecturers. Such innovation has mostly been in the form of class work or group work activities with analysis of literary texts. The communicative element in this teaching strategy is that of structuring interaction between lecturer and learners and among learners with an ongoing emphasis on learners' participation and active involvement in class activities. The emphasis on class interaction and learners' participation has culminated in the insight that adopting a task-based approach to teaching

literature within a language curriculum could be a promising alternative to the traditional approaches.

In the same line, Durant (1995) suggests a number of workshop tasks including activities drawing on comparing texts on the same theme in different registers, replacing words in a text and monitoring the resulting effects, restoring sentence order in literary text portions by searching for language clues, testing predictive hypotheses about what follows in a text on the basis of a given opening to a novel or short story, rewriting texts in various literary genre, and dramatizing a passage. Scrutiny of the tenets in these activities reveals that the notion of task performance has been mostly associated with micro-level processing of literary texts which is limited just to early stages of preparation for involvement in higher-level practice ranging from determining subject and theme in a literary work either by recognizing key elements in stories or clues in poems to working out justifiable interpretations for a given work.

Considering this higher-order level of L2 literary processing, running class discussions and class interactions in the target language for the purpose of handling macro-level aspects of literary texts was supposed to be a task that would help learners with their academic requirements in the context of this study. To address some objectives of the study elaborated above, the core task was designed in line with basic features specified by Willis (2005) and Ellis (2003).

From the language learning perspective, Willis (2005) defines tasks as class activities that have a non-linguistic (communicative) purpose with a clear outcome (signaling its accomplishment) while requiring the use of some or all of the four language skills for its accomplishment. Furthermore, from a pedagogical perspective, Ellis (2003) outlines the framework of task-based instruction by distinguishing three successive phases technically called pre-, during-, and post-task, respectively corresponding to cognitive and affective preparation for a task, performing the task, and getting involved in follow-up activities based on or triggered by the task. Task-based teaching practices are expected to observe these guidelines in both design and procedures.

Given the cognitive and affective merits documented for TBI in language teaching on the one hand and the role attributed to L2 literature in FL language education as elaborated above, on the other, three research questions were formulated to address a major academic concern in the context of the study. That is, exploiting the potential of L2 literature for providing EFL learners

at the tertiary level for the sake of providing EFL learners with invaluable opportunities for peer interaction in the target language. In other words, the study aimed at examining the efficiency of TBI with its established function in producing purposeful class interaction in dealing with literary courses at the tertiary level of language education. In search of justification for this efficiency for TBI, the objectives were primarily set to check the functionality of TBI in light of learners' achievement and progress gains in those courses in comparison with that of communicative and non-communicative lecturing procedures commonly being practiced in the context of the study. In the second place, the moderating effect of learners' level of L2 literary knowledge was also put to test. The following questions were to address the objectives of the study in order of prominence.

1. Do Iranian EFL learners enjoy acceptable achievement gains in literary courses at the tertiary level if they are taught with TBI?
2. Do learners show significant progress rates if such courses are handled with TBI?
3. Do learners at different levels of literary knowledge produce significantly different progress rates with TBI?

3. Method

3.1. Context of the Study

The study was carried out at Shiraz University, Iran where university students majoring in English as a foreign language, regardless of their specific field orientation (English Literature, English Language Teaching, or English Translation), have to take a series of courses in English literature. These courses cover a variety of topics including 'Simple Prose', 'Simple Poetry', 'Introduction to English Literature (I) (Short Story)' and 'Introduction to English Literature (II) (Elements of Poetry)', 'A Survey in English Literature (I) and (II)', 'Literary Criticism (I) and (II)', 'American Literature', and 'Literary Terms and Figures of Speech' which are commonly offered in the second half of the BA program. Students regularly take general English courses in major language skills and sub-skills mostly in the first half of the program.

3.2. Participants

72 juniors (males and females: 32 in the first phase and 40 in the second phase) taking the course "Introduction to Literature (II)" participated in this study. Apart from covering English courses in conversation (two credits), reading comprehension (three credits), and sentence

writing (four credits), these participants had taken some courses in English literature including 'Simple Prose', 'Simple Poetry', and 'Introduction to English Literature (I) (Short Story). With intact classes, the sampling process in the two phases of the study was the result of a matching procedure based on students' scores on two achievement pretests in the middle of two successive semesters. The items in the tests were on literary elements regularly covered in the first half of the course (see below for instrument details).

The matching procedure was used both to give shape to homogeneous experimental and control groups out of intact classes and to divide treatment groups into subgroups of high- and low-levels of knowledge in English literature concerning elements of poetry so that any possible differential treatment effects with progress for participants at different levels could be traced. For the same reason, subgrouping was also done in the control group in the second phase since lecturing with a communicative orientation in this phase had been targeted for closer comparison with the treatment. The results of the matching process were further subjected to independent-samples t-test analyses so that the procedure of grouping and sub-grouping could be double-checked for subject variability. The following tables present the status of groups and sub-groups in terms of the pretest results.

Table 1

Grouping and sub-grouping based on pretest results in phase 1

Group	N	Mean	SD	t-value	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Control	16	7.69	3.42	.52	30	.609
Experimental	16	8.31	3.42			
H-experimental	9	11.11	.78	12.55**	14	.000
L-experimental	7	4.71	1.25			

**p < .05

Table 2

Grouping and sub-grouping based on pretest results in phase 2

Group	N	Mean	SD	t-value	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Control	20	11.01	2.42	.73	38	.828
Experimental	20	10.41	2.80			
H-control	12	12.38	1.68	4.26**	18	.000

L-control	8	8.97	1.86			
H-experimental	12	12.21	1.88	5.76**	18	.000
L-experimental	8	7.72	1.40			

**p < .05

The information in Tables 1 and 2 show how pretests performance in the two phases of the study provided support for homogeneity across the experimental and control groups as whole groups (t = 0.52 for the first phase and t = 0.73 for the second phase). The same is also the case for more knowledgeable sub-groups (t = 1.76 and t = .23 for the first and second phases respectively) and less knowledgeable ones (t = 0.30 and t = 1.52 for the first and second phases respectively). In relation to the third question, significant performance differences are shown for sub-groups within experimental groups in both phases of the study.

3.3. Materials

To cover materials on figures of speech and those of thought in English poetry as the basic elements in "Introduction to English Literature (II)", lecturers in the context of the study usually work on a selection from a leading source book authored by Laurence Perrine (1974) titled *Literature: The Elements of Poetry*. In the treatment periods in the two phases of the study, a collection of such works were covered only with some variation in arrangement compared to what is done in regular courses so that the selection of materials would well contextualize the literary elements regularly targeted in the course.

3.4. Instruments

Achievement tests with 11 to 17 short-answer questions were used for the matching procedure, pre-testing, and post-testing in the two phases of the study. They were constructed by an associate professor of English literature on poems encompassing a sufficient sample of the poetry elements which are typically covered in the first half of the course. With the supervision of the test-maker, the tests were checked for content validity. Regarding the fact that these achievement tests were the major tools used for data collection in the study, a sample of the tests was also checked for reliability; the index for over time reliability was found to be 0.80.

3.5. Data Collection Procedure

Through two phases each embedded in a separate semester within an academic year, the study examined justification for practicing the suggested TBTP (employed as the treatment elaborated below) for handling the courses in focus while being compared with two variants of lecturing

procedure. As for pretesting, achievement tests were administered along with the midterm exams signifying the beginning of the data collection intervals in the second half of each semester. The posttests were administered along with final exams just at the end of the semesters to obtain the necessary information for multiple achievement and progress comparisons.

The implementation of the three teaching procedures was made possible with the cooperation of two staff members in the department of Foreign Languages and Linguistics at Shiraz University. The professor in charge of the treatments enjoyed both a rich background in English literature and a strong tendency toward running her classes with a communicative orientation. In a number of sessions, she was informed on the mechanism of class handling with the suggested task-based procedure on a regular basis to ascertain that the interactive essence of the task is made clear to the instructor.

Moreover, the implementation of the treatments was repeatedly observed by the researcher to make sure that the guidelines were being followed as they had been negotiated. This double monitoring was due to the researcher's concern for the exact operation of the presentation/discussion task and coverage of the targeted literary elements within the treatment time intervals. More importantly, the systematic observation also made it possible to scrutinize patterns of class interaction and class time sharing by the interlocutors whether the instructor or the students. As for an elaboration on the implementation of the TBTP (the treatment), an account of the procedure in light of the major task along with the mechanism of class management is given below.

3.6. Treatment

For two whole semesters, students in the comparison-experimental groups were divided into groups of 3 and 4. They were assigned the whole or part of a poem (depending on the number of elements that had to be covered) for preparation, presentation, and handling follow-up discussions. At the beginning of the treatments, the lecturer made it clear that part of the term grade would be allocated to individuals' contribution to their groups' performance and class discussions. This contribution was operationally defined as active participation in group presentation and helping with running discussions by raising questions, providing feedback to other groups' contribution, or responding to questions put forth by other groups. What follows is a brief account of the different phases of the task in whole.

3.6.1. Pre-task

For the pre-task phase, the small groups went through the preparation stage by seeking for the lecturer's consultation (the same lecturer helped with the treatments in both phases of the study). The pre-task tutoring was offered on a regular basis throughout the treatment periods resulting in a sufficient amount of information gap that was needed for initiating class interaction and managing discussion across the groups on the part of the group in charge. These activities would be directed by the group in charge under the continuous supervision of the instructor.

3.6.2. During-task

To perform the core task, the group in charge would present the assigned poem to the class by describing and elaborating on the contextualized literary elements while each group member would play a pre-specified role to share a portion of the endeavor. In addition to providing for a motivating class atmosphere, the lecturer would closely monitor the course of class management and discussion being run by the group in charge and give occasional hints regarding the relevant interpretations and elaborations on the issues under focus so that it could be ascertained that the discussions would go ahead in the expected course. As a facilitator of learning, the instructor would try to pave the way for the required class atmosphere by encouraging learners' involvement and removing obstacles if lack of technical information or language proficiency would hinder the level of involvement required.

3.6.3. Post-task

Since a major concern of the study was to enhance class interaction, during the post-task phase the group in charge would raise pre-determined triggering questions about figures of speech or thought included in the poems occasionally mentioned in the previous phase and how they could be possibly distinguished from one another. Furthermore, an overall interpretation of the poem in light of a recognizable subject along with relevant justifying reasons were to be put to discussion across groups by the group in charge which would enjoy the instructor's help whenever it was necessary.

It should be restated here that a major objective in this study was to compare the functioning of the suggested task-based teaching procedure with that of two variants of lecturing procedure in light of literary knowledge achievement and progress beyond abundant opportunities for peer interaction taken for granted under task-based instruction. With this comparison-experimental study design, class members in the control group in the first phase of the study received

instruction on literary elements included in the poems merely through the commonly practiced teacher-fronted lecturing procedure. In the second phase, the lecturer would employ the same teaching procedure but with a communicative orientation; that is, the students in the control group benefitted from communicative practice realized by the lecturer's emphasis on using the question-answer technique on a regular basis.

4. Results

4.1. Achievement

To address achievement gains over the treatment periods, posttest results in the two phases were subjected to independent samples t-test analyses. Table 3 shows the results.

Table 3

Comparison of groups' achievement in the two phases

Group/Phase	N of cases	M	SD	t-value	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Control/1	16	9.50	2.04	1.26	30	0.218
Experimental/1	16	10.44	2.17			
Control/2	20	14.49	2.78	0.21	38	0.833
Experimental/2	20	14.66	2.42			

**p < .05

As the information in the table indicates, the experimental groups outperformed the control groups in the posttests in both phases. However, the results of the analyses showed no significant difference between the performances of the groups in either phase. Due to the fact that the differences between whole groups' performances on the posttests were not significant, there was no need to check the moderating effect of level of literary knowledge for the experimental sub-groups.

4.2. Progress in literary knowledge

In response to the second and third questions dealing with progress rates over the instruction periods, groups' performances in the pretests and the posttests in the first phase were compared in the first place. The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Progress for the groups in phase 1

Group	Test	N of pairs	M	SD	t-value	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Control	Pre-test	16	7.69	3.42	1.86	15	0.083
	Posttest	16	9.50	2.04			
Experimental	Pre-test	16	8.31	3.42	3.96**	15	0.001
	Posttest	16	10.44	2.17			

**p < .05

Given the information in Table 4, the experimental group showed a significant rate of progress over the treatment period in phase 1, while the control group did not enjoy such rate of progress. To further scrutinize progress in the experimental group, it was checked in light of learners' different levels of literary knowledge and subgroups' progress indexes were subjected to paired-samples t-test analyses. It was found that only less knowledgeable learners enjoyed a significant rate of progress. Table 5 shows the results.

Table 5

Progress for the experimental subgroups in phase 1

Level	Test	N of pairs	M	SD	t-value	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
High	Pre-test	9	11.11	0.78	1.51	8	0.169
	Posttest	9	11.78	0.83			
Low	Pre-test	7	4.71	1.25	7.46**	6	0.000
	Posttest	7	8.71	2.16			

**p < .05

Exactly as it was done for the data on progress in the first phase, whole groups' rates of progress in phase 2 were analyzed through separate dependent-samples t-tests. The results of the analyses are given in Table 6.

Table 6

Progress for the groups in phase 2

Group	Test	N of pairs	M	SD	t-value	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Control	Pre-test	20	11.01	4.42	4.37**	19	0.000

	Posttest	20	14.49	2.28			
Experimental	Pre-test	20	10.41	2.80	7.33**	19	0.000
	Posttest	20	14.66	2.42			

**p < .05

Table 6 shows that the experimental group enjoyed a better index of improvement (t = 7.33 vs. t = 4.37), though, progress rates for both groups were significant. Since the lecturing strategy in the control group in phase 2 was with a communicative orientation, sub-groups' performances in both groups were compared to check for any moderating effect on the part of learners' level of literary knowledge. The results of the analyses are shown in Tables 7 and 8.

Table 7

Progress for the control subgroups in phase 2

Level	Test	N of pairs	M	SD	t-value	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
High	Pre-test	12	12.36	1.68	2.14	11	0.056
	Posttest	12	14.63	2.84			
Low	Pre-test	8	8.97	1.86	5.68**	7	0.001
	Posttest	8	14.28	2.86			

**p < .05

Table 8

Progress for the experimental subgroups in phase 2

Level	Test	N of pairs	M	SD	t-value	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
High	Pre-test	12	12.21	1.88	6.62**	11	0.000
	Posttest	12	15.60	1.56			
Low	Pre-test	8	7.72	1.40	4.91**	7	0.002
	Posttest	8	13.25	2.88			

**p < .05

In the experimental group, as the results indicate, both subgroups enjoyed significant progress rates though more knowledgeable learners' performance difference showed a better index of progress (t = 6.62 vs. t = 4.91). In the control group, less knowledgeable learners enjoyed a

significant rate of progress over the instructional period while this was not the case for the more knowledgeable sub-group.

It should be noted here that the analysis of the data was to address achievement in literary knowledge across groups in the two phases of the study, progress within groups, and progress within subgroups. In both phases, the experimental groups outperformed the control groups regarding achievement, though the differences were not found to be significant. As for progress rates in phase 1, only the experimental group had significant performance and within the same group, less knowledgeable learners showed this accomplishment. In phase 2, both whole groups had significant progress rates. Furthermore, while only less knowledgeable learners in the control group showed a significant rate, both sub-groups within the experimental group did so.

5. Discussion

Lecturing with its teacher-centered nature has been a common practice in the realm of pedagogy since the time immemorial. It has also been the case with language-related courses including those in applied linguistics and foreign language literature at the tertiary level. In the very field of second or foreign language education, however, it is almost half a century that there has been a momentous tendency towards communicative and learner-oriented teaching procedures. Language teaching innovative methods in the 1970s followed by the appearance of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and its extensions (content-based and task-based instruction) are prime examples of this shift in teaching strategy. Regarding these considerations, this study aimed at evaluating the functionality of a task-based teaching procedure in enriching jargon-loaded L2 literary courses usually offered to EFL learners in tertiary education with maximum level class interaction, a crucial requirement for language learning in exposure-poor EFL contexts. This interaction enrichment, however, had to be justified by acceptable rates of achievement and progress gains in the subject matter on the part of learners receiving the treatment. To this end and in two phases, the study was directed to deal with three questions formulated to address learners' achievement and progress beyond ascertaining the production of group and class interaction required for accomplishing the core task. What follows is a discussion of the findings in light of the data analysis.

5.1. Achievement

The first research question reflects the concern for the functionality of task-based teaching procedure in making use of L2 literature to trigger class interaction while producing a satisfactory level of achievement gains. It might have been the same concern that has made Durant (1995) suggest designing group-work tasks for employing L2 literature in language education only with the purpose of supplementing or enriching 'more traditional lecture presentation' while raising the caution that tasks 'should not' substitute other common modes of teaching literary courses. Results in Table 3 provide concrete evidence that the amount of interaction produced by the task-based procedure (crucial to foreign language learning in a formal setting) was repeatedly (both phases) accompanied with a degree of achievement in the subject matter that is also guaranteed by traditional lecturing.

Due to the fact that achievement in a subject of study is commonly held as an index of cognitive accomplishment, the achievement rates documented for the treatments in this study (found to be comparable to those of the traditional procedures) have to be considered within a cognitive perspective of task-based instruction. With respect to this outlook, research has shown that task characteristics and conditions under which tasks are completed could significantly contribute to greater focus on content (Skehan, 2003).

Achievement gains found for the experimental groups in both phases of the study is an indication that learners' focus on content manifested in their posttest performance might have resulted from the potential of the core task in providing the learners not only with opportunities for class interaction but also with appropriate conditions for cognitive involvement. These gains can also be evaluated in association with what Nemeth and Kormos (2001) found for the effect of repetition as a task condition; they showed that task repetition can lead to focus on content in argumentation tasks. Accordingly, presentation of an interpretation with justification and discussion as the second and third phases of the central task regularly repeated throughout the treatment periods could have contributed to focus on content while learners were busy with group interaction, focus that might have resulted in the observed groups' performance in the posttests.

5.2. Progress

The findings presented in Tables 4 to 8 indicate two general trends in relation to improvement in the subject matter over the instructional period along with the moderating effect of literary

knowledge in modifying this improvement. In the first place, comparison of the experimental groups' performance on the pre- and posttests in both phases showed significant rates of progress for the groups over the instruction periods. The control group in the first phase did not show any significant progress and the improvement rate documented for the communicative lecturing procedure in the second phase was found only effected by less knowledgeable learners. This is an issue that helps the recognition of a second recognizable trend that addresses the last research question. Simply, in all instances of progress, less knowledgeable learners consistently and significantly showed improvement rates; the only occasion of such an accomplishment for more knowledgeable learners was found only for the experimental group in the second phase of the study.

Unlike achievement which is scheduled to be observed at the end of an instructional program as an index of cognitive growth, progress indicating movement to a higher state of learning over an instruction period can be examined in light of a multitude of factors affecting learning development during the instruction. To discuss the above-mentioned progress observed during the treatments in this study, it seems to be most justifiable to draw upon the notion of motivation especially when it is associated with task-based teaching. According to Ellis (2003), one of the most important benefits that the task-based approach can bring to learners is motivation.

Preparation, presentation, and discussion getting a large number of learners involved in the core task in the treatments seem to have paved the way for the influence of both individual and interpersonal factors that are shown to promote intrinsic motivation (Lepper & Malone, 1987); individual factors might be challenge, curiosity, control, and fantasy and interpersonal factors may include competition, cooperation, and recognition. In a similar vein, Dörnyei (2002) found support for a phenomenon called 'motivational processing' leading to co-construction of task motivation in a dynamic way while peers were completing communicative L2 tasks involving several participants, a task condition similar to that of the core task employed in the treatments.

5.3. Level of literary knowledge

There were three occasions of significant progress rates found for whole groups, that is, for the two experimental groups receiving the treatments and the control group in the second phase that was taught with the communicative lecturing procedure (Tables 4 and 6). The observed progress patterns were further examined for any possible moderating effect due to learners' level of literary knowledge. The results (Tables 5, 7, and 8) show that the share of less knowledgeable

learners to whole group progress has been significant in all occasions; it was only with the experimental group in the second phase that both subgroups had significant progress rates. It is likely that these learners have made use of focused communicative interaction as a strategic means to compensate for their self-perceived low level of knowledge compared with that of their peers. Employing compensating strategies on the part of low proficiency learners is also suggested by researchers (Rahimpour & Nariman, 2011) who have worked on the interaction between language proficiency and quality of task performance with planned narrative tasks.

6. Conclusion

It worthy to mention that from among delimitations, one was the small sample size since major EFL tertiary level courses in the context of the study are usually offered more or less with the same class size. Another point is that subject matter in both phases had to be limited to English poetry due to the fixed academic schedule. There are other EFL literary courses (mentioned above) at this level of language education that might even better give way to the application of task-based instruction. Although replication of the study with other literary genres such as short stories and novels does appear to be a promising suggestion for conducting further research, experimenting task-based instruction with poetry materials much loaded with literary diction in a fixed outline is supposed to have dealt with a challenging aspect of integrating L2 literature and task-based instruction.

Given the scarcity of empirical (rather than theoretical ones similar to Durant's study cited above) studies on the use of L2 literature in foreign language learning within a task-based framework, this study was intended to monitor the justifiability of such practice. The contribution of this type of experimentation becomes more important when one considers skeptic remarks in the literature on the potential of task-based teaching for such educational innovation. O' Neill (1991), for instance, argues for the idea that lessons loaded with jargons are handled far more effectively with teacher-centered procedures in comparison with learner-centered alternatives. Even Durant (1995), who suggests ten procedures for designing group-work tasks in L2 literature study, strongly warns against using tasks as substitutes for more traditional lecturing procedures.

The presentation/discussion task employed in this study was shown to be effectively functional in producing abundant opportunities for class interaction while effecting achievement

gains comparable to those of teacher-fronted traditional procedures commonly practiced in running tertiary level EFL courses with a minimum level of interaction in the target language. Furthermore, in both phases of the study, the experimental groups' rates of achievement were supposed to be attributable to the cognitive merits of the core task compensating the absence of focused lecturing on such technically loaded materials as L2 poems. Regarding progress in addition to the observed class interaction, the supremacy of the suggested task-based procedure over the traditional ones was supposed to be attributable to co-construction of motivation as a function of peers' motivational influence on one another through regular group cooperation for repeated task performances.

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